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Saturday, January 6, 1906

The Cause and Prevention of Railway Accidents

By Charles DeLano Hine

Safeguarding the Indeterminate Sentence

By Samuel J. Barrows

President of the International Prison Congress

French Fiction of To-day

By George McLean Harper

Professor of English at Princeton University





The Outlook

Volume 82

Saturday, January 6, 1906

Number 1

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THE OUTLOOK is a Weekly Newspaper and an Illustrated Monthly Magazine in one. It is published every Saturday—fifty-two issues a year. The fourth issue in each month is an Illustrated Magazine Number, containing about twice as many pages as the regular weekly issue, and many pictures.

PRICE.—The subscription price is Three Dollars a year, payable in advance. Ten cents a copy.

POSTAGE IS PREPAID by the publishers for all subscriptions in the United States, Hawaiian Islands, Philippine Islands, Guam, Porto Rico, Tutuila (Samoa), Shanghai, Canal Zone, Cuba, Canada, and Mexico. For all other countries in the Postal Union add \$1.56 for postage.

CHANGE OF ADDRESS.—When a change of address is ordered, both the new and the old address must be given. The notice should be sent one week before the change is to take effect.

DISCONTINUANCES.—If a subscriber wishes his copy of The Outlook discontinued at the expiration of his subscription, notice to that effect should be sent. Otherwise it is assumed that a continuance of the subscription is desired.

HOW TO REMIT.—Remittances should be sent by Draft on New York, Express-Order, or Money-Order, payable to order of The Outlook Company. Cash should be sent in Registered Letter.

LETTERS should be addressed:

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Che Outlook

SATURDAY, JANUARY 6, 1906

If the Tammany boss Mayor McClellan's and district leaders **Appointments** are to control the

coming administration of Mayor McClellan in New York, the fact does not appear in the Mayor's appointments. Reports of Tammany rage and resentment against Mr. McClellan may be exaggerated, but they are not incred-The Tammany doctrine that public office is a piece of property which by right belongs to the man who works for a successful political organization Mr. McClellan has apparently disregarded. For Police Commissioner he has selected an army officer not a Democrat. not even a resident of New York In making General Theodore A. Bingham head of the police he has indicated his determination to use the police force as an instrument, not for party reward, but for public service. Whether General Bingham can possibly avoid the serious difficulties, not to say failures, of his honest and courageous predecessor, Mr. McAdoo, is another question. The anomaly of a temporary head of a permanent body is one that may frustrate the best plans of the most efficient man. Messrs. Oakley, Featherson, and Best, heads respectively of the water and lighting, of the dock, and of the bridge departments, Mr. McClellan has had the courage to let go, in spite of their very powerful political influence, and in their places has put men of good reputation-Messrs. Ellison, Bensel, and Stevenson. The reappointment of the present Commissioner of Street-Cleaning, Tenement-House Commissioner, and Health Commissioner may be regarded as deserved. Whether the new Fire Commissioner, Mr. O'Brien, formerly the Mayor's secretary, proves efficient or not, he owes his appointment to the Mayor's personal confidence in him, not to political "pull." It is evident that Mr. McClellan has

decided that he will put the Democratic party above the Tammany organization, and in at least one critical position the city above his party. He has decided to do this at the risk of alienating valuable support in the Board of Estimate and Apportionment, which holds the power of the purse, and of arousing the hostility of the most powerful of his erstwhile supporters. The Outlook hopes that the subordinate places in the city government will now be filled in no less. high-minded manner.

in New York City

The Traction Merger week the purchase of We reported last the surface railways

of New York City by the capitalists who now control the elevated and subway systems. This transaction proves to be rather a merger of the two, and is founded on a stock-watering operation of gigantic proportions. The figures are thus given by the New York "Evening Post," the comments of which are the more significant since no one will suspect that journal of anti-capitalistic sympathies:

The full plan of combination of the Belmont and Ryan traction interests is now It contemplates turning the presbefore us. ent \$30,000,000 Interborough stock into \$70,-000,000 bonds, with a "bonus" of \$31,500,000 in new stock; converting the \$52,000,000 outstanding Metropolitan Street Railway stock into \$78,000,000 new stock, and buying up the stock of the old "holding company" with stock of a new one. This is, clearly enough, a stock-watering plan on the scale of 1901. We are not likely to hear again very soon the assertion which the Subway's financial managers have been wont to make with pride, that here at least is a railway enterprise in which capital inflation has played no part. The new plan, if carried out successfully, will change all that, and will change it on much the same lines as Jay Gould selected, a generation ago, for watering the stock of the Elevated Railway.

We naturally turn to the New York "Times" to find what defense there is

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for this stock-watering operation. Its defense is mainly silence; perhaps it regards the figures as part of the news not "fit to print;" the only editorial reference we find to it is in the following sentence: "It must be plain to every man's understanding that the capitalization of the new concern is based on an expectation of largely increased business—of carrying more passengers."

Monopolistic or

It must also be plain to every man's under-Municipal Control standing that if this expectation is not realized, it will not be the men who have issued the stock who will suffer from the "great expectations." It will be either the stockholders—many of them innocent purchasers—who will go without their dividends, or the employees whose wages will be reduced because the enterprise does not "pay." In any case. the public will pay for the service more than a fair interest on the actual cost of constructing the new railways. It is because this is plain to men of understanding that the Rapid Transit Commission are preparing to meet the merger with wise plans for preventing the city from being at the mercy of a monopoly. For this two methods are proposed. The first is an endeavor to secure a new combination of capitalists to bid against the monopoly and so enable the city to secure fair terms for the franchises it is to grant. There seems to be good prospect that they will secure such inde-The other method is thus pendent bids. stated by Mr. Charles Stewart Smith, who we may well believe represents the views of the Rapid Transit Commission:

In the subway situation the city will not seek to enter the field of municipal construction and operation unless it is compelled to do so. However, if the Belmont-Ryan interests do not offer terms adequate for the valuable right they want, then it becomes the imperative duty of the city not only to own the new subways, but also to build them and run them when built. Should we be brought face to face with such a condition, the city will be found abundantly able and willing to construct, and to operate as well.

For this purpose an appeal will probably be made to the State Legislature to propose an amendment to the Constitution enabling the city to add to its borrowing capacity by borrowing on its incomeproducing property, which now it cannot As Mr. Coler has explained in The Outlook, under present conditions the richer the city is the less it can borrow. Two years would be sufficient to secure such an amendment. With such an amendment it could borrow all the money that is needful, and meanwhile it could, if necessary, borrow enough to make a beginning in subway construction. It looks as though the merger, which was intended to put the city under the control of a monopoly, might give municipal ownership a new impulse.

The New York The End of the Insurance Inves-Insurance Investigation tigating Commit-

tee finished its sessions for the taking of testimony last week. There are before it, however, several weeks of hard work in preparing its final report and its recommendations for legislation. Mr. John C. McCall, the Secretary of the New York Life Insurance Company, presented the most interesting testimony of the last days. Mr. McCall had been sent to Paris by the trustees of the Company to obtain a statement from Mr. Andrew C. Hamilton, who had been its representative in matters relating to legislation and taxation, of the manner in which he had spent the large sums of money which the Company had paid him from time to time. Mr. Hamilton was found by Mr. McCall in a precarious condition of health, which made it impossible for him to return to appear before the Committee in person. He did, however, prepare a statement which was presented to the Committee. In it Mr. Hamilton presented a long explanation of the reasons which led the New York Life, in co-operation with the Equitable and the Mutual, to organize a secret legislative bureau to protect the companies from legislation which the officials regarded as inimical to the interests of the companies and to aid in securing favorable legislation. He asserted that secrecy was essential to the success of the work of the bureau, secrecy not only from the public but from the officials of the companies themselves. He had gone into the work with the distinct understanding that he was not to be called upon to account to the companies by detailed statements as to who his representatives were and how much he paid them. He had, therefore, kept no books showing his expenditures, had demanded no vouchers from the men he employed, and had made his payments, not by his personal checks, but by cash, drafts, and certificates. He declined to give the names of any of his representatives. He submitted a statement of the amounts which he had expended on behalf of the New York Life alone since 1899, grouped under very general heads. The aggregate amounted to \$720,550, of which \$160,000 was his personal compensation, \$34,000 was for rent and clerk hire, \$74,000 was for traveling expenses for himself and his representatives, and \$451,000 was for retainers and fees for his representatives and for newspaper articles. The largest yearly expenses were during 1904 and 1905, amounting to \$142,000 and \$147,000 respectively. The size of these amounts was explained as being due in the former case to large expenditures in an attempt to create a public sentiment throughout the country in favor of Federal supervision of life insurance, and in the latter to increased activity in legislation due to the troubles in the Equitable Life Assurance Society, and to the fact that the bureau in that year was practically carried on by the New York Life and the Mutual without material assistance from the Equitable. With regard to the sum of \$235,000 charged against him on the books of the New York Life Insurance Company, concerning which inquiry had been especially made, Mr. Hamilton stated that the discharge of obligations incurred during the past two years, not included in the payments shown in his statement, and his own unsettled accounts for retainers, commissions, and percentages, would account for a large portion of it. As an evidence of good faith, however, he offered to place in the custody of the company the sum of one hundred thousand dollars, to be held subject to a future audit and settlement of these accounts. Mr. McCall testified that he had not asked Mr. Hamilton for

an accounting of any particular sum, that he had accepted whatever Mr. Hamilton gave him, and that he was not aware that he had not received an accounting for "every dollar he had ever had from the New York Life Insurance Company." He could give no explanation of the discrepancy of \$45,000 shown to exist between the money which Mr. Hamilton had received and the money for which he had accounted. Mr. John A. McCall, the President of the New York Life Insurance Company, is reported to have said that the statement was "very satisfactory," and that he regarded it as a "very good report." It is extremely doubtful if the policyholders of the New York Life will share Mr. McCall's opinion.

Mr. Richard Wightman,

Life Insurance

the President of the Life Without Agents Insurance Club of New York, testified that several years ago he conceived the plan of writing life insurance by advertising followed by correspondence, without the intervention of agents. He made a contract with the New York Life Insurance Company, and by means of advertising he obtained in three months a larger number of policies than any other agent of the Company, although not a larger volume of business. His contract was then terminated by the Company on the ground that its terms had been violated by him; but he testified that he had never been able to find out in what the violation consisted. His contract with the New York Life was on a commission basis, and during his connection with the Company he found that the cost to him of writing a policy was fifteen dollars, and that his commissions from the Company on such a policy amounted to about sixty-five dollars per thousand. If he wrote a policy of one thousand dollars, his profit amounted to fifty dollars, while if he wrote a policy of five thousand dollars his profit amounted to three hundred and ten dollars. the termination of his contract with the New York Life, Mr. Wightman formed connection with the Reliance Life Insurance Company, of Pittsburg. this time a combination was formed by

the Equitable, Mutual, and Prudential Life Insurance Companies to prevent Mr. Wightman's advertisements from These appearing in the magazines. companies informed certain publishers that if Mr. Wightman's advertising was carried theirs would be discontinued, and offered to other publishers large advertising contracts if his advertising should be refused. Their opposition was based on the ground that Mr. Wightman did not mention in his advertising the name of the company that would write the policy. Mr. Wightman testified that he was unwilling to do this for the reason that it would weaken the force of the club idea which he was carrying out in his advertising. As a result of this opposition he was led to form the Life Insurance Club of New York, which has been in existence for about a year. This Club writes life insurance entirely by advertising and correspondence, and employs no agents. Mr. Wightman testified that the premiums charged by his company at most ages and on most forms of insurance average ten per cent, lower than the premiums charged by other companies, and that the saving to a policy-holder on a twenty-payment policy would amount to about the sum of three annual premiums. He believed that this saving would be increased by the payment of larger dividends than is the custom in other companies, made possible by the economies resulting from a discontinuance of the agency system.

There has been no abate-Affairs in ment of the reform move-Philadelphia ment in Philadelphia since the November election. Mayor Weaver and his colleagues have gone steadily forward with their work, and although developments have been less sensational in their features, they have been none the less important and satisfactory for that reason. The officials elected in November have announced their appointments, which seem to give very general approval. Some old and tried officials have been retained, but the bulk are new ones, selected, according to the statement of the Chairman of the City Party

Committee, "from among the mass of excellent material," and the prospect is that "these offices will be administered with a simple view to the public service." At one time it looked as if the officials elect and the City party leaders would be overwhelmed with applicants for place; but the dangers of the situation have been successfully passed. punishment of ballot frauds proceeds satisfactorily. The courts have directed in some cases the opening of the ballotboxes, and thus enabled the District Attorney to corroborate his other testimony. The members of the whole election board in a Fourteenth Ward division and the "boss" of the division were convicted (or pleaded guilty) of stuffing the ballot-box to the extent of two hundred ballots. They received two years each, the maximum penalty. In sentencing the prisoners the judge declared:

I see no reason why mercy should be extended in this case to any of the defendants except Williams. The men have been convicted or have pleaded guilty to a gross offense against the laws of the Commonwealth -an offense which I regard as so grave as to call for punishment to the fullest extent. A few days later the election officers of a Seventh Ward division pleaded guilty to stuffing the ballot-box to the extent of scores of fraudulent votes. In a Fifteenth Ward case the opening of the ballot-box by the court commissioner disclosed that although forty-four straight City party votes had been cast, but thirteen had been returned, and that the box had been stuffed to the extent of two hundred fraudulent votes. These cases afford interesting evidence as to how the "organization" has been able to maintain its control of Philadelphia politics. Preparations for the special session of the Legislature which meets January 15 are nearly completed. The Personal Registration Bill, prepared by the Election Reforms Committee, has been gone over most carefully, and, when introduced by Representative Sheatz (who introduced it at the regular session, where it received such scant consideration), will represent the views of all the forces interested in its passage. It will be given the united support of all the reform forces. The "ripper" repeals have been prepared by the Committee

of Seventy, and the apportionment bills by the Philadelphia City Club, and will, like the registration bill, represent the combined forces. Bills to carry out the other reforms made possible by Governor Pennypacker's call are being drafted, including treasury reform. No legislator will be given a chance to say that there was no disposition to accept the opportunity offered, as every point will be covered by a carefully prepared measure. If the members of the Legislature are sincere, they will have no trouble in giving effect to the demands of the voters, and they will be able to adjourn within the two weeks which Governor Pennypacker has indicated as being necessary to carry out the recommendations of his message. He has not given any intimation of his intention to enlarge the call for the special session and include ballot reform and uniform primaries.

A Municipal Experiment

The city of Houston in Texas has for the last half-year been carrying on an ex-

tremely interesting experiment in municipal government. Its chief feature is the concentration of power in the hands of the Mayor and four Commissioners who act as his assistants, and who combinedly have a certain degree of checking power on the Mayor's actions, but only in a few specified matters, mainly relating to expenditures. The new form of govemment was established by a charter granted by the Legislature, and the idea was in part inspired by the effective methods of the Commission under which the city of Galveston had spent millions for improvements and the re-establishing of all that had been destroyed by the great flood. The central aim of Houston's new charter is concentration of power in the hands of the Mayor, with direct responsibility from him co-extensive with this power. Only four city officers are chosen by popular votenamely, the Mayor and four Aldermen at large, who are at once appointed by the Mayor as Commissioners, respectively, of taxes and finance; police, fire, and electricity; streets and bridges; sewers, parks, water, and public health. The Mayor has absolute power of removal of all non-elective officials and employees, including the Tax Collector, the Chief of Police, the Judge of the Corporation Court, the City Attorney, and the City Comptroller. The Mayor and the four Aldermen constitute the City Council, and this Council may impeach and remove the Mayor or any other of its own members for any cause affecting his efficiency and honesty. A referendum upon the granting of a franchise may be had whenever five hundred qualified voters ask for it. It will be seen that this form of municipal government combines the advantages of home rule and of direct responsibility by the few elective officers. Theoretically, it will. not please those who believe that minor. officials should be chosen directly by the people and be removed only after tedious litigation before the courts. belief is gaining ground, however, among advocates of municipal reform that, while all power must come from the people at . large, it should be so applied as to bring about actual executive efficiency: the dissipation of the elective choice among a multitude of only slightly responsible officials is obviously without economy in power and extremely likely to make. the punishment of incompetent or corrupt minor officials almost impossible. The actual working of the Houston experiment has been excellent. A special article in the Boston "Transcript" from. its correspondent in Houston declares that "the public is well pleased with the experiment." He adds:

The period has been meteoric in respect to new policies which have taken the place of aged ones. The five commission officials have used their power freely, and they have brought about a new order of things. They have shaken loose many of the barnacles of maladministration, and plugged leak-holes of extravagance and graft. The new set of officials, while enjoying an unusual scope of power under the charter, are more than ever under the eye of the public, and their acts capable of being more openly viewed.

The Demands of the Anthracite Mine Workers The adjournment of the Shamokin Convention of the anthracite mine employees

on December 16 without formulating for the public the demands the United

Mine Workers of America are to make upon the hard-coal operators, is a step in diplomacy which seeks to secure an arrangement whereby wages and conditions of employment in that industry will not be left in uncertainty upon the expiration of the Anthracite Coal Strike Commission's award on March 31, 1906. Unless some provision be made prior to that date, the present Anthracite Board of Conciliation, which the Commission's award created, and which has had control for the past three years over general labor conditions in the hard-coal fields, goes out of existence. Such a contingency must be guarded against, and the mine workers are simply showing foresight in protecting their interests by their organized activity at this time. By the action of their Convention in placing the whole subject in the hands of a committee, the anthracite mine employees have committed their interests to the National and district officers of the United Mine Workers of America, and in particular to the hands of their National president. John Mitchell, These officials will at once, if they have not already done so, enter into correspondence with the presidents of the anthracite-carrying railroads in an endeavor to come to some kind of a mutual understanding. While the Shamokin Convention did not make public the demands of the hard-coal mine employees, the more important of these are known to be recognition of the union and the eight-hour work day. These issues are by no means new ones, having been conspicuous in one form or another in both the strike of 1900 and that of 1902. Recognition of the union is the one issue which includes all the others that the United Mine Workers have been striving to secure ever since the entrance of this organization into the anthracite region in 1898, and it is the one issue which strikes at the root of all the differences which separate the operators and the labor union officials.

a

Moderation
Desirable

We believe that recognition of the Union is for the best interests of employers, employees, and the general public; but we are not less convinced that the officials

of the mine workers' union will go contrary to their best interests, as interpreted by their friends, if they insist upon a further and formal recognition, at this time, to the point of a strike. In an industrial struggle for such an object the mine employees will not have the sympathy and support of the public, which was a determining factor in their favor in both recent strikes, because the general public will not support a demand for the establishment of this broad industrial principle unless specific grievances embodying this principle are brought home to the public's sense of fair play and justice, which it is thought by good judges cannot be successfully done at this time. But there is an even stronger reason why this issue should not be forced to a final decision at this Practical recognition of the United Mine Workers has already been secured by the three district presidents of this organization in the three anthracite fields being members of the Board of Conciliation, as was pointed out in the article by a special contributor to our issue of December 16. The existence of this Board in itself more than half-way establishes recognition as meant by the union's joint-conference plan between operators and mine workers, and is about as near to the trade agreement as it is possible to approach without merging into the latter. Having already, within six years, secured so many of those objects for which the United Mine Workers of America is organized, its officials should, and we trust will, be careful to guard safely that which they have rather than risk it all in reaching out to secure more of their demands. The United Mine Workers have the Anthracite Board of Conciliation, upon which they have equal represention with the operators, and they would be in danger of losing this substance of recognition if they should reach out for its shadow. The recognition which they have may not look as large as that complete joint-conference recognition which produces the trade agreement, but it is recognition, and should in time, if made to work to the welfare of the industry, grow into the joint-conference organization. We believe the public can be

depended upon to lend its influence in support of efforts which will continue in operation the Anthracite Board of Conciliation.

Some time ago Mr. William J. Diplomatic Bryan asked to appear before Reform the Committee on Foreign Affairs of the House of Representatives. The request was, of course, promptly granted. The result was a pleasant, intelligent, and informative statement from Mr. Bryan advocating the purchase of proper sites and buildings for the use of American embassies in foreign capitals. As, in common with many others, Mr. Bryan had long been credited with contrary views, his patriotic action was an indication of the growth of a general feeling throughout the country that such sites and buildings are required for the dignity of the Nation and its representatives. Evidences of this feeling are now at hand in the measures just introduced in Congress by Representatives James Breck Perkins, of New York, and Nicholas Longworth, of Ohio. The first bill of the former authorizes the Secretary of State to purchase a proper site and building in London for the American embassy, at a cost not to exceed \$400,-000. The text of the second bill is like the first, save that "Paris" replaces "London," Mr. Longworth's bill provides for a considerably greater maximum expenditure, namely, for the purchase at a cost of not over \$5,000,000 of buildings for American missions at foreign capitals.

We hope, however, that The Longworth the Longworth bill will meet with the favor of Congress. Something should be done, and done promptly, to remove the apparently necessary qualification of great wealth for the holding of ambassadorial office under our Government. Ambassadors receive such small salaries as compared with the salaries paid by other countries that none but rich men can aspire to American ambassadorial position. We have as a case in point the offer by President McKinley of a high ambassadorship to a man of distinguished learning, experience, capac-

ity, and character, who was obliged to refuse it solely because of the inability to maintain a proper establishment on the salary received. In Washington there has been little evidence of each British Ambassador's particular wealth, because the same building, owned by the British Government, has been occupied by all. So, in our case, if a suitable official residence were given to each of our diplomatic envoys, then, at least so far as such an external appearance is concerned, rich and poor appointees would appear more nearly alike. This is Mr. Longworth's motive in proposing his measure; it provides not only for our Ambassadors but also for some of our Ministers: it is essentially a measure in the interest of democratic representation

The new British Premier, The Liberal Sir Henry Campbell-Ban-Programme nerman, has confirmed at almost every point the Liberal programme which The Outlook ventured to outline two weeks ago. In an address at Albert Hall he spoke with an apparent candor and sincerity which greatly impressed his audience and have created an impression throughout the country. After the brilliant finesse, intellectual subtlety, and wonderful verbal dexterity of Mr. Balfour, one of the most accomplished men of his generation, the straightforward simplicity and plainness of speech of the new Premier will be a relief to the British public, which is always a little suspicious of brilliant The Liberal programme as outlined by the Premier rests chiefly on uncompromising maintenance of the British free-trade policy. At this point, if the Liberals can have their way, the coming political battle is to be fought; for upon this ground all Liberals, whatever their differences on other points, stand as a unit. The Premier also announces that an endeavor will be made to reverse the Transvaal Chinese coolie policy, in which the Liberals will have a great and enthusiastic following among the best people in England; the supremacy of the civil over the military government in India; the maintenance of the alliance with Japan and of the close rela-

tions now existing with France, both of which are very popular and constitute probably the most valuable achievements of the late Conservative Government: the lessening of military expenses, and, in consequence, the reduction of the burden of taxation. The only political question with which the Liberals will have to deal to which the Premier did . not give a decisive and definite answer was the Irish question. He went so far as to say that the Government would favor the granting to the Irish of larger opportunities of self-government, but he defined neither the time, the manner, nor the extent to which this policy will be applied. He has not evaded this question, however, and in a later speech at Dunfermline he stated his general attitude very clearly: "Any legislative body for Ireland that we ever supported was to be subordinate to the imperial Parliament."

As reported in The Outlook The Moscow last week, the second gen-Revolution eral Russian industrial strike culminated in grave disorders at Moscow. During the week which has since elapsed these disorders resulted in a terrible destruction of life. sands of men, women, and children have been killed and other thousands wounded. At the end of last week it was believed that the revolt had been practically broken, although desultory firing continues. One fact seems now establishedthat some members of the fighting organization of the German and other foreign Socialists have gone to Russia and have been instructing the revolutionists there in the use of arms, the art of constructing barricades, and the manufacture of bombs. This calls attention to the four component parts of the revolutionary side of last week's struggle—the Socialists, who apparently want the destruction of all things; the industrial workmen, who want proximately better wages and ultimately proper political control; the peasants of the surrounding country, whose one idea seems to be to obtain possession of the crown lands; and, finally, those of the so-called "intellectuals" who stand behind the student movement, which, at Kharkov and Kiev, as well as at Moscow,

has been in the very forefront of the fight. Last week's affair also called attention to the fact that the revolutionists had made good use of their instruction from abroad and had started trouble in many places. For the first time, the provinces east of Moscow, in the heart of Russia, are now affected, the peasants and workmen having used bombs and firearms freely. West of Moscow the unrest increases, especially throughout Poland and Lithuania, although Finland to the north has apparently been largely pacified by the autonomy already granted. In southern Russia the authorities seem to have succeeded in checking some of the disorder by wholesale arrests of the ringleaders and the seizure of arms, but the insurrection in the Caucasus shows no signs of losing its strength. It remains to be seen what part the reactionaries have been playing in secretly fomenting the disorders headed by the revolutionists. Meanwhile, the Liberals and Moderates, representing the country's only hope, continue to fight for political reform without anarchic revolution against almost hopeless odds.

Last week the new The New Russian Russian electoral law Electoral Law was proclaimed. By it there is a considerable extension of the suffrage, especially in the cities, where it is made almost universal. It extends the franchise to every owner of real estate paying taxes, persons conducting enterprises for which a license is necessary, persons paying a lodging tax (all limit of rent as a voting qualification being removed), Government workmen (employees in the various departments, in the postal and telegraph offices, and on the railways), and, finally—most significant of all, because chronicling the triumph of a politically neglected classworkmen in mills and factories. This class is to have an elector for every ten thousand men; for instance, in St. Petersburg province the electoral college will contain fourteen peasant electors, twenty-four workmen, and thirty-three landlords. The electoral colleges will be composed of one from each province. While the new law as thus outlined implies a great extension of the provisions of the manifesto of last August, its chief advance lies in the statement that "in view of the fact that some even of the western European countries do not yet possess universal suffrage," and that the Czar will not assume the responsibility of decreeing it, "the ultimate decision must be made by the Duma," or parlia-The Czar promises that a parliamentary election list shall be published forthwith, that the date of the election shall then be announced, and, as soon as the Government receives notification of the election of half of the candidates. the Duma will be convoked. Duma is to make the ultimate decision regarding universal suffrage in Russia. is an indication that the merely advisory body proclaimed in August is to become in some degree a legislative body; indeed, that in principle it may even have some of the powers of a Constituent As-Such a change in the attitude of the Czar and of his chief Minister, if confirmed, would, in our opinion, register the passing of the Russian people from a largely irresponsible to a responsible political position, and the government from an absolute autocracy to a constitutional monarchy.

The flight or disap-President Morales's pearance of the Presi-Flight dent of San Domingo should not, it would appear, affect the treaty between the United States and San Domingo now before the United States for consideration. It might do so were it true that President Morales was the head of a party in his own country which favored this treaty and had given way to political enemies who opposed it. This is not the case; the Vice-President, Mr. Caceres, who is now acting as President, and his supporters in the Dominican Cabinet have taken pains to inform this country that they cordially approve the treaty; and, indeed, it is more than probable that the recent representation to Washington to the effect that the Dominican Congress as well as the President should be consulted as to this treaty was an indication and forerunner of the Political disturbance resulting in the

flight of President Morales. Furthermore, the new situation emphasizes rather than lessens the need of such a treaty whereby stability should be imparted to the finances of San Domingo, satisfactory plans made for meeting the claims of European creditor nations, and the latter kept from taking possession of ports and custom-houses in order to secure their money. It is difficult to explain the cause of President Morales's abdication, because the political status of San Domingo is as intricate as it is devoid of reason. At bottom the strife is one for personal supremacy, and genuine efforts at reform cannot safely be predicated of any of the fac-There are at least three aspirants for the Presidency, each of whom has his party of armed followers, who are guilty of just as great depredations as they dare undertake, and whose ultimate aim is to seize the ports and the capital if opportunity presents, temporary arrangement between San Domingo and the United States whereby American agents have been appointed by the Dominican Government to collect and hold customs dues, with the intention to divide the funds justly between the creditors and administrative needs. makes it improbable that insurgents will interfere with the custom-houses; while, in point of fact, the funds thus collected have been very much larger than the Dominican Government had formerly been able to collect. It seems to be in doubt whether Morales, who evidently found the opposition in his own Cabinet so strong that his control of affairs, and quite possibly his life, were in danger, intends to join one of the other factions, or, as seems more likely, will take the field for himself. Reports at the end of the week assert that the fugitive President has gone north toward Monte Cristi to join a band of partisans under General Rodriguez; but other reports state that he is about fifteen miles west of the city of San Domingo and is actually fighting troops sent out by Caceres. The probability seems to be that earlier reports stating that Morales proposed to join the Jimenistas in opposition to the Horacistas (as the factions of two insurgent leaders are called) and the report

asserting precisely the reverse are both unfounded. The almost burlesque situation as between petty violent and really disreputable bands of insurgents in San Domingo makes it more and more to be feared that interference of some kind from the outside may be necessary.

Four great religious waves Christianity have exercised a marked inin China fluence in China. The first was a new form of Buddhism, which superseded the transmigration and other tenets of an earlier school. The second was the influence of the Nestorian sect which appears to have been a chief factor a thousand years ago in the transformation of Taoism from a magical superstition to an ethical system. The third was the mediæval influence revived by the Jesuits. The fourth is modern Christianity. Notwithstanding many imperfections of which they are each more or less conscious, the Greek, Roman; and Protestant branches of the Christian Church exhibit one common feature in the transformation of China in contrast with other forces. What they do can be definitely pointed out as a real social as well as religious uplift. In this a peculiarly practical and permanent influence has been exerted by the Society for the Diffusion of Christian and General Knowledge among the Chinese. annual report calls attention to certain facts. Christians were the first to translate Chinese literature into European languages-Latin, French, German, English-without which one hemisphere cannot understand the other. Christians were the first to open the best modern schools in the Far East for men and for women. Christians were the first to introduce there the training of medical men on modern lines. Christians were the first to publish magazines in the Far East, commencing with monthlies, these followed by weeklies and Christians were the first to prepare text-books for the use of modern education, indeed to prepare books on general subjects of all kinds; these were the means of setting on foot the great reform movement in China. Finally, in all cases of public calamity, such as

famines, floods, earthquakes, and the like, Christians have always taken the leading part both in raising the funds and in their distribution—a task which, owing to fevers and famines, frequently costs human life. In this enlightened and philanthropic work in China Christians spend millions of dollars annually. Despite these facts, the appalling massacre of missionaries at Lienchau has occurred, due, according to a letter from the Rev. W. D. Noyes, of Canton, "to ignorant men, frenzied by the bad characters of the neighborhood. . . . it is not an indication of the spirit of the population at large." But even if it were, and the whole province of Kwangtung had become suddenly and temporafily atti-Christian and anti-American, it would not prove that the appreciation of Christianity is declining throughout all China.

Reforming. The criticism which has for Football years been directed against Football has culminated this year in an agitation which is bearing already some practical fruit. Last week representatives of nearly seventy colleges and universities, in response to an invitation issued by Chancellor McCracken. of the University of New York, gathered in New York City to initiate some measure of reform. These men had been chosen, not by undergraduates or graduates, but by responsible academic authorities. Among them, however, was no representative of any college now represented on the Rules Committee. This Committee, which has formulated the rules according to which all American colleges have played the game, is a self-perpetuating body. On it are experienced football men from Yale, Princeton, Harvard, Pennsylvania, Cornell, Annapolis, Chicago. Each one of these institutions was invited to join in the conference, but none accepted. For Harvard President Eliot replied that he favored separate action by the individual colleges. President Wilson said in his letter, speaking on behalf of Princeton, "We have, indeed, come to conclusions so definite that we could go into such a conference as that proposed only to urge our own conclusions." The absence, therefore, of representatives from these two universities at any rate was not due to indifference. The conference, after vigorous discussion, chose a committee of seven to co-operate, if permitted, with the present Rules Committee in revising the game, and to urge the production of an "open game," the elimination of rough and brutal playing, the efficient enforcement of rules, and the organization of a permanent body of officials. More important, however, than any specific result is the evidence afforded by this conference that college and university authorities are at last assuming the responsibility for ethical standards in intercollegiate athletics which they ought never to have shirked. When President Hadley in his letter said. "Football at Yale is controlled by graduates, rather than by the faculty," he revealed the cause of most athletic abuses in most colleges. It is to be hoped that football reform will go beyond the rules concerning interference and downs and scrimmages and forward passes, and that it will reach the minds of college professors and instructors.

The South lost one of its Chancellor Hill bravest and sanest leaders last week. Chancellor Walter B. Hill, of the University of Georgia, was eminent among the men whose service to the Nation has been invaluable during these years of reunion. Born in 1851, too late to participate in the war, and yet early enough to know the humiliation that followed the triumph of Northern armies, he knew, as men older and men younger than he were not likely to know, how deep was the pit out of which the South had patiently to drag herself. Trained for the law, he became six years ago the head of the University of which he was a graduate. During these six years he has been far more than a college president; he has been a trainer of the public conscience, an advocate of popular education, an interpreter to the North of the ideals of the South, a happy and energetic contributor to the process by which for a generation the Nation has been finding itself as a Nation. The service he rendered through the Southern Education Board has been invaluable. He had a style distinguished for clearness, and he wrote and spoke with a humor that is too rare among men who recognize, as he did, the seriousness of the problems at which they are working. His death, in middle age, is a severe loss to those forces which, in spite of a surviving unlovely sectionalism, are putting the best qualities of all sections to the Nation's use.

Consular Reform

The consular service is pre-eminently a commercial service. It aids the Nation's foreign trade. It is, in general, rarely to be confounded with diplomacy, in the strict sense of that word, and almost never with politics. It should be organized as a home commercial house would organize its branches abroad.

To be efficient the system needs, first, to be self-respecting. It needs to be divorced from politics. At present an unholy alliance exists between it and politics—the spoils system. "To the victor belong the spoils." A victorious political leader presents his sub-leaders to the President for appointment somewhere, preferably to any comfortable berth in the consular service, not because of any demonstrated competency on their part to perform the duties of a given position in that service, but merely as a haphazard reward for party fidelity. Under these circumstances, no matter how fair to every one a conscientious Executive tries to be, the result is often a misfit; and in some cases our consulates have been disgraced by unworthy men. In any case, however, appointees generally have to learn their business after arriving at their posts abroad, the majority of the appointees not even having a knowledge of the language of the country. Such appointments benefit no one, and are ultimately a source of party weakness rather than of party strength.

Secondly, to be efficient the consular service must be a paying one. It is true that a large income rewards the fortunate holder of some few consular positions, but the average income is

too small. There is not sufficient financial inducement to ambitious young men to enter upon a consular career when most of those now in it are underpaid.

Thirdly, to be efficient, the service should be permanent. The average consular officer regards the retention of his place as conditional upon guarding his political influence at home rather than upon developing his own efficiency abroad. Hence the protection of the home influence becomes the consul's first interest, the promotion of trade abroad a secondary consideration. Instead of being bound to such an absurd system, so long as he gives evidence of good behavior, the American consular officer should be sure of retention in office, and on evidence of marked merit he should have a right to expect advancement. Our consular service should be what it has never been, a career; and to be that it must be self-respecting, paying, and permanent.

This is not saying that it is not now better than it has been. After Mr. Hay became Secretary of State a policy of promotion was inaugurated both in the consular and diplomatic services. Men of proved qualifications were advanced to important posts. It was also noticeable both that the commercial information obtained by our consuls abroad became more practical in character, and that there was greater celerity in giving it to the public. After Mr. Roosevelt became President there was also increasing evidence both that first appointments were being given to applicants whose credentials indicated ability rather than influence, and that the morale of the whole service was being toned up and improved.

It might be assumed that, as reforms have already been effected by executive order and otherwise, statutory enactment is not necessary. But until these principles are embodied in law they cannot be safe from possible future harm under some reactionary President. Furthermore, for other necessary improvements in the direction of systemization, legislative authority is of course absolutely essential. Year by year, therefore, we have seen vain attempts to get Congress to accept consular reform; in the

words of a leading journal, it has beco "a monotonous demand." This ye however, it is not so monotonous usual, for Congress seems nearer the ever before to providing for an improve service—this because Congressmen: pear to have more general and genuinterest in the subject, and also becauthe influences of the infamous old sposystem are not so evident.

The salient features of the prese measure, now before the Senate Co mittee on Foreign Relations, are: (1) classification within one year of all co sular offices in fixed grades; the prese members of the force to be assign to these; consular salaries also to classified on a more adequate basis; (original appointments to be made examination; no one to be examinwho is under twenty-one or over for years old (the age-limit of previous bil forty-five and fifty-five years, might ha been preferable); among the subject for examination one other modern la guage than English to be included; (original appointments to be made on to the lower grades; a freedom to 1 provided for in the transference of me from one place to another in the san grade; to countries in which the cons exercises judicial functions, no one be sent until he shall have passed a examination in law; (4) places in the higher grades to be filled by promotion from the lower; (5) a consular inspetion service to be provided—somewhat like that of the bank examiners to ou National banks; (6) clerks to consulate who command a salary exceeding a thou sand dollars a year to be American cit zens; (7) consular officers not to engag in business on their own account; (8 fees received to be accounted for an paid into the Treasury.

Some such measure is more nearly in line with what Congress would grant, we believe, than has been any previous bill. Hence, constituents at home, whethe citizens or corporations, who favor consular reform should write to their Senators and Representatives. Every citizen or commercial body in the United States is interested in the improvement of our consular service. The measure now before the Senate Committee would

benefit both the Government and our consular officers. The Government would no longer be harassed by complex and unsystematic service; it would be delivered from much of the influence of the spoils system; and would provide in the service itself such a consular trainingschool that succeeding Congresses would, by additional legislation, seek to emphasize the policy simply as a matter of trade advancement. To our consular officers and to possible applicants the effect of such a law would be equally beneficial. Those in the service who have proved their efficiency would receive recognition and secure retention, while young men, meditating upon their coming work in life, would be warranted in finally including the consular service among the careers that are self-respecting, paying, and permanent.

The Harvest of a Quiet Life'

There comes from the press now and again a volume of letters or memoirs which make us aware that the quiet life is not only strenuously preached but happily lived in our noisy age. There are still places where old-fashioned flowers bloom and old-fashioned people read the old books and practice the old virtues and keep intact the tradition of the old manners. There are, indeed, a surprising number of such people, if they could be counted by the census-takers; but a cardinal principle of their faith and practice is to keep out of sight. are many modest men and women who cannot enjoy this luxury because their occupations have more or less publicity; but the scholar's work, as a rule, escapes the eye of the reporter and goes unrecorded by the newspaper.

Such a life was led in the delightful village of Clinton, in one of the most beautiful pastoral sections of New York, by Professor Edward North, who died two years ago, after a service of more than half a century. "Old Greek," as the Hamilton students affectionately called

him, was not a man of profound erudition, but he was a true Humanist, which is far better. A simple teacher in a small community, he lived in and with his authors, and taught not only the form but the soul of a language. A great Grecian once said, in response to a disparaging remark about Mr. Gladstone's scholarship, that he lived with Homer. Professor North not only knew his authors, but lived with them. His relations with classic writers were so close that he unconsciously expressed in his teaching the. kind of liking or repulsion which most of us feel only for the living. He spoke of Æschines as if he were a neighbor of an unlovely kind, and his regard for Herodotus was tempered by his feeling that the father of history was a good deal of a gossip! Scholarship never became to him an impersonal pursuit, nor the books he taught mere material for linguistic and grammatical instruction. He penetrated to that immortal substance in books which has power to keep a dead language alive. This has been the distinguishing mark of the true Humanists from the days of Manuel Chrysoloras to those of Dr. Jowett; they owe much to the pedants, but are as distinctly of another race as are the poets who give words wings from the philologists who dig up their roots. His attitude towards his profession, which was both vocation and avocation to him, is suggested by this quotation from the " Memorabilia" written on the title-page of his "Index Rerum:"

The treasures of the wise men of long ago, which they recorded in books and left behind, I unroll and peruse in company with my friends; and if we see anything good, we choose it out, and we esteem it a great gain if we prove helpful to one another.

Professor North was happy in the circumstances of his life. He lived in a beautiful town, in the atmosphere of a small college which has always had a generous element of culture in its training and the service of able teachers; his home overflowed with books; and he opened his windows on an ample garden! It fills one with envy to think of his leisure, his reading, and his flowers. So full was the stream of his life that it continually overflowed the limits

^{1&}quot; Old Greek." An Old-Time Professor in an Old-Fashioned College. By S. N. D. North. McClure, Phillips & Co., New York.

of his occupation in all manner of records in prose and verse, memoranda of his studies, comments and criticisms; he had time to fill scrap-books and to keep journals; to make a report of himself to himself, and so to retain an objective impression of his own growth. The men who have the chance of working in many fields are far more numerous than those who have the chance of reaping where they have sown. Professor North was one of the fortunate few . who can both wander and wait; who can roam afield and come home at nightfall or at summer's end with the ripened grain. He slowly and quietly mellowed on the sunny side of the wall.

If he had been less content with his conditions, he would have been more widely known; for he had not only the habit of industry, but the gift of writing. He never mistook knowledge for original material; he enriched himself with it. He had humor, wit, sentiment, keen observation, aptitude for sound criticism, and the knack of saying things happily. His addresses on those occasions which appeal to men of generous ideals and sentiment were felicitous because they were so full of his own personality. simplicity, sincerity, and kindliness, combined with his scholarship, ability, and vigor of character, commanded the respect of his students and gave his relations with them a geniality and ease which were no small element in the college education. As President of the Alpha Delta Phi Fraternity, one of the most important of the Greek letter societies, which was organized at Hamilton College in 1832, Professor North was widely known and as widely honored by a host of college men in all parts of the country. Like all men of imagination, he had a great deal of the boy in him, and was on easy terms with youth to the day of his death.

It is wholesome to read the record of such a life as Professor North's at a time when so many careers are wrecked at the summit of the years by false valuations of the things of life; his clear integrity, intelligent aims, liberal tastes, and quiet harvest of peace and honor stand in striking contrast with the stained names, the discredited wealth, the unfaith-

fulness to trusts, of men who have had great opportunities of setting fidelity and purity of character before young men and have tragically failed to see and to practice virtues which give life its sweetness and society its moral dignity. These men have made life meaner; Professor North made it richer and finer. It might be said of him, as was said of one of his contemporaries in England, "he was a widener." And he might have made his own the words used by this contemporary English scholar of those Humanities which are the soul of scholarship and literature: "Suffer no chasm to interrupt this glorious tradition . . . Continuous life . . . that is what we want—to feel the pulses of hearts that are now dead."

The Ethics of Money

Adam Smith, father of modern political economy, said: "A guinea may be considered as a bill for a certain quantity of necessaries or conveniences upon all the tradesmen of the neighborhood." In other words, a sum of money, large or small, is an order payable to the bearer for a proportionate amount of service. Men wish to have these orders presented to them, that they may make a living by filling them. This conception of money is the fundamental requisite for its ethical treatment. It was remarked by Mr. Gladstone that a man's mental and moral character is largely revealed in the way he deals with money.

Most people think of money simply as a means for getting themselves served with whatever they desire. Everybody knows that he cannot, except by robbery, get the coveted money-order for service without some giving of service, more or less, real or fictitious. But to care more for getting the money than for giving its full equivalent in service is to have started on the down grade to robbery in a predatory state of mind. That money when not the gift of affection is held by no moral right, except as earned by a proportionate amount of service, is an elementary moral truth. In defiance of it an enormous amount of predatory wealth has been accumulated in recent years. A financial "operator" has testified in a Boston court that he and his partners "made" \$46,000,000 by promoting a certain trust. Fancy, if possible, the vast total of services by all sorts of men to which that staggering sum gave legal claim! From such enormities public indignation, class hatred, and social danger spring. Lowell remarked that there is dynamite enough in the New Testament to shatter our social system, if not carefully handled. Jesus' saying, "The Son of man came not to be served but to serve," is true of every son of man. "He that is great among you shall be your servant" is a fundamental law of the Republic of God. Essential to social stability as well as to personal integrity is an ethical valuation of money as the measure of service in equal reciprocity between man and man.

This requires the service rendered to be balanced by a sum of money good for an equivalent amount of service, and no more. The rule is incontestable. The courts continually apply it in scaling down excessive claims for service rendered. In applying it, or any other rule, we expect to meet problems. So all agree in the general principle of justice, "To every one his own," but in a given case we divide upon its practical application. Here, then, we encounter the crucial question. What is the true criterion of the money value required to measure the just exchange of equivalent services? The service rendered has saved life or limb. Shall its just compensation be measured by the value of life or limb? It has saved an estate, it has vindicated a good name, by bringing the spoiler or the slanderer to justice. Is the benefit value of such service to its receiver the true criterion of the compensation due? To affirm this is simply to charter extortion limited only by the resources of its victims, like the recent reported charge by a New York surgeon of seven thousand dollars for operating on a common case of appendicitis. The claim to profit proportionately to the peril or distress which service may relieve is an inhuman claim, commending itself only to coiners of cash out of human woe, like the cartmen who demanded a dollar a minute for salvage service while Baltimore was burning. The only criterion compatible with the social spirit of unsophisticated humanity is the cost value of the service to its giver.

In so saying it is not forgotten that service-givers differ in efficiency. One will spend two days in doing what another will do in one. The cost of inefficiency is not to be added to the cost of service. The trade-union rule of restricting the output of service to the capacity of the backward is morally indefensible. . But one cannot here discuss particular applications of the general principle which none who accepts the authority of the Supreme Moral Teacher of the world can consistently deny. As in the case of his Golden Rule, loyalty to the principle must be trusted for its practical working out. Here, however, one caution is to be borne in mind: the cost value of service must be as comprehensively reckoned for the weaker as for the stronger givers of service. That it is not vet so an unimpeachable economic authority has observed. Says Carroll D. Wright: "Capital charges to the consumer the depreciation of property and machinery. Why should not the depreciation of human machinery, its hands, its brain, its body, be included in the final cost?" The list is suggestively incomplete. Should not the laborer's cost of service include also provision for a sanitary home, and for the exemption of his children from being taken out of school to earn their bread? How inordinately in contrast with the scrimping of the weaker part of the community the cost of service has been figured for the profit of the stronger has recently been glaringly revealed upon the witness-stand. It even poses as "reform" when the president of a company organized for the benefit of widows and orphans accepts a salary "reduced" to a sum eight times larger than the salary of the Governor of the Bank of England.

But men greatly vary in ability, and ability enhances the value of service to the receiver. Does it not deserve proportionate return to the giver? In a moral estimate this depends on what it has cost the giver. So far as his ability is the product of laborious and expensive preparation and culture, it has cost him something, and has justly earned a

proportionate return. But so far as it is a gift of nature, it has cost him nothing. Then it can hardly be thought to have earned a money claim to service, unless natural inequalities were designed to create or perpetuate artificial inequal-Despotism derives its claim to service from having been born in the Democracy cannot. It seems morally preposterous to think of divine endowments as given for private emolument, or for any other purpose than social benefit, and so enabling their possessor to gain social rewards which make his fellows no poorer to give. The greater the service, the greater the due reward. But the highest rewards, except by the sordid, are not counted in cash. Social esteem and honor outshine and outlast all other wealth. In a more humanized period than ours, when man's wit, if not, as once, his weapons, is sharpened against his neighbors, these will be the only recognized prize for competition. Already is this presaged by the physician discovering some new preservative of life, who prefers the honor of giving it to the world to the profit of a royalty upon its use.

All reputable economists agree that the present problem of their science is a more equitable distribution of wealth. In plainer words, our economic system is such that a few secure orders in the form of money for much more service than they have given, while many can only secure considerably less. The root of this injustice is an immoral estimate of money as merely a means for commanding service, rather than as the measure for a just exchange of service. The capitalist scores the workman for caring more for the quantity of wage than for the quality of the work he gives for it. But he himself cares more for his dividends than for the service alleged to earn them. Both are tarred with the same stick. The difference in the practical result of their immoral idea of money is the difference between grand and petit larceny.

Here, then, is fallow ground for moral and religious teachers to break up, and sow with some elementary truths of Christian ethics. Not more do the arid lands of the far West need irrigation than the torpid moral sense of a moneyhunting community needs to be sensitized to a moral estimate and use of money as the measure of services given and received in just exchange. Society is based on this just exchange in equal reciprocity. He who attempts, by the acquisition of money, to command more service from his fellows than he renders them, is unconsciously working for the disruption of the social bond and the ruin of the commonwealth.

The Spectator

"Timeliness," the Spectator observes, consists in doing things four or five months beforehand. Last year he fully meant to make him a garden; but when, the frost being out of the ground, he set about looking up seeds, and gardening books, and a tiller of the soil, he found the questions involved so abstruse that before he had settled a tithe of them harvest was upon him. This year he proposes to get well in advance of the season. So, while Mrs. Spectator fretted her soul over Christmas, he plotted garden, basking in the anticipated sunshine of spring. "Would Charlie like a scarfpin?" queries she. "Doubtless," says the helpful Spectator; "he's collecting. But, see here, this is vital. 'The proper exposure for asparagus beds-'" But Mrs. Spectator escapes.

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Let none assume that the Spectator's soul grovels altogether among the edibles. His real enthusiasm is his wild garden. He was not always in love with wild gardens, the commonality of them being, he opines, either not gardens or not wild. He recalls one neat animated herbarium, stuck full of tin labels, marching mathematically by twos and fours, with here and there a nostalgic blossom pining on its stalk—a scientific outrage calculated to make a sentimentalist mourn. Another so-called wild garden confronts the Spectator with artfully disposed masses of things once wild, which, under the hand of the landscape artist, have assumed a sophisticated waywardness quite uncanny. The Spectator covets

no calculated jungle. To him it seems neither natural nor honest.

His wild garden will be like unto neither of these. He will buy him a bit of real wilderness within trolleying distance of his suburban home, and there, among the wild things already on the land, he will persuade the boldest as well as the shyest of forest blooms to grow. Then, when the "old spring fret" attacks him, he will journey, not to Farmer Jenkins's wood lot (which that unsentimental worthy may have converted into fagots since last spring), but to his own forest preserve, where neither barbed wire, nor bulldogs, nor berce-eyed cattle menace him, and where in loyal companies stand waiting the delicate firstlings of the year.

If ever the Spectator breaks the shaltnot-covet commandment, it will be on? account of a certain wild garden up in the provinces. It was June when he alighted at "Ingleside," on the St. John River, such a little station that the train would never have hesitated at it save by request. Inquiring warblers greeted him from the copses, "Which-is-it? Which-is-it? Whichity — whichity whichity-which ?" Minding instructions, he plunged down a road deeply shadowed by evergreens, and came shortly to a rustic gate. Set in a bed of sweet white violets, it gave upon nothing more habitable than leafy woods. The Spectator pushed in and stood dubitating in a green allee of giant ferns. when the owner of the jungle discovered him, and hauled him, somewhat broken in wind, up to a picturesque eyrie full forty feet above the road. While he rested his eyes on curving reaches of dim blue river and caught his breath, his host explained his garden.

"When I was seventeen years younger," he began, "I had an audacious dream. I would make this snug twoacre plot of mine a vegetable microcosm of the Province of New Brunswick. Every tree, shrub, flowering thing, grass, moss, and lichen in the land should flourish here within eye-shot of my window. Well, I've failed; but I've no apologies for the result. I can take you down to that pocket grove and show you good specimens of all but four or five of our native trees, and most of our shrubs. All the ferns are here, and I have, or have had (for I keep no official necrology), some five hundred flowering plants. As for lichens and grasses, I'm afraid they camp at their own pleasure. But it's been a good seventeen years' work. I'm satisfied."

(2)

The Spectator ran his eye over grove and meadow and barren knoll. "Trees I see and ferns I see," he said, "but where are your wild flowers?" The gardener smiled. "If you could see them, my garden would be like all the rest. But I've no beds, no rows, no classification. They're all over the place. My model sower is the wind. Of course moisture-loving things must go in the damp hollow in the grove, and heaths do best on that dry knoll. But if you want my wild flowers, you must search precisely as you would in the woods." So saying, he led the Spectator on a tour of discovery. Being no botanist, the Spectator let scientific names glance harmless off his brain. But he knows that a weedy meadow yielded up an amazing variety of plants, all such as love the fierceness of a summer sun, and all looking as settled as if they were not shanghaied colonists. On the knoll, presided over by one ancient white pine, arbutus and Scotch heather got on famously together, the latter living under the gardener's displeasure as an unnaturalized alien. Flowers were not overplentiful in the lush tangle of the grove, it being already late; and the Spectator is no connoisseur in leafage. But every boulder waved with luxuriant rock-fern. "You'd scarcely guess that those ferns, and in some cases the boulders too, were imported?" queried the botanist. The Spectator certainly wouldn't. But it appeared that his host was accustomed to pillage boulders in woods where only nibbling sheep would feel the loss, stripping off the close fernmat, roots, soil, and all, and, rolling it tenderly, convey it home in a wheelbarrow, there to be applied to his own

barren rocks. 'They'll stand almost anything," said he, "except being sat upon. I had a gentleman here one day and I left him for a moment, and when I found him he was draped luxuriously over my finest fern-boulder, smoking. 'I'm afraid you're not comfortable,' said I, in an agony. 'Immensely cozy, old fellow,' he responded, wriggling about to show me how nice it was, and sending into eternity a dozen ferns at each twist. He never came to Ingleside again!"

"So you have your enemies?" queried the Spectator. "Enemies?" he said, with uplifted hands. "I'm never safe. I'm too unhandy for the wild-flower pillagers. But telegraph gangs pursue my trees; and Polacks at work on the railway culverts throw rocks on my orchids, and visiting botanists grub up my choicest specimens for their herbariums. And then there's the brook! When I took over this place, I fancied all it needed was my guiding hand to make it spread out into lily-pools and quiet reaches where I could harbor waterplants. But that's a deceiving little brook. In spring it swells to a raging torrent, bursts all my bounds, and absconds with my aquatics to the riverside, where they not infrequently settle down and thrive. When I want them again, I go out and lead the wanderers home."

"Why not a concrete dam?" suggested the Spectator. "Too costly. One shining merit of this garden is its cheapness. My plants I kidnap; my saplings likewise. No hand but mine is employed about the place, and the only fertilizer needed is loam from neighboring woods. Come and see how I work." So saying, he possessed himself of a trowel, and led the Spectator down the road, and presently into the damps of a near-by thicket. "I noticed a Cypripedium here," he said, "that might better be blooming in my woods. Keep a lookout for what Gray calls 'pink-purple.'" But it was not the Spectator who gave the view halloo. "Now," said the gardener, as he delved at the root of the spectacular thing, "note the situation of this orchid—wet ground in the shade of evergreens. We'll find it a nook just like this. And just pull up a square foot or so of that leafy moss. I've some Goodyera plants that came out of moss like that, and it'll make them feel at home." Grubby-handed but hugely interested, the Spectator followed to the grove, and had the pleasure of seeing the lady-slipper accommodated with a congenial berth, and of beholding his own initials inscribed on the label driven down beside it. "Henceforth," said his host, grandiloquently, "that orchid blooms in honor of you!"

"You do use labels?" inquired the Spectator. "Oh, yes, or else I'd always be planting things on top of each other. They serve as tombstones for things that die of our chill fogs, and as moderators of my vanity, too. See here." (He drew from under a bench a great box full of labels.) "In the first flush of confidence I made labels for the whole flora of the province. These are my defeats. Howeyer," he went on, "the rewards have been a thousandfold. My hobby has carried me to the wildest parts of the province plant-hunting; it has been responsible for canoe trips up the Restigouche, the Nipisquit, and the South Tobique Lakes. Scientifically, of course, the place is of considerable interest. especially in the opportunity to study plant affinities and aversions. Plants pitch upon a newcomer like chickens in a coop, and if I didn't cut them back the old inhabitants would choke my new importations in short order. Then, a secluded, woodsy place like this becomes a favorite stamping-ground for birds and small beasts. Best of all, there's the perennial uncertainty of the thing. Specimens I have carried hundreds of miles sometimes flourish when those transplanted from the next farm pine away. Every spring is a fresh surprise. I have all the excitement of gambling without the vice."

Now you know why the Spectator spends his evening printing neat botanical labels, while Mrs. Spectator jeeringly refers to chickens counted before they are hatched.

THE CAUSE AND PREVENTION OF RAILWAY ACCIDENTS

BY CHARLES DELANO HINE

Author of "Letters from an Old Railway Official to His Son"

The writer of this article is a graduate of West Point and of a law school, who, after honorable service as an officer of the army, resigned his life commission to become a freight brakeman. Major Hine, now engaged as an operating expert in the examination of various railways and as an editorial writer for "The Railway Age," has worked in the last ten years as brakeman, switchman, yardmaster, conductor, chief clerk, trainmaster, assistant superintendent, and as general superintendent, besides finding time to serve as an officer of volunteers in the Santiago campaign of the Spanish-American War. Our readers may be assured of his thorough practical knowledge of the important subject he discusses.—The Editors.

NO the layman the question of railway accidents seems simple; to the railroad man it is complex. An aroused public sentiment demands that greater safeguards shall be thrown around the traveler and the employee. Public opinion is king, and in obedience to its royal mandate we railroad men are trying to solve the problem. It is not as easy as it looks. Block signals are accomplishing a great deal, perhaps more than any other one factor. The railway practitioner, like his medical brother, never finds any one specific for all germs. The causes for accidents are often organic, sometimes sporadic, and usually typical.

It is a high tribute to the railway profession that so great is the popular faith in our ability to overcome obstacles that we are expected to meet the situation promptly. The municipal reformer is borne with if a new set of rascals develops in the triumphant reform party. The sanitary expert who cleans up a fever-ridden city is not held responsible if his successors become lax and an epidemic breaks out. Railroad men, however, like generals in the field, must show results quickly or the popular demand for redress assumes a drastic form.

It is only three-quarters of a century since George Stephenson constructed the first successful locomotive, and it was driven by a man still living. In the brief span of two generations has resulted the vast railway system of America, with more than 200,000 miles of line. Trans-

portation harks back nearly to the beginning of human life, but its primitive forms contain less in common with modern conditions than do manufacturing, navigation, law, medicine, banking, and insurance. Without the wisdom of the ages to guide us, we of the railroads have had to make precedents and pay dearly for the experience. On the whole and in the large, we have little to be ashamed of, but our just pride must not beget criminal indifference or preclude progressive policies.

The most elaborate devices for the safe operation of railways are as naught if the men who use them are not properly trained and handled. The morale of the service is the point on which railway managers fix their attention. All try to build up an esprit de corps, but few really succeed. Ignorance of fundamental principles of organization is too common. This will not be remedied until officials of railways are trained along fundamental and comprehensive Just as the intended builder of fortifications must himself handle a pick and shovel at West Point, so should the future maintainer of way work on the track. Just as the coming admiral must go aloft on the school-ship from Annapolis, so should the would-be superintendent learn the hurricane deck of a freight train. Few railway officials can actually drive a track spike, fire an engine, or brake a train. If an official has happened to learn one practical branch, the chances are that he has not acquired

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another. The all-around training of the cadet is necessary for the development of the great captain, and great captains are necessary to large organizations. When we have better-trained railway officials, we shall have more comprehensive policies and a better morale among our men. In the meantime there are many things that can and will be done to bring about safer service.

Railroads represent enormous investments of capital in the aggregate, but distributed among many people. Capital from its nature is conservative, and a conscientious desire to protect the stockholders, many of them humble citizens, sometimes results in unwise parsimony in railway presidents and directors. Chances of disaster are taken rather than spend money in safety appliances. This ultra conservatism is seized upon unjustly by the sensational press as an indication of criminal corporate greed. As a matter of fact, in the operation of most large railways, good money is wasted through violation of basic principles of organization and administration sufficient in amount to equip in a few years every mile with the most approved block signals and other safety appliances. Enough money is disbursed, but too much of it is spent in folly rather than in wisdom. This will not be corrected in a day or a year. It will take perhaps a generation to overcome the lack of prevision in the past, and to shake off the fetters we have forged by unwise specialization. A comforting and encouraging feature is that there is comparatively little graft. Where there is honesty of purpose progress is easier. So rapid has been the development of railway transportation that we have been early in reaching the inevitable stage of Bourbonism. What form the equally certain revolution will take depends largely upon ourselves. Would we avoid the cumbersome, expensive, and generally undesirable method of governmental regulation, we must cultivate an attitude of solicitude for human life, apart from its punitive value in dollars and cents.

A fruitful source of accident is in the heavy equipment of the present day. Locomotives have been built of a size and weight utterly unwarranted by the

development of track and roadbed. A school of get-rich-quick railroad men has come out of the West and hypnotized most of the profession into believing that true economy in operating requires a maximum train-load. They reason that, as the same number of men can handle a long, heavy freight train as a short, light one, much money in wages can be saved by running fewer trains; that every additional car per train is hauled for practically no cost. The idea of something for nothing is always attractive to Wall Street, and now one of the tests of efficiency in operation imposed by the financial world is the average train-load. In the past trains were admittedly too light; at present they are undoubtedly too heavy. We must vibrate back to a happy and economical medium. statistician yet knows the true cost of the attempts we have made to strengthen roadway and bridges, and to enlarge facilities to handle the big train. This heavy train-load has been the greatest element of demoralization in the rank and file of the railway service. To its ramifications may be traced more accidents than to all other causes combined. In order that an artificial paper record may be built up for the management, men are started with a train so unwieldy that they are discouraged from the start. They are paid overtime for extra hours worked, but overtime does not keep them awake and vigilant when dragging over the road an excessive number of hours at a stretch. A train of seventy-five cars is over half a mile in length. The time consumed by the conductor in going to and fro between the engine and caboose has a bearing upon practical train operation which is not appreciated by the man behind the desk in New York. railroads have trained their men to regard the mile as a sacred unit of compensation in making wage agreements. With innocent inconsistency, they turn around and go before rate-making bodies with the just and proper claim that distance is not an all-determining factor; that a short haul may, under certain conditions of traffic and territory, be entitled to a higher rate than a long haul.

There are approximately a million and a half railway employees in the United

For this vast host there are only about five thousand general and five thousand subordinate officials, making a total of about ten thousand officials, or an average of about one for every one hundred and fifty employees. We are inadequately officered, and authority has to be delegated to foremen and clerks to a demoralizing extent. The result is a laxity in discipline, due to insufficient supervision, which is reflected in unnecessary accidents. The bent of the railroad mind is such that if an additional official position is created, the new official soon asks for a stenographer and builds up a bureau of records and correspondence around himself. Efforts are being made to correct this evil and concentrate clerical work in fewer offices. Railway officials all favor this in the abstract, but not one in fifty knows how to organize his territory properly. Railroads have much in common with military organization. They can learn from the accumulated experience of centuries of army existence. Thus, a regiment of twelve hundred men has from forty to fifty officers, or one for every twenty-four to thirty men. Each of the twelve companies keeps a record of its men, and all regimental records are concentrated at headquarters. In spite of this simplicity of administration in field units, the staff departments built up a bureaucratic system, which broke down in Cuba and in South Africa. The remedy in this country has been a general staff for the army and a general board for the navy. Every large railway system needs a general staff, divested of administrative responsibilities, but advisory and supplementary in nature. Railroads are burdened by bureaus and departments not properly balanced, which give a chief clerk in an office more authority than a higher-paid official of rank on the ground. dents will not be materially decreased until such organic evils are eradicated.

The tendency of railway executive and general officers is toward Napoleonic methods. Too frequently there is lacking as a necessary accompaniment both the genius of Napoleon and the indispensable training of his youth as cadet and under officer. The railway profession is too young to have many whole-

some checks on abuse of authority. general in the field cannot permanently degrade an officer or man without due process of law. A railway official usually holds his position at the pleasure of one or two superiors. Dwarfed he may easily become, and lacking in boldness and originality, under such a system. Skilled employees, in many cases driven to unionism by arbitrary abuse of power, have a firmer hold by virtue of the strength of their labor organizations. Reforms must begin at the top, and we must improve official tenure before we can comprehensively train our men to avoid accidents.

In the rapid growth of the country, captains of industry have floated away from old-time moorings set by directors and stockholders. Many of the industrial absolute monarchies thus resulting have had good czars, and results have outstripped those obtainable by any other method. Too many have become drunk with power, and the reckoning for their stockholders has been heavy. Recent events in banking and insurance have awakened directors to the fact that they must direct. When railway directors appreciate more fully their responsibilities, there will be fewer accidents. power should not be exercised directly. any more than a committee of Congress should attempt to handle a fleet at sea. The president and his staff must act through a one-man system, but that oneman system must be held to a strict accountability to the interests it represents, to the source that appropriates the money it expends, to the public whose lives are intrusted to its keeping.

The railroads alone are not responsible for conditions that result in accidents. There is a responsibility upon the citizen. In general, a civic community may be said to have as good a government as it deserves. The same may be said of its railway service. As long as public sentiment countenances the holding up of corporations at the muzzle of a threatened legislative act or municipal ordinance introduced for unworthy motives, the probability of accidents cannot be greatly diminished. As long as people consider it legitimate and smart to beat a railroad company, or to secure a pass

on the flimsest pretext, just so long will money be wasted which should go to improve the service. When more juries regard their oaths and give corporations fairer verdicts, then will travel become safer.

As practical people, we are not sitting idly by and waiting for improved corporate, sociological, and ethical conditions to safeguard the traveler and the employee. Much is being done. way, bridges, track, and equipment are being rebuilt and replaced at an enormous outlay. Thousands of miles of block signals have been installed at a cost of from one to three thousand dollars per mile. A block signal is merely an indicator of the occupancy or non-occupancy of a stretch of track called a "block." A signal is useless unless its command is obeyed. Too often a lax discipline winks at disregard of signals in order to make fast time. Then, when trouble comes, an unconscious administrative cowardice lays all the blame upon the poor fellow directly at fault. Where the block signal is interlocked with a derail, as at a drawbridge or the crossing of another railroad, the train disregarding the signal is stopped by being run off the rails on the ground. This is a drastic and violent precaution which sometimes results in greater loss of life than if the collision itself had occurred. Devices have been invented which automatically stop a train the instant it passes a block signal set at danger. steam roads these appliances are generally regarded as still in the experimental stage.

The collision is the least excusable form of accident. The causes for collisions are numerous, but nearly all go back to questions of organization and discipline. One excuse given by managing officers for loose discipline is the tyranny of labor organizations. It is claimed that the only way to enforce discipline is to discharge men, and that if men have to be reinstated at the behest of grievance committees, all proper effect is lost. While this contention is in part true, it betrays a deplorable lack of appreciation of the true mission of those invested with authority. Many unwise labor contracts have been made by railroads. Too often principle has been temporized with to avoid the expense and inconvenience of a strike. Officials who are trustees for large properties sometimes yield too easily to demands which ultimately restrict employees to certain classes of work and hamper the development of the individual. This results in men being laid off at certain seasons without work, while a comprehensive scheme of organization would allow the man to be transferred to another kind of work. It is not enough to say that the men bring these conditions on themselves. They should justly but firmly be prevented from so doing. fruitful source of accidents is a defect in track. Can we expect the track-walker to be vigilant in scrutinizing every bolt and tie on his lonely beat, when any day it may be his turn to be replaced by another of his section-gang in order to reduce the pay-roll? In summer track forces are large. In winter there is less work for them, but more in the shops and engine-houses. There should be some degree of interchangeability here. Such problems must be solved before accidents are fewer.

Defects in equipment contribute their full share to the number of accidents. A loose wheel, a broken rod, a bent axle, a loose nut, may send a train into the ditch and its human freight into eternity. The inspector whose duty it is to discover these defects in time must be a man in love with his work, who feels himself during good behavior enlisted in the army of his road. Until wise methods give him this feeling, until he is helped in bearing the brunt of economic and industrial changes, he will not do his full duty in preventing accidents. In the meantime firm but considerate discipline accomplishes much and can accomplish more.

Few people appreciate the true meaning of the word discipline, which can be found by going back to the same root as the word disciple—a learner, a pupil, a follower. With this fact should be kept in mind the immortal words attributed to George Stephenson, namely, that the highest branch of engineering is the engineering of men. Engineer the men properly and accidents will be minimized.

Railroad accidents there will always be. Mankind cannot harness the forces of nature, cannot dart through space, cannot minimize the effect of time and distance, without some risk of life and limb. There should, however, be less hazard in traveling on a well-organized railroad than that assumed by the farmer's son or daughter in riding the unbroken colt over the pasture-bars.

THE MOTORMAN

BY SYLVESTER BAXTER

O not talk to the motorman!" The open car was whizzing along the country roadside and I was on the front seat. The legend upon the roof-rim gave admonitory coun-But I was not talking to the motorsel. man. The motorman was talking to me. Perhaps on my part this was a passive violation of the company's rule. But I felt no call to discourage the talk. the first place, I did not want to seem rude. To assume a cold and distant bearing was contrary to my nature. Moreover, I was interested in what was The man was companionable, and he evidently had a desire for companionship at the moment. I noted that he was all the time keeping a vigilant look ahead. And, above all, he was entertaining me with some accounts of the motorman's life and of the sort of happenings that are peculiar to the street railway. His talk was broken by frequent intervals of silence, for every now and then we would thread a section of meandering track or cautiously descend a troublesome grade. At such moments I made no question. But when the track ran free and straight ahead, I would respond with a word or an assenting nod. Whenever we lay at turnouts for a coming car to pass, he would assume the vacant place beside me and rest from his constant standing. Then I would take more active part in the conversation and ask concerning this thing and that.

At one long stretch there was a complication of curves and of down grades. I sat regarding the figure before me. It was erect with the statuesque immobility that marks the motorman's calling. The distinctive dexterity of the trade was the simultaneous manipulation of

the controller-handle and the brake in opposite and outward directions. These adroit motions suggested the hand movements of a prestidigitateur before an audience. But now, with the gradual substitution of the pneumatic brake for hand power, this gracious token of the trolley is passing. A sense of greater safety is the compensation.

How quickly a new trade stamps its character upon the men who follow it! It differentiates them by divers subtile indications. It remolds their features with new contours, graves them with new lines. It organizes new vocabularies; words, perhaps familiar, fall from their lips with novel implications that make laymen feel ignorant-much the same helpless ignorance that one feels in the presence of a Sanskrit scholar when he discourses of his specialty. It abolishes old perils, but it develops new ones. The trolley allays all fear of scalding steam, but the "live wire" inspires us with a new terror. The new vocation also adds new sorts of maladies to the long list that human flesh is heir to. Has not somebody heard of a "motoritis"?

Little more than three lusters have passed since electric power began to supersede animal traction upon the tramways. In its dispersion over the world it is now universal. Trolley-line practice, like the steam railway and like the sea and its sailors, already has its own traditions and even its conservatisms and its trade-clannishness—perhaps its superstitions as well. How long will it be before it develops its adventurous and romantic aspects and calls in literature to work them up? There is already a deal of good raw material in waiting.

I once traveled in England in the company of an eminent man of science.

He was fond of tracing the course of evolution in everything that came under his eye, and he did it fascinatingly. the railway he showed how nearly every feature of the fittings in the compartment was a survival from the stage-coach. In a restaurant he traced the development of the electric-light fixtures from gas fixtures. In like manner, while the steam railway's equipment is derived from the stage-coach, so the street-car, the tram-car, blends the city omnibus with the passenger-car of the former. When the trolley came in, it was a question whether the term "driver" should be retained, as on the steam railway in Great Britain. It was even seriously proposed to adopt the verbal monstrosity "motoreer," in analogy with the locomotive engineer. But, fortunately, the sensible word "motorman" found universal acceptance.

Just as not a few old stage-drivers became train conductors, and even locomotive engineers, so many old car-drivers became motormen. But about the motorman of to-day there is no suggestion of horse or stable. Mechanical environment has driven those associations clean away, as they have from the locomotive engineer and fireman. As a rule, the motorman knows no more than does the average passenger about the laws and the mysteries of the subtile energy whose power obeys his hand. But he knows a deal about its peculiar actions and behavior, and he is skilled in dealing therewith so far as he is called to be.

Not every man is fitted for a motor-Many of the best old horse-car drivers failed when they exchanged the reins for the controller-handle. nerves, presence of mind, instantaneous response to emergency demands, are required to a degree not excelled even on the steam locomotive. The strain on the nerves is something tremendous. Hence the motorman is peculiarly subject to nervous disorders and their attendant maladies. These strong, alert fellows often wear out in a very few years under the exceeding stress of their work. The life of the railway engineer is placid in comparison. At any moment some emergency may make a demand upon the nerves comparable to that upon the motor itself when the full current is suddenly turned on or as suddenly shut off. In the case of the motor, when the force of the current is too great for the rheostat to take it up, the fuse burns out. There is a flash, a report, the startled passengers jump, the women scream, the car stops. But no particular harm has been done. The burned-out fuse has saved the motor. The excessive current, melting the metal, has cut its own connection and can go no farther. The motorman gets down to the trucks, inserts another "safety-plug," and the car goes its way.

Possibly the human organism may have the equivalent of a rheostat. But no fusing contrivance has yet been adapted to the needs of the nervous system. So, at moments of nervous strain, when the vital energy is disturbed in its course by some instantaneous interruption, it goes worse with the motorman than with his motor. The man is fortunate if some nerve has not been burned out because of a tension far beyond the point of safety.

The locomotive engineer has his clear track, the right-of-way is fenced in, frequented grade-crossings are guarded. His daily routine is seldom liable to break. But where the trolley-car speeds along the common highway, something is likely to happen at any moment. In the motorman the vigilance of the locomotive engineer is immensely intensified. At any moment his hands may have to make response to alert eyes. A bewildered person gets in the way; a child, impishly daring, scampers across the track; a team suddenly veers across the road. Prompt slowing down, sudden stops, may be called for numerous times in the course of a trip. These things, constantly recurring, subject the motorman to a physical wear and tear more serious than that put upon the carwheels. The latter often get flat intervals worn in their originally perfect circles when the sudden brake clutches them and makes them slide along the The "flat wheel" hammers the track with each revolution and makes rough going. But it is taken to the repair-shop and turned true again. is not so easy to repair the motorman's strained nerves. Every day, several times a day, some excessive draft upon them is likely to make his heart jump into his throat and his breath stop short. When peril is averted by a hair's breadth, it leaves him white and trembling. keeps his way and runs his trips-but what exhaustion at the end of the day's At times he breaks down and cries like a child. Again, something more serious happens, something like a nightmare in its sense of fright, of terror. It is seldom his fault. But he feels his responsibility; he was the instrument. Then he faints away, he is completely unstrung and is deathly sick. It is no boy's play, the simple-seeming task of guiding a trolley-car.

Being a comparatively new calling, few motormen are primarily trained for the work. Though far from "unskilled labor," the pursuit is something fairly easy to learn, though requiring some special aptitude. The ranks are recruited from those of many and diverse occupa-Among these are some that are the last which one would expect to find represented. One late autumn day I was on the way into town; the air was mild and the crowded box car was unbearably close. I escaped to the front vestibule for air; fortunately, the motorman had the plate-glass window open before him. As we crossed the river I looked down stream to the shipping at a great coal-dock and remarked: "There's a big six-masted schooner down there."

"Yes, and four five-masters besides," said the motorman.

"How few square-riggers we see in port nowadays!" I observed.

"Mighty few," he replied. "Squareriggers are getting scarce. But there are three of them further down; one of them is a pretty big craft—a four-masted ship."

I looked closer at the man beside me. Something in his way of speaking and in his bearing told unmistakably of the salt water. "You seem to know something about vessels," I remarked.

"I ought to by this time," he answered.
"I was more than thirty years at sea—
twenty of them in command of squareriggers, sailing to all parts of the world.
My last ship had her keel pounded out
of her on Nantucket shoals; we lost our

bearings in thick weather. I owned a good part of the vessel; there was little insurance, and everything I had was invested in her. After that I concluded to keep on shore. I had had enough of the sea. That is why I am here to-day at the bow of a trolley-car instead of on a ship's quarter-deck."

I afterwards learned that there were three old sea-captains running as motormen on that one division of a great street railway system. It is related that at one time the police force of old Salem was largely made up of veteran sea-captains, left stranded by the decline of American shipping. But here was a new calling that seemed to have a special attraction for seafaring men, perhaps because substituting a mild sort of land navigation, as it were, for their wonted wanderings over the world. I once knew an old shipmaster who, on retiring from the sea, invested his savings in a canal-boat, passing the rest of his days in navigating the placid Erie. Thenceforth his course was upon still water, and he retained the importance of command and the privilege of free expletive. But the life recalled salt water, much as ginger ale might be reminiscent of champagne. As a pursuit, the piloting of a trolley-car is far more adventurous.

Many a motorman has his avocation. I knew one who, besides giving much of his spare time to pigeon-breeding, derived a considerable income as the landlord of a couple of two-flat suburban houses. Another one told me about the wellordered farm that he owned in Maine: he had left it in charge of a competent relative, and it yielded good returns; he spent a vacation there every fall, and some time he meant to go back there to pass the rest of his days. But he liked city life, his motorman's wages were so much net income, and he had the farm to fall back on. So he felt himself pretty well fixed.

In modern fiction, as a field for tales of adventure, the steam railway has become conspicuous in recent years, the locomotive engineer a special sort of a hero. Runaway locomotives, derailments, collisions head-on and rear-end, exciting episodes on the plains and among the Rockies, pioneering, the rude

and often perilous life at the front while a line steadily advanced its track into the continental wilderness—all this diversified life of the railway, with its complex organization, has offered rich material for popular writers—men like Spearman, Cy Warren, even Kipling—until railway stories, like those of the sea, have taken rank in a class by themselves.

The electric railway is so new that it has not entered into literature to any marked extent. Authors have not yet acquainted themselves with electric railway practice or mastered its interesting technique. Strange to say, they have passed the trolley-car by for the yet newer motor-vehicle. But its day will surely Perhaps the electrification of what is now the steam railway will hasten This consummation has long been expected, and apparently is now not far away. And when the controller-handle replaces the throttle, will not the locomotive engineer be a man of the past? Will not the motorman come to the front. with all the heroic potentialities that by good right are his?

As it is, the humble trolley-car has a history that, brief as it is, teems with adventurous material. And recent developments in interurban electric lines bring the field close to a mergence with that of the steam railway. Even now an ambitious and resourceful young author has but to haunt the car-barns to gather all manner of good virgin matter for his purposes.

In the larger aspects of adventure the trolley line offers worthy parallels with the steam railway. The romance of old highwayman days, for instance, is brought down to date by the train robbery. But in populous eastern Massachusetts a rural trolley-car was the victim of a midnight attack a few years ago. was all the traditional "stage business," as it were-masked men, revolvers ominously pointed, "hold up your hands," etc. Most of the passengers were homeward bound from the Boston theaters; everybody was thoroughly scared, and they all meekly gave up their wallets. After the thing was over, some of the All the women indulged in hysterics. passengers were cleaned out. were no nickels left to pay further fares

with, and the conductor, who had been the first one "cleaned out," felt justified in relaxing the company's rules and giving his passengers a free passage for the rest of the trip. The robbers could hardly have found their adventure so remunerative as it would have been "out West." There was no express safe to blow up and plunder, and a company of local trolley-farers could not have yielded the returns that would have come from a trainful of long-distance travelers. It was suggested at the time that the robbers were professionals from the plains venturing into a new field. that seems highly improbable. Doubtless they were youthful amateurs of the neighborhood, fired to their derring-do by over-indulgence in literature about the James brothers and their ilk.

In the same part of the world a trolleycar was snowed in one wild winter night. The rescuing snow-plow did not arrive till late the next morning. It found the passengers tired and hungry. But the current was on all through the night, and kept the car both light and warm.

As for railway horrors, what could surpass that Melrose disaster? A box of dynamite dropped from the team of a careless expressman; then, a few minutes later, in the still moonlight evening, an outward-bound trolley-car, well filled with people returning home from Boston, blown into fragments-many persons killed outright, others frightfully maimed. The horror of it was not for those whose lives were snuffed out. They never felt what happened. One of the passengers was a lady, who, being in the rear part of the car, escaped with a severe nervous She heard no explosion, was not in the least aware of the appalling disruption. One moment she was sitting quietly in the car; the next moment, as it seemed to her, although it was hours afterward, she awoke in her bed at home, and was puzzled as to how she came there.

To return to my motorman—the one who at the beginning was talking to me. Some of the things he told me suggested how closely akin was his calling to that of the locomotive engineer. His communication was largely autobiographic. He had been a carpenter by trade, and

he had something to say about his wife and children in their snug little home; he had built the house with his own hands. He had been on the line a couple of years. Everything had been going on so smoothly, so void of ill happening, that he had grown to feel it would always be so, that nothing out of the common ever would happen. It had been that way for eighteen months. Then three things happened one after the other—all in a row, as it were. It was not only on that very line, but right along in that very part of it where we were just then. He really could not help mistrusting that somehow the region was **hoodooed** for him; he now felt prepared for anything that might happen along there; he could not well keep his eyes more open for everything along the way than they were at those times. openest of eyes, he said, could not have helped matters then.

"What was the first thing that happened?" He repeated my question. "It was nothing much, so far as the harm done amounted to. But it hinted that my luck had turned. Do you remember how, back there a little ways, we ran through the edge of a village? Perhaps you did not notice where the track keeps close to the sidewalk as we make a sudden curve. Just at that point there is a white house, a story and a half, with a picket fence. It was a Sunday morning, and it seems that a young fellow had called at that house with a horse and buggy to take a girl out to ride. He hitched his horse to the picket fence and went inside to wait while his girl was putting on her Sunday go-to-meeting best—though it was go-to-ride best in The horse was up on the this case. sidewalk, stamping a hole in it and making a muss of things, and now and then he would take a gnaw at the fence to fill in the time. I didn't see him doing it, of course, but I took particular notice of the fresh-gnawed pickets and the stamped-up sidewalk when I stopped and looked round at things that day. The horse was up on the sidewalk, as I said, and the buggy stood across the track. I came along as usual, not expecting anything but a possible hail from a waiting passenger. I was close upon

the team before I could see it: I slapped on the brake, but there was no time to prevent what happened. In a jiffy the buggy was smashed into kindling-wood: the car took it in the stern quarter. Luckily, the horse was not hurt; he stayed hitched to the fence, kicking and prancing like all possessed. Everybody came rushing out of the house; the young fellow had a Sunday paper in his hand; the girl was in a wrapper and her hair was half done up. But she was a pretty girl. 'What in thunderation did you do that for?' the young man asked me, looking at the splinters of his 'What did I do it for? What buggy. did you do it for? Don't you know any better than to hitch up your team across a car-track on a curve?' I asked him He had some sense in him after back. all, for he cooled down and allowed that it was his fault, sure enough. 'Well, I'll know better next time,' he said, as he looked carefully over his horse. seemed it was his own team. Etta,' he spoke to his girl in a sort of good-natured tone, 'we'll have our ride anyway. You may as well go in and finish getting ready while I take the horse down to the livery and hire another buggy.'

"Well, everything went all right again for ten days after that. Then—but you must have noticed how just now, while I was talking, we went down a short, steep hill into a hollow, where a stream runs across the road. We were on our last trip, and it was after midnight. There had been a heavy downpour that day, and the stream, ordinarily a little brook-like affair, was running bank full and several feet deep. I took the hill as usual, cautiously, for a steep grade and a track not over good. But when we struck the bridge, down went the whole thing; the car gave a slew and pitched through the rail down into the The flood had undermined one of the abutments, leaving the bridge hanging by its timbers. But apparently it was whole as ever when seen from I was slung sidewise off the platform into the water, nearly up to my The passengers all got a ducking, neck. But nobody was badly hurt, though such a shaking up made some heavy

bruises for some of them. It was pretty uncomfortable for us to walk, dripping wet, a quarter of a mile to the next farmhouse, where we roused up the folks and borrowed blankets and any other old things they had to wrap ourselves in. Luckily, it was a mild July night. A relief car got to us in about an hour. The telephone signals came in handy just then.

"Now for the third thing. There was something rather funny about that. I had a narrow squeak of it, but I can't help laughing every time I think of it. It happened right here, where we are. See, on the other side of the road there, that patch of new fence in front of the house with a new piazza? The company paid for that fence and for that piazza, and for something besides. you see, the way curves moderately to the right along here. Only six days had passed since we pitched into the river, and again it was our last trip. We were going full speed, controller-handle at the top notch. But just where the curve begins we struck a loose rail, and were off the track before I could think. car veered diagonally across the road; on she went, crashing through the fence, smashing into the piazza of that house, bunting into the side of it, and shoving the whole blessed thing back fourteen feet off its underpinnings. As we went bumping over the ground I kept my place; perhaps I couldn't have jumped off if I had tried. The car smashed in the side of the house, and the first thing I knew I was in a bedroom, head and shoulders just above the level of the Right opposite a man and his floor. wife were in bed, half paralyzed with fright, of course. I still stood clinging to the brake. 'Good-evening!' said I, not thinking. Then, 'Beg pardon!' 'I should say so!' said the man. 'A pretty way to come into a man's house without knocking.' He was one of the hot-tempered sort, and he was mad as a hornet. Under the circumstances I didn't blame him much, though he seemed to think I had done it on purpose. But I couldn't help answering, 'Without knocking? It may not have been knocking, but it made noise enough, anyway!' I got some scratches that time. See here?" We had come to a siding, and were waiting for the down car. He pulled up his right sleeve, and there from his wrist up was a long, heavy scar, freshly healed.

FRENCH FICTION OF TO-DAY

BY GEORGE McLEAN HARPER

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UMAS and Balzac are the two extremes and the two supremes in French fiction: Dumas the delightful, who dissipates reality with its hard laws and awkward facts, who draws a magic circle within which there are no ten commandments, no cruel and prosaic relation between cause and effect; Balzac, at his best, the scrupulous observer, the unsparing moralist, the profound interpreter of manners. many of us the thought of a French novel evokes memories of something delicate and light, something gay and fragile, themes fanciful and diverting, a style rapid and sparkling, an effect as unreal, unmoral, and harmless as that of the "Arabian Nights." Happy are the read-

ers who have rested content with Dumas and are able to retain this conception of French novels. Better informed, though probably not so happy, are they who have studied with Balzac the actual state of French society in his time, in the borings which his relentless drill brought to the surface from various strata, and classified in the Comédie Humaine. The genius of the French nation expressed itself no less characteristically in Balzac than in Dumas. A gift for accurate analysis and a gift for the playful exercise of wit and imagination have had an equal share in making French literature.

I venture to suggest that a third and far more numerous variety of fiction, the

sentimental romance, is not so permanently satisfying—that variety of fiction which is too pretentious to be diverting, and in which observation is oblique. The glow of George Sand and the force of Victor Hugo do not avail to keep us interested in their novels. Their plots lose plausibility, their heroes and heroines show a touch of the ridiculous, and, above all, the pungent and once so acceptable flavor of their authors' opinions no longer captivates our surprised and delighted sense. Dumas and Balzac we can still read, again and again.

Twenty years ago the sentimental romance was in deep disfavor. To acknowledge a liking for the "Roman d'un Jeune Homme Pauvre" was to expose one's self to the sneers of the connois-This was a wholesome turn of The cry was all for naturalism; and a genuine naturalism is a quality in novel-writing which is always in order, the safe cure for nearly every affectation and perverted habit. For the last twenty years, however, French novelists have been deserting the standard of natural-They tell us themselves that they have departed in search of the ideal. Five at one time, in the manifesto "des Cinq," and one by one nearly all the others, they have abandoned the colors raised by Balzac and defended, in the face of misfortune, by Flaubert, Zola, and Maupassant. In the face of misfortune—because these lieutenants, retreating from the fairly wide field dominated by Balzac, committed the fatal mistake of restricting their operations to a narrow territory, so that naturalism, in the popular mind, came to mean a study of horror and filth, a record of the abnormal. Zola especially was in a false position. He passed for a naturalist and thought himself a naturalist, but was nothing of the sort. He always was a romantic (M. Doumic and M. Pellissier would say a poet): a man whose powerful affections and hatreds, whose distorting imagination, found at last their true sphere in polemical politics and his later books of tendency.

There is at present no triumphant "school" of French fiction. The echoing porticoes are deserted. Every doctor assembles his group of hearers in his own

little booth, whether it be built of corrugated iron or woven of green boughs; and their teachings suffer for want of the discipline which lies in a common aim and mutual encouragement. Few of these men possess anything like the virility or the intellectual scope of Balzac; and for all the influence his vigorous theory and glorious example exert upon the methods of most contemporary French novelists, the great master of their art might as well have never lived. In the present reaction against a debased and starved form of naturalism, almost all French novelists have renounced allegiance to Balzac, who has been more honored by Turgeniev in Russia, by Mr. Howells in America, and by Galdós in Spain than by any French disciple except Flaubert.

M. Paul Bourget is known as a psychological novelist, and it seemed for a while as if he were to have a following; but his report of the human heart was too discouraging and far too abstruse. And as soon as his first three or four books had appeared, it began to be evident that it was only his own personality, after all, that he thus excruciatingly analyzed. Ever does sentimentalism betray itself in its absorption in the Ego.

M. André Theuriet is known as a student of country life. Like Daudet, he is a poet who once passed, with some profit as well as loss, through the naturalistic discipline. His pleasant and amusing story now current in the "Revue des Deux Mondes" has its pedigree marked all over it: sired by Tartarin, out of Maupassant, with the redoubtable Balzac strain evident from withers to fetlock. Alas! experience has taught us to look for the weak cross to crop out somewhere, and it will probably not be long before the hero falls a victim to "irresistible passion," discovers himself to be an exception to the laws of the universe, suffers remorse, undergoes a religious experience, and dies (or, modern style, lives) forgiven.

M. Pierre Loti is the colorist, the poet of the sea and foreign strands, seductive bearer of the lotos; and, by virtue of his magical descriptions and a certain poignancy of pathos, he almost makes us forget how slight is his range

of human observation and how completely negligible his philosophy.

In the younger generation—for Bourget and Loti, as well as Theuriet, are already elders—sentimentalism, variously modulated, is the prevailing note. What the sentimentalists of the early part of the nineteenth century, Chateaubriand, Benjamin Constant, George Sand, owed to Rousseau, most French novelists of to-day owe to Renan: a habit of exalting their own memories, feelings, and doubts into the place of general principles. was open to them to observe life faithfully or to create a diverting and wholly fanciful world. They have done neither this nor that, but have, for the most part, aspired solemnly to instruct us, out of the shallows of an exceedingly limited personal experience. Their observation is subjective. Exquisite as their workmanship very often is when they describe externals, they gladly return to the contemplation of self or projections of self. Thus, though the several "schools" which existed in the eighties are broken up, we have not escaped monotony of type. It is nowadays the husband, rather than the wife, who commits the crime with which it is the business of novelists to make people acquainted in all its This is an improvement over the old plan, and shows that the epoch of studying "human documents" bore some fruit. Nowadays, too, he resists temptation, where formerly he melted like wax before a fire; but his resistance is always in vain, and ends in a shrug and the exclamation tant pis! He is a névrosé. The temptress has des yeux inquiétants. He experiences malaise, becomes énervé, suffers a terrible insomnie, and has one or two crises nerveuses. Subsequently he misses the consolations of faith. His religious yearnings are painful to witness, and we are not spared the details. In all this there is no adventure, in the breezier sense of the word, no outdoor struggle with nature or fortune. The men are sedentary or perambulatory of habit, and rarely work for a living. Sometimes they write books or plays. Sometimes they are officers. Frequently they bear the title of count or marguis. Very often there is a tragic ending. A horsewhipping? Shooting?

Oh, no! The mistress dies, and over her memory the forgiving wife and repentant husband mingle tears of reconciliation. This pretty plot is a composite made chiefly from M. Marcel Prévost's "Heureux Ménage," M. Paul Margueritte's "La Force des Choses," and Daniel Lesueur's "Comédienne."

It would be disrespectful to a conscientious and talented author to affirm that M. Edouard Rod's novels are built on this plan. Yet without levity we may ask if even his sad sincerity secures him from monotony and the commonplace obsession of the inevitable crime. The same problem preoccupies him: how to reconcile spiritual longings with the gratification of guilty desires. But why does he not study murder or bank robbery, for variety's sake and to escape from the crowd by a sure and unfrequented path to distinction?

M. Ferdinand Fabre belongs to the generation of M. André Theuriet. He was born in 1830, and M. Theuriet in 1833. It is possible that they both will interest a wider and more loyal public than M. Loti and M. Bourget, who were born in 1850 and 1852. They were trained in the days of a sound naturalism. which greatly modified, but did not pervert, their original endowment of poetic M. Fabre's work is worthy of special mention, and is enjoying an Indian summer of praise in high quarters. is almost wholly concerned with the life of peasants and village priests in the Cévennes mountains. He writes of them. not with irony and condescension, not in a hostile spirit, not even in an attitude of detachment, but with loving sympathy as becomes a man who was brought up in their midst and swung the censer ir his boyhood. He is not blind to the peculiar foibles of a celibate clergy. analyzes their temptations, their sacer dotal pride, the avarice and love of powe that beset men of intelligence ruling ignorant parishes, their danger from hypocrisy, the demands of the fles writhing under ascetic repression. he accepts gladly the well-known fac that in the main the country priests c France lead humble, pure, and beneficer lives, and his books are encouraging His peasants are not the base brutes

Zola's "La Terre," nor the saccharine toy-figures of George Sand. And, above all, his people are shown at work. If one were to gain one's knowledge of the world entirely from novels, no matter in what language, one might fancy that "all the year were playing holidays." Lovemaking, and in French fiction l'amour, which is another thing, would seem to be the principal occupation of mankind. Apparently people eat manna and do not have to work for a living. In the books of M. Ferdinand Fabre the characters have their bread to earn and we see them do it. This is a distinction which belongs to Charles Reade's novels also, and is no trifling part of his honor.

To have depicted clerical life in a few highland villages—the bare, austere presbytère, the confessional, the visits to sick and erring farm-hands—may at first sight appear a small achievement, parochial in every sense. But to describe any corner of the world as completely as the limitations of art permit. preserving the proportions of good and evil as they actually are, is no insignificant task. It is humanity, it is nature, that M. Fabre has studied. His success as an observer is unquestioned. Owing to his fine poetic quality and the happy fortune of his choice of scene, his novels are full of sunshine. They are almost isolated amid the general gloom of contemporary French fiction. Is there a blue sky nowhere in France save only above the blessed pays cévenol?

Among the best-known works of M. Fabre are "Les Courbezon," "L'Abbé Tigrane," "Mon Oncle Célestin," and "Lucifer." They are not quite so much read as they deserve to be—a fact which M. Pellissier, in 1897, attributed to "the seclusion in which he has lived, his aversion to playing the lion and advertising himself, and even his choice of subjects, which allure neither curiosity nor a taste for scandal." Some of his most delicious pages are in "Le Chevrier," a book written almost entirely in the savory poetic diction of the Cevennes.

The good Balzac tradition and the advantages of sympathetic local experience have another vindication in the novels of M. René Bazin. His earnest study of

the social and political situation in Alsace, "Les Oberlé," temperate though zealous, reasonable though bitter in its arraignment of the German administration, is justly celebrated as one of the most solid works of contemporary French literature. It is the story of a young Alsatian whose family served and suffered in the French cause during the war of 1870-71. His father, a wealthy manufacturer, ambitious to sit in the Reichstag, gives the boy a German education and tries to force him into compliance with the new order. The son is enrolled in a cavalry regiment, but deserts and flees across the border into France, the country of his choice, leaving home, mother, sweetheart, and all his prospects. It is much more than a problem-story. It is a broad, full picture of reality, carefully drawn and filled with color. "Donatienne," a tale of Breton peasants, is perhaps less firmly handled, though it is richer in poetic beauty. It is neither morose nor stupidly optimistic. M. Bazin is a writer of great promise. Let us hope that he, too, will cultivate seclusion and avoid self-advertisement.

Of gavety there is scarce a touch in contemporary French fiction. It is didactic. It is somber. It carries a message of woe. Those writers especially, like M. Paul Margueritte, who have passed through a period of training under Flaubert, Maupassant, and the Goncourts, seem to have dedicated themselves to the sorrowful task of alarming a world from which faith is taking flight, a world that is threatened with a return to promiscuity and barbarism, and which, nevertheless, in its acute self-consciousness, feels itself capable of noble devotion to the highest ends. Perhaps it is too much to ask that these prophets should be cheerful. Their industry is admirable. Their earnest endeavor to investigate deep problems is worthy of respect, though often misapplied. Their skill in the art of writing is almost invariably of a high order.

There are thousands of us Englishspeaking people who feel that we receive a kind of pleasure from French novels which the fiction in our own language does not afford. I hope it is not disrespectful to avow that the reading we desire, and so often look for nowadays in vain, is something more slight, it may be, but also more lively, more exquisite, more artistic, than what we find at home. We have learned to look to France for gayety and can hardly shake off the habit. No one but a Frenchman could have written "Les Trois Mousquetaires." It were a pity if the increase of seriousness in France should make mere excellent narrative of that order a lost art. No one but a Frenchman could have charmed us with the "Lettres de mon Moulin," redolent of marjoram and thyme. Dau-

det possessed the secret of an elixir, half of human joy and sorrow, half of natural magic. Who but a Frenchman could have been so preposterous, yet so entirely plausible and always entertaining, as Jules Verne? Possibly we ought to care more than we do for the heart-rending researches of M. Rod and M. Bourget. The fact, however, is that what we ask of French fiction, perhaps unreasonably, is that it shall amuse us, freshen our wits, widen our horizon, and satisfy-our craving for a light and joyous art.

SOME ASPECTS OF MORMONISM

BY G. A. IRVING

ANY are the view-points from which one may see Mormonism. There are the books which have been written during the past half-century—some of them true, some greatly exaggerated, nearly all seeking to show the evils of Mormonism, and most of them describing conditions which, however it may have been in former times, do not exist to day.

Again, there are the reports of would-be investigators of Mormonism, of news-paper writers and others who have gone to Utah and gained their information first-hand. They have talked with the leaders of the Church and with resident Gentiles; have attended Church services and visited schools. Various and often diverse have been their findings. As a rule—somewhat on the principle that one always finds what he is looking for—they have brought back only ill reports of Mormonism and the supporters of that faith.

Then once more there are the recountals of the detailed missionary and other Christian worker who has lived among this people. He should be in a position to know whereof he speaks. But from the very nature of his work, and the attitude of suspicion and hostile criticism which he often assumes on engaging in it, he is often blinded to the good of Mormonism; or, indeed, he does not touch it on its better side. And when

he writes to his Eastern friends, or comes East to report on religious and moral conditions in Utah, between the evils which actually exist and his desire to gratify his hearers' expectations, he is prone to emphasize the dark side and to forget, if indeed he has ever discovered. that Mormonism has its fair side as Most of us are willing to admit that there is good in all religions—excepting Mormonism. We find commendable features in Confucianism, Mohammedanism, and Hinduism; in Christian Science, Spiritualism, and Theosophy; but Mormonism—is there anything good associated with it or springing from it?

Now, the writer is not a Mormon or a lover of the Mormons save as he is a lover of mankind. But he has lived among the Mormons. He has come into intimate contact with them in business and social relations; has discussed with them religion and politics; has met them in their homes, their churches, their schools; has known them as neighbors and has not been ashamed to call them friends. With unprejudiced mind he has sought to learn their point of view and so to know and judge them. And he has little sympathy with the unsparing criticism and denunciation of Mormonism which abound on every hand.

Their religion, as a body of doctrine, appears to him rude, grotesque often, utterly unphilosophic, and at odds at

many points with Christian doctrine and the highest instincts of religious truth. However, there is such a thing as a man being better than his religion. The early Puritan was kinder to his fellowmen than the God whom he worshiped was to humanity. As a friend, a neighbor, a citizen, a member of society, the modern Mormon is far in advance of Mormonism, the religious system. More yet is he in advance of the common conceptions of Mormonism.

A lady from the South, passing through Salt Lake City, told recently how, on a train coming thither, a gentleman was most courteous and kind to her and to the members of her party, explaining points of interest and otherwise manifesting friendliness. "I was so surprised." she said, "to learn that he was a Mormon"! Really, the Mormon, in humanitarian instincts, is very much like other people. He loves his wife and children; he is a loyal friend and kind, sympathizing neighbor; he is honest and truthful. Exceptions? Yes, just as in every other state of civilized society. There are Mormons who are unkind to their families, who are lacking in altruistic feelings. who are dishonest, untruthful, and otherwise disloyal in their social relations. I know there are those who will report otherwise; but, for myself, I have not observed that in these regards the Mormon differs much from the average citizen of our land. I have lived in a number of States, and in no community have I seen fewer locks on doors than in Utah. Nowhere have I found personal safety more secure and property rights more respected. Nowhere have I observed greater kindness between man and man. Nowhere have I witnessed higher regard for the living or deeper respect for the dead.

True, when it comes to business relations there is a good deal of the spirit of the Jew first, then the Gentile. Naturally enough, the Mormon favors his own. So is it often among Gentiles. Yet if a man is honest, industrious, skilled in his line of work, above all inclined to be friendly ordinarily (aside from the fact that he will be beset behind and before to embrace Mormonism), he will not find Utah so bad a place in

which to live and prosper—even if he be a Gentile.

I am convinced (and here again I take issue with some) that the Mormons as a people are sincere in their religious views and teachings. Devotion is generally a proof of sincerity, and I have found the Mormons more devoted to their religion than most of the people among whom my lot has been cast. They believe that Joseph Smith was a prophet of God as implicitly as Christians believe that Christ was sent of God. They have full assurance concerning special divine revelations and manifestations to their lead-In their willing blindness they believe that the whole truth of religion is with them. The world is wrong and they are right. The troubles (persecutions they call them) through which they have passed, and are passing, are the testings of the faithful: the lot of the people of God in every age. They are as an oasis in the world-wilderness of sin, the chosen of God, special objects of divine care and recipients of heavenly favor. Deeply instilled into the minds of their people from earliest years is this teaching that they are God's chosen ones, and that their religion alone is With this religion they are perfectly satisfied. The blindness of the " world " they deplore, and the followers of other faiths they pity. Theirs is the assurance of ignorance, of delusion, of perverted teaching. But what of that? It is their religion, and they believe in it with heart and mind and strength.

Whatever one may think of their religious teaching and belief, he must at least respect their sincerity, their devotion. This last is of the Puritanic. meetings of a Sunday are crowded. Every one expects to attend, and in turn is expected to do so. Not less are their Sunday-schools and week-day religious classes and services enthusiastically supported. They send out their missionaries-often at great sacrifice-more in proportion to their numbers than any other body of religionists. They pay their tithings, though I am inclined to think with increasing reluctance and the growing demand to know the uses to which these funds are put as their intelligence increases. They submit them

selves to the requirements of a religious system more personal and controlling than any of which I happen to know. The Church, with its teachings, its demands, the blessings it bestows and will bestow, is ever present in their thought. They glory in it, and toil and sacrifice for it.

This I say of the people in general. I cannot say as much for their leaders, apostolic and otherwise. Of their sincerity I am far less assured. I feel that they are too intelligent and discerning to themselves believe much that they My observation has been that, as a rule, they reach their positions of authority not because of spiritual or religious fitness in any sense, but because of general ability and shrewdness. Often the local bishop is the most successful business man in his community. Typically he is suave in manner, affable in speech, and skilled in handling men. He must see to it that the work of the Church prospers; that the people are properly instructed; that they continue loyal and submissive; that the tithings are paid. He is a sort of general manager for the Church; nothing more, very often. Rumor has it (current among the less loyal Mormons and the Gentiles) that rare is the bishop who does not become rich through his official position.

I have found that most people outside of Utah confound Mormonism with polygamy. The two terms are far from being synonymous. Formerly, polygamy was the distinctive doctrine of Mormonism. Now, so far as its practical bearing on life is concerned, it is fast becoming derelict. The rising genera-Not because tion will have none of it. it is contrary to the law of the land—for the Mormon, like all earnest religionists, rightly esteems religious law as above statute law—but because it is contrary to a law of the human heart. In truth, it never worked satisfactorily and never could. Rarely a plural marriage still; but the social sense of the Mormon community is against it. The man with plural wives is often an object of ridicule to Mormon girls. The wives themselves are objects of pity. For themselves, the girls of education and independent thought scorn the idea of plural marriage. Nor do the rank and file of the young men favor it. It is the grizzled bishop of an earlier day, or the man of wealth and power, who would follow in the footsteps of the elders. But often—more often than he would like it to be known among his brethren—his advances meet with scornful refusal. As a rule, the Mormon men are not rich in this world's goods, and now that women are fast assuming their rightful place among them, few would care to undertake responsibility for more than one family. Polygamy in Utah has had its day.

Not so with Mormonism. It will not be overthrown. It will not die out. daily increases in the number of its adherents. It appears to lose nothing of its power. Its hold upon the affections of the people seems not to become Really, it is about the whole thing in Utah. Its rule in politics I believe to be absolute. Its control of the industrial situation is all-pervasive. Outside of two or three larger towns, every public school in the State is, in all but name, a Church "There is never a real political issue in Utah," said a Gentile, a longtime resident of the State, at the time of a recent State election. "There are no politics here. The parties are figureheads merely. Everything is settled long before election. I do not know which party will win out in this election. The Mormon people do not know, but the Big Twelve do. Why should I waste my time going to the polls?" Likewise the "Big Twelve," as my friend calls the twelve Apostles of the Church, hold within their hands, or at least control, all the leading industries of the State, with the important exception of mining. So, too, their hand is seen in the direction of the public schools. winter orders went out from Church headquarters to the school trustees of each town in the State (and at the same time were widely published throughout the country) that the public school buildings should no longer be used as places for religious instruction. " Have you given up your religious classes in the schoolhouse?" some weeks afterward I inquired of my Mormon neighbor. indeed," said he, with a smile. "It was

not intended that we should." In Utah to-day every department of a man's life, spiritual, mental, political, industrial, is directed, and in the main controlled, by the high and powerful Church officials. The Mormon Church is the most comprehensive and inclusive hierarchy that the world has known.

The immediate future of Mormonism I believe will be determined largely by the attitude of our people and country toward it. Mormonism has been and is to-day misjudged. Its evils have been misunderstood and often greatly and grossly exaggerated. Its impending danger to our country has been wonderfully overestimated. Men have spent their time in passing condemnatory resolutions instead of seeking the wise remedy. The Mormons are not a large body-by the highest estimates they do not number a half-million people. They are below the average of our people in intelligence. But they are American citizens, and more and more are entering into the spirit of their citizenship. They are making marked progress in education and enlightenment with every year that passes. Most of all, they are human beings looking toward the light.

It is not persecution or virulent speech or denunciatory resolutions that will help the situation. Mormonism is not to be blotted out. And in the future, as in the past, excessive denunciation and persecution will but serve to fortify it in its present form and retard its modification. This last I believe to be the ultimate future of Mormonism. Some of its objectionable features have disappeared and others are fast disappearing. With time and enlightenment and a larger infusion of the American spirit of liberty, crudities of doctrine and

hard and fast ecclesiastical control will alike pass away. Mormonism will survive, but not the Mormonism of the present—least of all that of the past. Mormonism will some day take its place as a reputable and respected religious system. It will have a recognized place among the religious sects.

It is folly to talk of its overthrow or extinction, or to work to these ends. is wisdom and sound sense to seek its modification and betterment. Instead of denouncing Mormonism by wholesale, let people inform themselves as to the actual situation of the Mormon people. Instead of passing resolutions of contempt and condemnation, let them seek to liberate their Mormon countrymen through such means as alone can succeed. Instead of spending vast sums in antagonizing them, let our people provide liberally for their moral and religious and educational and civic enlightenment. Christian schools exist in Utah—a few. Christian churches are there-also a few. Some of these have of late years been abandoned, not because they were not needed or because their work was without results, but because they could not be adequately supported.

Would the philanthropist do something worth while for Utah? Let him put a Christian church in every town and hamlet in the State, and place in charge of these churches broad-minded men who will make them first of all centers of moral and religious education. Let him plant schools in places where only a narrow, sectarian, insufficient education is provided. Let him build libraries— there are now less than a half-dozen in the State. This, better than anything I know, would hasten the cure of Mormonism.

AMULETS

BY CHARLOTTE PORTER

If thou shalt ever see with inner sight, No outward gaze of thine but will be bright, Kindling in thee and all who meet thee—light!

If thou shalt ever feel with heart awake, No sin and tears but shall thy sorrow slake, And round the evil good's fair halo make.

SAFEGUARDING THE INDE-TERMINATE SENTENCE

BY SAMUEL J. BARROWS

President of the International Prison Congress

HREE important contributions to modern criminal law and criminal procedure have had their origin and application in the United States. One is the establishment of a system of probation applicable both to adults and minors, the second is the organization of juvenile courts, and the third is the adoption of the indeterminate sentence. Juvenile courts have grown up within the last five years; probation has been in operation for some twentyfive years; the indeterminate sentence has been in operation in New York, the pioneer State in this reform, since 1877. It is not surprising that these innovations in the field of criminal law should have attracted the attention of European jurists. Probation, in the form of a suspended sentence and without the salutary provision of the probation officer, has long been in successful operation in France, Belgium, England, and to a small extent in Germany. The idea of the Juvenile Court was received with enthusiasm at the International Prison Congress and commended to the attention of all the nations represented. The indeterminate sentence has not been adopted by any European nation, but has been the subject of repeated discussion at the Congress referred to, and also in the International Union for Criminal Law. It has found prominent advocates in Van Hamel, of Holland, Guillaume, of Switzerland, Saleilles, of France, and De Sanctis, of Italy. Within the last year two doctors of law from the University of Berlin, and Dr. Freudenthal, professor of criminal law in the University of Frankfort, have come to the United States especially to study these new aspects of American criminal law. Dr. Freudenthal has given especial attention to the principle and implications of the indeterminate sentence.

The arguments for the indeterminate

sentence which are influential in Europe are precisely those which are influential here. The best criminal code is an arbitrary instrument, and it is impossible to construct one on any principle so that the penalty can be made to fit the crime; still more difficult is it to make the penalty fit the offender. No legislator can show why the theft of twenty-five dollars should be punishable with one year's imprisonment, and the theft of twentysix dollars with five years' imprisonment. Nor is the difficulty removed by empowering the judge to use his discretion in imposing sentence within certain limits of minimum and maximum. A judge would find it hard to tell why he sentenced one boy five years for stealing a dollar and another boy one year for stealing \$186, or another judge why he sent one boy to prison for a year, and another, a first offender, to sixteen years for the same offense. A study of codes on one hand and of sentences on another reveals an amazing amount of contradiction and confusion, not to say rank injustice, in the application of penalties.

For this inequality and injustice the indeterminate sentence furnishes the necessary relief. Instead of making the code-maker or the judge decide when a man shall come out of prison, it puts the main responsibility of deciding that question upon the prisoner himself. What the judge decides is that the prisoner has had a fair trial, and what the jury decides is that the prisoner is innocent or guilty. In the latter case the judge may put the offender on probation, or it may be shown that he must be removed from society until fitted to come back to What the State then does is to provide a new environment for the offender, an environment where he shall be made better instead of worse. It puts him under a whole range of reformative influences, moral, physical, and intellectual. The State then says to him: Before you can go back to society you must prove that it is safe for society to let you come Here you must fulfill certain conditions. Like a boy at school, you must pass through a certain number of grades and attain a certain number of marks before you can graduate. If you fulfill all these conditions as to work, education, and deportment, you may get out in a year and a half, or you may stay here ten years, which is the limit fixed by statute for the offense you have committed. Whether your detention shall be eighteen months or ten years depends most of all upon yourself. You are to this extent the master of your own fate. Here is a ladder upon which you can climb. You cannot go out till you have reached the top round, and then only conditionally. In other words, you must earn your parole in prison, and you must earn your absolute discharge when you have been released conditionally.

The indeterminate sentence is not, then, a passive punishment; it is something better; it is an active discipline; it is an opportunity. It is an opportunity for moral and intellectual enfranchisement which liberates the man from himself. It opens to him a new future. It means not relentless suffering for something that he has done, but relentless endeavor for something which he is to become. The truest proof of repentance is reformation. No reformation can be secured without suffering, the suffering of discipline; but the discipline which reforms is not the discipline which crushes.

It is evident, then, that the indeterminate sentence has no meaning unless it is connected with an active reformatory system. To send men to prison where there is no labor, no schools, no incentives to self-development, is merely a parody upon the true principle of the indeterminate sentence, which is a very different thing from a definite sentence shortened a certain number of months for good behavior. It is important to sound here a note of warning. Certain States have adopted what they call a parole system. Men are released conditionally after they have served a cer-

tain time. Their eligibility for parole does not depend upon what they have done in prison, but on what they have not done. They have observed a somewhat easy set of prison rules; they have given the keepers no trouble. Habitual criminals easily adjust themselves to such rules. Such parole laws may not be entirely valueless, but they are in no respect synonymous with the indeterminate sentence; they are calculated rather to bring it into disrepute.

When, under the indeterminate sentence, a prisoner has earned his parole by fulfilling the conditions required, the parole is authorized by the board of managers or the board of parole constituted by law for that purpose. Unfortunately, in some States this board of parole has allowed itself to be influenced by personal and even political appeals. The very fact that there is no marking or grading system in some of the prisons, and therefore no standard of excellence required of the prisoner himself, except of a negative character, and that the board has little to guide it in an individual case, leaves it open for external appeals. Under the reformatory system as administered at Elmira, the principle is strictly adhered to of making the prisoner earn his own release, and all outside influences except those necessary to secure employment for the prisoner on parole are absolutely excluded. Bosses have long since learned that they have no pull at Elmira. If the value of the indeterminate sentence is to be maintained, boards of parole must be held up to the highest standard of efficiency.

The indeterminate sentence carried to its logical conclusion should have no time limit, either minimum or maximum. As applied to the Elmira Reformatory in New York it has no minimum, but a prisoner can be held only for the maximum period prescribed by the statute for the crime committed. This period, of course, is an arbitrary one. It has an additional disadvantage. A prisoner who serves his maximum sentence in the reformatory receives under the law an absolute discharge instead of being placed on parole, while such a man who has failed to earn his discharge is one above all others who should be released only tentatively. Advocates of the indeterminate sentence in the United States are hoping that eventually the maximum limitation may be removed. One reason why the indefinite sentence has not been accepted by more European jurists is because they feel the difficulty recently stated by The Outlook, namely, the difficulty of safeguarding individual liberty. In Europe, where untold suffering has been occasioned by prolonged and unjust imprisonment for political or other reasons, any form of sentence the duration of which is not strictly limited by statute is looked upon with some dis-At present the maximum limitation fixed by the statute, arbitrary though it be, constitutes a certain safeguard against the permanent incarceration of offenders. And yet it is very clear to all penologists that there are a large number of recidivists or habitual offenders who ought to be permanently segregated from society. A woman in Scotland was sent to prison more than three hundred times. The woman would not have committed two hundred and seventy-five of those offenses if she had not been liberated two hundred and seventyfive times. Is there any mercy or any wisdom in liberating an habitual inebriate or other offender when it is clear that he is incurable without prolonged incarceration? It is one advantage of the system of probation, of the indeterminate sentence, and conditional liberation, that it serves to distinguish eventually between corrigible and incorrigible It is just as important for offenders. society that the incorrigible offenders should be detained as it is that the corrigible offenders should be released. For the incorrigible offender the only course seems to be permanent segregation by the State. How, then, shall individual liberty be guarded?

The answer is not difficult. All the protection which is now furnished by having a maximum limit of detention can be secured by law and in a better way. It can be secured, first, by having the judiciary represented on all boards of parole. Two steps in this direction have recently been taken in the State of New York. In reference to the Bedford reformatory for women it is provided

that when the question of paroling an inmate comes up for consideration, the committing magistrate shall be informed, and shall have a vote in deciding the question. A more important step in the direction of securing judicial support and responsibility has been taken in the recent law providing for the New York City reformatory for misdemeanants. The board to develop and manage this institution is composed of nine members, four of whom are judges from the courts of New York which commit misdemeanants to this institution. The other members of the board are appointed by the Mayor, and include the Commissioner of Correction. The objection raised, that the courts can have no participation in deciding the release or detention of a prisoner, is removed when four out of five members of the paroling board are judges.

The same principle can be applied to habitual criminals or confirmed repeaters. That they should be detained instead of being liberated under short sentences is hardly questioned. But even here we would have no prison or colony in which all hope should be excluded. No one can tell what a prolonged detention might do, under proper discipline, for some one who under the merciless parody of the short sentence had been regarded as incorrigible. Even among so-called incorrigibles we would provide, therefore, that at stated periods, say five or ten years, the question of conditional release might come up for review, with the right of appeal for the prisoner to a parole board in which judicial, medical, and administrative authority should be represented. The disadvantage of the maximum sentence is that at its termination the man must be discharged, whether he is ready for release or not; under the system proposed release would not be mandatory; the question would come up simply for determination under a form in which no arbitrary warden could control the destinies of a prisoner, and the question of a conditional release under surveillance would be decided, not because of an arbitrary time limit affixed to an offense, but because of a thorough study of the character of the offender. is the supreme advantage of the indeterminate sentence that it depends, not upon the arbitrary time limit of the code nor the caprice of the judge, nor that of the warden, but upon the character of the prisoner under a system constituted so as to develop and reveal it. There is no reason why this, the only rational method of determining the duration of imprisonment and of making imprisonment effective, should not be applied to all classes

of prisoners, whether felons or misdemeanants. In several States the marking and grading system it requires has been applied to State prisons.

The indeterminate sentence has run the gauntlet of all sorts of appeals as to its constitutionality. It is a principle which has come to stay. But if it is to be successful, we must have the real thing and not a feeble imitation.

THEOLOGY—NEW AND OLD'

THE New Theology is a new doctrine, a new method, and a new spirit; but it is more a new method than a new doctrine, and it is more a new spirit than it is either a new doctrine or a new method. All three aspects are illustrated by the books here reviewed.

Dr. Charles Cuthbert Hall, the President of Union Theological Seminary, is a modern thinker with an orderly mind, broad sympathies, and a devout spirit. Known widely as an excellent preacher, a remarkable pastor, and a wise administrator rather than as a profound scholar or an acute metaphysician, his success as a preacher to India was scarcely less a surprise to his best friends than it was to himself. That success was due to the fact that he brought to this unique ministry the habits of the preacher and pastor rather than those of the scholar and the metaphysician. The three years of his special preparation were devoted to the study, not so much of the theme which he was to present as of the people to whom he was to present it. He had learned in his pastorate what the scholar and metaphysician do not learn, what unhappily many preachers and pastors never learn—that the instructor's acquaintance with his audience is even more important than his acquaintance with his subject. "I desired," he says, "to be a humble learner from the systems of belief that commanded the allegiance of immense numbers of my fellowmen and that represented the insight, research, and aspiration of long lines of eminent and saintly personages." His study, it will thus be seen—and the reader would see it more clearly if we had room for fuller extracts—was conducted, not for the purpose of discovering errors to be combated, but truths to be appreciated. It was, in other words, a sympathetic, not a critical, study, and with this result:

From time to time, in this course of preparation, the conviction has recurred with increasing definiteness that the East could, if it would, give more adequate expression to Christianity than the West ever has given; that India might, if it would, express the innermost secret of Christ with an exaltation of tone, an emancipation from the thralldom of things visible, a grasp on the eternal, the invisible, the imperishable, never yet attained by the average thought of Europe and America.

Going to India in this spirit of appreciation, he found, rather let us say evoked, a like spirit of appreciation from his hearers for Christianity; frankly avowing that he found in the Orient something that the Occident had never taught him, he prepared his hearers to find in Occidentalism something which the Orient had never taught them. Less an orator than Dr. Barrows, less a philosopher than Dr. Fairbairn, he achieved a success so far exceeding anything that they had achieved that he has been invited with the enthusiastic approval of his Hindu audiences to repeat his visit. The reason for this success has been

¹ The New Theology: Christian Belief Interpreted by Christian Experience. By Charles Cuthbert Hall, D.D. University of Chicago Press, Chicago, Illimois.

The Universal Elements of the Christian Religion. By Charles Cuthbert Hall, D.D. The Fleming H. Revell Company, New York.

The Christian Doctrine of Salvation. By George Barker Stevens, Ph.D. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York.

The Christian Faith. By Olin Alfred Curtis. Baton & Mains, New York.

thus stated by a Hindu writer, Mr. Malabari, in the "Voice of India," published in Bombay:

The third Haskell lecturer has just finished his course of lectures in Bombay. Of all the Haskell lecturers, he has treated Hindu thought with the deepest sympathy, the greatest veneration, and the keenest insight. Dr. Barrows spoke like a Christian imperialist he had a true American for the control of th ist; he had a true American eye for grand-eur, and he seemed to be preoccupied more with the thought of the religion of Christ conquering and overspreading the whole world than of its transforming humanity from within. Dr. Fairbairn was a man of commanding abilities and had a wonderful grasp of the most important teachings of the East. With a minimum of words—and those East. With a minimum of words—and those accurate, graceful, and effective—he could present a substantially correct view of the most mysterious Indian doctrine-its content and its limitations. But, while the intellect was in it, his heart seemed to stand aloof; he seemed almost to say that Eastern and Western thought shall not travel in the same compartment. This aloofness is bridged over by Dr. Cuthbert Hall. Not a word escapes his lips which is consciously derogatory of other religions; he not only professed veneration for the highest religious aspirations of the Indian mind, but every word of his rings with the genuineness of that profession. His Christian experience takes Indian experience cordially by the hand, and seems to delight in its company, if only to invite the onlooker to compare and to comment and to choose.

Dr. Hall's lectures are not only pervaded by this spirit of open-mindedness, this spirit which enables him to understand the thought of those to whom he is better able to bring knowledge, because from them he is acquiring knowledge, but no less by that spirit of devotion which is so distinctly characteristic of Oriental thinking, and so often, unhappily, lacking in our Occidental thinking. No one would criticise his lectures for their emotionalism, yet they are suffused with a feeling which is illuminating as well as inspirational:

My interest in Christianity is not a selfish or sectarian interest. . . . I love it because I have no proprietary rights in it and no sectarian claim upon its benefits. I love it as I love sunshine and clear air, and all the gifts of God that belong to no one, simply because they belong to all. I love it as I love liberty and the progress and the rights of men, because these are universals and not particulars. I love it because I believe that essentially all men are one in their fundamental feelings, needs, and aspirations; and because what so completely meets the fundamental needs and answers the deepest aspirations of some

seems as if it must be meant for all; as if it must be the thing that has come at last, after ages of human hope and fear, from the heart of the good God to satisfy the yearnings and uplift the hopes of all his children; as if it must be the crown and consummation of all religion, the common goal to which our many upward paths have tended, the "one far-off Divine Event toward which the whole creation moves."

This power to express truth in the terms of feeling, as here the truth of the universality of the Christian religion in the terms of a genuine feeling of universal brotherhood, not only finds for the truth an entrance through the feeling, but makes that truth more clear, because it is a truth of the feeling as well as of the intellect.

But broad sympathy and a devout spirit would not alone give Dr. Hall his unique success. Mated to an orderly mind, they made him more than a great scholar or an acute metaphysician; they made him a luminous thinker, a wise mediator, in some true sense a prophet. He is able not only to see the truth both in the pantheism of the Orient and in the doctrine of divine personality of the Occident, but so to state each truth as to make it intelligible to those who have dwelt with the other. His own clearness of vision, and still more the intensity of his evangelicalism of purpose, enables him to put the truth as he sees it in sentences that shine but do not sparkle, which are luminous but not epigram-

"God is necessarily self-revealing because God is truly personal." "The Incarnation of the Lord Jesus Christ is not the birth of a hero; it is the Revelation of the Character of the Eternal God under the form of time and in the terms of human action." "The purpose of this Manifestation is not the founding of a sect, but the redemption of the whole world."

We are glad that Dr. Hall is going to return to India, because we hope that he will complete the work which seems to us to lack completion. He has put with great clearness the Christian doctrine of the personality of God as revealed in Jesus Christ, but he has not put with any adequacy the Passion of Christ. He states his belief in that Passion, but he furnishes neither an interpretation of the Passion nor an argument to justify faith in the Passion. We find the same lack

in his lectures before Vanderbilt University. Admirable in their interpretation of modern religious thought to a community into which modern religious thinking has not yet found much entrance; admirable as an interpretation of a Catholic faith far broader than any sect and given in a lectureship under the auspices of the Bishops of the Methodist Episcopal Church South, a denomination which cannot be accused of excessive latitudinarianism, they yet halt when they come to the consideration of the suffering Messiah. We agree with him that "the secret spring of that vast dynamic—the Saviour of the World—was the resurrection of Christ as the consummation of his Incarnate Sacrifice rather than distinctively and separately the Act of Death." Yet that resurrection itself gets much of its significance from the preceding Passion. And it appears to us that the interpretation of this Passion is greatly needed at the present time, and, though for different reasons, is an equally pre-eminent need in the Occidental and the Oriental world. It is needed in the Occidental world because the fundamental remedy for greed, selfindulgence, and the accompanying vices of appetite and corruption is the life of self-sacrifice inspired by faith in a selfsacrificing Lord and Leader. It is needed in the Orient because fundamental in the conception of the Brahman is the notion that pain is evil, a notion that vitiates not only sound thinking but sound living, and one which can be corrected only by the teaching that suffering is divine, and that, as the supreme act in the life of Christ is his Passion, so the supremest attribute in God is his ability to suffer.

Doubtless this also is the view of Dr. Hall. No one could put more clearly than does he, in his lectures before the Vanderbilt University, that the philosophy which "defines the essence of Christianity as consisting of the teachings and example of Jesus as recorded in the first three Gospels, rather than that view of the Person of Christ as the Image of the invisible God, and the Work of Christ as the suffering and triumphant Saviour of the world, which is set forth in the Fourth Gospel and the Apostolic Epis-

tles . . . is inadequate as the basis for a reinterpretation of the idea of the Church that can satisfy the religious consciousness of the present time." But why the suffering was necessary to the triumph, or what its relation is to the world's redemption, Dr. Hall does not attempt to consider. To the consideration of this question Dr. Stevens devotes his volume. That volume is not suffused with feeling. It is without sentiment. The problem of suffering culminating in the suffering of Jesus Christ is discussed as a purely intellectual problem. this, to our thinking, is the chief defect of the volume. The problem of suffering is not purely an intellectual problem, and its intellectual aspects can never be understood except as they are viewed through the atmosphere of feeling and interpreted in the terms of feeling. The aroma of Dr. Stevens's book is that of the class-room, as the aroma of Dr. Hall's book is that of the pastorate. It must also be said of Dr. Stevens's volume that it has the appearance of having been delivered as successive lectures, and therefore is weighted with what, for the reader, seems to us needless repeti-The excuse for this repetition is found in the fact that the author approaches his subject from different points of view, interpreting the doctrine of salvation in successive chapters, as taught by the Hebrew prophets, by Jesus Christ, by Paul, by John, and by later ecclesiastical writers. Such a method of approach, or rather of approaches, necessarily involves repetition. For scholastic purposes it is also probably necessary to compare the view which the author wishes to present with the views which have been presented by previous writers.

But though, to our thinking, the critical, not to say the scholastic, element necessarily preponderates, the view to which the author finally conducts the reader is stated with great clearness. On his walk to Emmaus, Jesus said to his disciples: "Ought not Christ to have suffered these things, and to enter into his glory?" The doctrine of the Atonement, so called, is the answer which philosophy makes to the question, "Why ought Christ to have suffered in order to enter into his glory?" It is

difficult to compact Dr. Stevens's answer to this question into a few words; but if a sentence could contain it, that sentence would perhaps be this: Jesus Christ came to earth to manifest God; that he could not do without manifest suffering for the sins of men, for God suffers in and for the sins of his children. Thus it was that the sufferings of Christ "satisfied" the Father. "God never needed to be atoned into love, nor did he ever require from his perfectly holy Son the endurance of unspeakable suffering as a substitute for sin's penalty, for the vindication of his honor or his government. God was satisfied in the work of Christ because it is the nature of the divine love to give, to serve, and to suffer with and for its objects."

This, says the critic, involves the notion that God can suffer, and that is heresy. That this doctrine was once labeled heresy Dr. Stevens frankly concedes, but he affirms that this label was due to imperfect experience and crude thinking. In short, he is heretic enough to believe that men in the twentieth century may also think, and on some subjects may think to better purpose than did the men of the sub-apostolic Church. At all events, his faith in the Passion of Jesus Christ conducts him to faith in what he well calls "eternal atonement."

To me the words "eternal atonement" denote the dateless passion of God on account of sin; they mean that God is, by his very nature, a sin-bearer—that sin grieves and wounds his heart, and that he sorrows and suffers in consequence of it. It results from the divine love—alike from its holiness and from its sympathy—that "in our affliction he is afflicted." Atonement on its "Godward side" is a name for the grief and pain inflicted by sin upon the paternal heart of God. Of this divine sorrow for sin the afflictions of Christ are a revelation. In the bitter grief and anguish which he experienced on account of sin we see reflected the pain and sorrow which sin brings to the divine love.

The old forms of the doctrine of the atonement—that the suffering of Christ was necessary to appease the wrath of God and induce him to forgive; or to satisfy the law of God and enable him to forgive; or to move upon the heart of man and induce him to accept forgiveness—have all proved inadequate and in

some forms of their presentation ethically abhorrent; yet should the Church follow those thinkers who reject from their teaching the passion of Christ altogether, and regard it as a mere incident in a faithful life, it would throw away the chiefest element of spiritual power in Christianity. It must learn that the suffering of Christ is the method by which God forgives sin, and Dr. Stevens's book is to be warmly welcomed and cordially commended because, with perhaps too great erudition, it sets forth this fundamental truth with discriminating clearness and lucid frankness.

The spirit of Dr. Curtis's lectures on the "Christian Faith" is the newer spirit, but the method is a combination of the old and the new methods, the old predominating, and the system of doctrine in no particular differs from the old. The Bible is treated as one book, of practically equal validity in all its parts, and as authority, and apparently final authority, in all matters pertaining to redemption; in miracles God breaks the universal order to contribute to righteousness; the story of the Fall in the third chapter of Genesis is history, though history somewhat poetically portrayed; death is a penalty for sin, and characterizes the whole animate creation because the world is set apart as the habitation of sinful beings—an explanation which makes no account of the fact that death as a phenomenon is not confined to this world; the object of the death of Christ was to propitiate God and was as effectual in changing his attitude toward man as it has been effectual in changing man's attitude toward God. The author's prefatory note leads us to expect a new, unscholastic, human method of dealing with theology: "I want to see, and then help you to see, a real man's real life—not to be caught and held fast by the conventional estimate, not to be swept away by the scientific tendency, but to see myself a real man's real life." But the promise of this sentence is not fulfilled. There is but little analysis or interpretation of human experience. After the First Part the method of the author is largely textual, and when not that, then metaphysical. It is true that

there are suggestive attempts to pour into the old dogmas a more human and vital meaning, or to give to them a more human and vital interpretation, than formerly belonged to them: as in the definition of the Bible "as a sort of Christian memory to hold, and keep real to us, all that has taken place in our inner life;" or in the fine description of death as God taking man at his word by imposing on him the isolation of that hour: "Death says to the sinner, 'You would not obey God, you would not love your fellow-men, you lived for self, you wanted only self—THEN TAKE IT!" But these attempts leave on our mind the increased conviction that the experience of the world has outgrown the philosophy of the schools, and that he who follows the clue which Dr. Curtis puts into the hand of his reader but does not follow, the clue of a real man's

real life, will inevitably be led by it away from belief in an infallible Bible, in a series of breaks in the physical order for moral purposes, in incarnation as an episode, stupendous but still an episode, and in a propitiatory sacrifice to change the heart of God, and toward a philosophy which will make the Bible the type of a universal but always and necessarily fragmentary revelation; miracle as an extraordinary manifestation of an always manifested God; incarnation as the supreme type of man's true relation to his Father and therefore the supreme revelation of the Father to his children; and the sacrifice of Christ as an interpretation in history of what Dr. Stevens has well called an Eternal Atonement, an atonement not made by a sacrifice offered by man or for man to propitiate God, but by God and for God to save, ransom; redeem, and perfect man.

EUROPEAN DEVELOPMENT

RCHBISHOP LEIGHTON'S remark that the best knowledge of things lies in a knowledge of their causes has a special application to historical knowledge. To know what events have occurred is not enough to make experience instructive; one needs to know why they occurred. But the causes of historical events are sometimes long in coming to light: hence the writing of contemporary history in its true sequence of cause and effect is a work of peculiar difficulty even for so well informed a writer as Dr. J. Holland Rose. When luminously done, as by him, it vields peculiar satisfaction to the reader who finds in it an interpretation of events that have passed before his eyes.

The making of the more important States of Continental Europe what they are to-day is Dr. Rose's theme. In this process the motor forces were supplied by the twin spirits of Democracy and Nationalism, born in revolution and war a century before. The greatest triumph of the latter, indeed the greatest political

event of the century, was the unification of Germany, secured at the psychological moment by the war of 1870 with France. Among the causes of that momentous conflict, whose stages are here critically studied and illustrated, the most effective appear to have been the inflammatory journalists of Paris and Berlin—a sobering caution to us against the use of red ink in international discussions. As to Bismarck's responsibility, Dr. Rose absolves him. He certainly desired the war as the means to give birth to the Empire. But his claim to have fired the mine by giving to the press an "edited" version of the King's telegram is not borne out by a comparison of the two versions, and Dr. Rose. who differs here from most writers, sets it aside as "the offspring of senile vanity."

The thirty years' story of the German Empire and of the founding of the French Republic, both born in the same collision of folly with statesmanship, occupies several chapters with a luminous sketch of the prominent features of each, in which the protectionism and State Socialism of Germany possess a special interest for us. The scene then



The Development of the European Nations. By John Holland Rose. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York.

shifts to the Eastern question, and its diplomatic, military, and political developments. How the Turk's intolerable treatment of his Christian subjects has ever found a serviceable shield in the timorous and cynical selfishness of the Christian Powers, and how this has even strengthened his throne, is clearly ex-Dr. Rose cites the highest hibited. authority for attributing to the British Cabinet the Sultan's venturing on war with Russia in 1877 rather than yield to pacific pressure on behalf of his outraged Christian subjects. Both for British and for broadly human interests Lord Beaconsfield's policy during the critical years 1875-77 appears now to have been unfortunate. The Russo-Turkish war in 1877, to whose strategic movements Dr. Rose devotes a chapter, brought the Russian army and the British fleet into menacing nearness at Constantinople, and Europe trembled on the brink of a great conflict. The Treaty of Berlin, then forced upon Russia by the European Concert, gave promise of substantial relief to the Christian subjects of the Sultan. How far the promise was fulfilled the hideous massacres in Armenia and the atrocious misgovernment of Macedonia have shown to the disgrace of Christian Europe. Deeper shame, as Dr. Rose affirms, falls upon Great Britain, who assumed, together with dominion over Cyprus, responsibility for securing justice to Christians in Turkish Asia. The chapter on "The Making of Bulgaria" shows Turkey rather than Russia to have been the

gainer in the end through the creation of the buffer States of Bulgaria and Rumania between her and the colossus of the north.

But for Russia "the outcome of the war was Nihilism." The misery inflicted on her armies by incompetence and fraud, and the exasperation of the national spirit by the humiliating Treaty of Berlin, found vengeful vent in the beginnings of that revolutionary movement which the disastrous war with Japan has brought to its frightful culmination. To this subject Dr. Rose devotes his final chapter, "Nihilism and Absolutism in Russia," pausing on the verge of the catastrophe to show the operation of the reactionary forces that delayed it, and, as we now see, intensified it.

Until the private papers of great personages and state documents now locked up shall come to light, the sources of history used by Dr. Rose can hardly be enlarged. The reader cannot fail to see in his work the hand of a careful and sympathetic student of the struggle of nations toward the realization of their ideals. Nor will any American dissent from his conviction that "it is the special glory of the nineteenth century that races, which had hitherto lain helpless and well-nigh dead rose to manhood as if by magic, and shed their blood like water in the effort to secure a free and unfettered existence both for the individual and the nation." But the effort is still short of the goal, and the twentieth century looks forward with mingled fear and hope.



Comment on Current Books

This interesting volume is partly historical, partly auto-biographical. The author, Mr. Abolitionists 4 8 1 John T. Hume, was one of the Garrisonian Abolitionists. In his boyhood he served as conductor on the "underground railroad." During the Civil War he was a leader among the Missouri radicals, and chairman of their delegation which opposed Mr. Lincoln's renomination by the Convention of 1864. Mr. Hume still entertains the dissatisfaction which the radical wing of the Unionists, East and West, felt with Mr. Lincoln's cautious attitude toward emancipation. His long life includes the early history of the great struggle for human rights, when abolitionists were accounted lawful game for mobs. names of its heroes and heroines, and the tribulations they fought through, find record in his pages. (G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. \$1.25, net.)

This volume by Charles Gibson A mone is an informal story, with abun-French Inns dant illustration, of a pilgrimage to localities in rural France which the pilgrims selected because of their representative historical or picturesque aspects. They devoted several summers or portions of summers to excursions and visits, and not only looked at the country with the eyes, but studied its history and worked up its legends. Special attention was naturally given to the lins as the centers from which interesting excursions were made, and residence in these hostelries made it possible to acquire something of the atmosphere of the different localities. The result is a substantial volume which might well serve as a guide to travelers eager to get off the beaten tracks and to see France in its most characteristic features; and is also a very readable and interesting volume, taking one through parts of Normandy, Brittany, Touraine, sections of southern France, and ending in the Forest of Fontainebleau. Fact and fancy in the shape of observation, history, and legend are happily interwoven with personal incidents and experiences; while the illustrations are well chosen to present both the architecture and the scenery of the localities visited. (L. C. Page & Co., Boston. \$1.60, net.)

The publishers are strictly within the facts in saying of this work that from an artistic standpoint the book is a notable contribution to the literature of sport, and the authors' names are an

abundant guarantee of the accuracy and interest of the text. The volume is edited and illustrated by Louis Rhead, and contains chapters by the editor as well as by William C. Harris, Tarleton H. Bean, and others. Marine and fresh-water basses are discussed in all their varieties, and while the volume is mainly intended for the fisherman, the natural history side has not been forgotten. There are both colored and black-and-white pictures in abundance.

Among all the great composers Brahms none is more worth knowing than Johannes Brahms. This volume by Mr. J. Laurence Erb affords an admirable introduction to him. Indeed, it is useful to those who already have made acquaintance with this towering figure among modern musicians. Although it is written without any great distinction of style, it is decidedly readable. Like other volumes in this series of "The Master Musicians," it is divided into three parts, Biographical, The Man, and The Musician. The first part is characterized by straightforward narrative, which, though brief, is evidently not dependent on secondary sources; the second is characterized by anecdotes as well as by descriptions of Brahms, and is a good bit of portraiture; the third, a critical estimate of Brahms's music and his artistic ideals, is sane and fair, freely according space to Brahms's severest critics as well as to his most appreciative advocates. In the midst of the turmoil and restlessness of the present prevailing school of music and the self-consciousness of most modern composers it is refreshing to turn to this great personality whose modest wholesomeness stamped every note of his compositions, even the most dramatic, with sincerity and partly explains their serene majesty. (E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. \$1.25.)

The Cathedral Builders in England

Continent monastic buildings have largely perished, the English cathedrals of Durham, Ely, Norwich, and Winchester offer to us some of the finest Norman-Romanesque monastic fabric in Europe. These structures owe their preservation largely to the fact that in England the bishops had their seats in the monks' churches. Other Benedictine churches, later made cathedrals, such as Peterborough and Gloucester, supplement

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the record. Then come cathedral churches built on the Benedictine model, as Chichester and Southwell. In the Transitional Style which followed, the birth of Gothic art stood revealed. It coincided with the foundation of the reformed monastic orders-Wells and Ripon being examples. Then came the Early English Salisbury and Lincoln. So we proceed to the Decorated Style-Exeter, for instance-characteristic of the romantic and aristocratic sentiment of the fourteenth century; then to the more practical fifteenth century, with its expansion of civil and commercial ideals; then to the stoppage of cathedral building with the Dissolution, and then to its renaissance at a later epoch, as shown in St. Paul's, for example. An orderly exposition of all this is contained in Mr. Edward S. Prior's "The Cathedral Builders of England," a good account, with interesting illustration, of English ecclesiastical architecture from 1066 to the present time. (E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. \$2, net.)

A Child's
Garden of Verses
about children or for children, bound in brown flexible leather, printed from clear type on a good page; one of the most attractive forms in which this most delightful book about children has appeared. (H. B. Turner, Boston. \$1.50.)

Florentine Palaces Ross turns out to be a guide-book. For such a purpose, however, the publishers have put forth the volume in at least one size too large for the ordinary pocket. Some of the book's thickness, too, could have been obviated by suppressing the illustration-at least by making the pictures much smaller. The palaces are arranged aphabetically and hence practically. The author describes about eighty palaces, whether public buildings or great private residences. She gives to us surprisingly scant information concerning architecture, but a great deal about the important events which happened within the buildings she describes or in connection with them. (E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. \$2, net.)

Friedrich Schiller

This adequately illustrated and tastefully bound volume by Mr. Paul Carus is an admirable memorial of the recent Schiller centenary. In addition to a biographical sketch we have two thoughtful essays by Dr. Carus on Schiller as a philosophical poet and on Schiller's poetry. Both have well-chosen selections of considerable extent, and it was a good idea to present these illustrative excerpts in both German and English.

(The Open Court Publishing Company, Chicago.)

Guide to the Lives of Christ are adapted to the demands of different classes of readers no less diversely than a business directory as compared with the catalogue of an art gallery. Professor William Bancroft Hill, who has the Chair of Biblical Literature at Vassar College, has prepared this little book as a reader's directory to the sort of work that will give him just what he wishes to find on the subject named. For this it is very serviceable to the uninformed. (Edwin S. Gorham, New York.)

In the Name of A collection of short essays on a great variety of subthe Bodleian jects by a writer who is, by nature and training, a spectator and commentator of the school though not of the genius of Charles Lamb. Mr. Augustine Birrell has the light touch, the sense of humor, the feeling for human things, and the knowledge which equip a wise observer and a witty and entertaining writer, and he has more than once shown critical gifts of high quality. This volume is more fragmentary and discursive than the earlier books from the same hand, and the papers are, on the whole, less valuable; though one or two of them, especially that on his father-in-law, the author of "London Lyrics," is not only very interesting, but valuable as a personal impression and interpretation. (Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. \$1, net.)

This is a volume of sea tales written with the accurate knowledge of the life of the sailor which characterizes all of Morgan Robertson's work. Several of the stories describe the marvelous experiences of an old salt who has descended to a berth on a scow in New York Harbor, but whose adventures lead him once more on to the high seas. Other stories narrate suppositious incidents of the Russo-Japanese war on board submarines and torpedo craft. The tales are remarkable rather for ingenuity than for any convincing quality. (Harper & Brothers, New York. \$1.25.)

Outside the Law In this book James Barnes has written a detective story with the detective left out. A gentleman of wealth has undertaken as a hobby, entirely for his own delectation, the engraving of imitations of old and valuable prints. He finds that his assistant has used the secret process, which he has taught him, to make counterfeit plates of bank notes. The plates fall into his hands, and are promptly stolen. Complications result which are intricate and mysterious enough to keep the

reader in suspense to the end. (D. Appleton & Co., New York. \$1.50.)

If religion be, as it is well The Philosophy termed here, "the great of Religion psychic uplift of the race," none but a master in psychology is competent to undertake a soundly reasoned philosophy of religion. This essential qualification Professor George Trumbull Ladd, of Yale, possesses. In the first of these two volumes he presents an instructive study, historical and psychological, of the phenomena of religion in its historical development, in man as a religious being, and in religion as a life. The data thus found for a philosophy of the facts present the problems to which the second volume is devoted: whether the religious conception of God as perfect Ethical Spirit is reconcilable with modern science and philosophy; then, as to the relations of the individual and the race to the Universe; lastly, what is it all for? what is to come of it? Fundamental to Professor Ladd's course of thought is his contention that the ideals which spring from the constitution of human nature, and are found existing throughout the history of man, are no merely subjective ideas, but are grounded in objective reality, and that religion thus stands on as firm footing as science. Were it not so, it could furnish no field for philosophy, whose concern is not with fancy but with fact. On the other hand, man himself is in a long evolutionary process of becoming. While his experience is incomplete it cannot be completely understood. The aim of philosophy is accordingly limited to a progressive strengthening of the grounds of a rational religious faith: "rationality is the ultimate test of the values of religion." Religion, says Professor Ladd, begins as a naive and crude theory of an unseen superhuman reality behind the face of nature. As man's ethical development advances his ideal of the superhuman power is progressively ethicized till the limit of rational thought is reached in the conception of the ultimate reality as an infinitely varied and active, self-conscious, ethical Life. Anthropomorphism is necessitated here by human inability to conceive of superhuman excellence except in terms of the human. The rationality of the conclusion reached through elaborately critical investigation of the various problems involved is in its giving the one explanatory principle which best satisfies the intellective, affective, and practical needs of humanity. The dictum that rationality is the test of values has regard above all to ethical values, for what is ethical is real. In the comparison of religions which sound philosophy involves, ethical values are supremely decisive. Here Christianity is shown to excel, at least in one respect, its nearest competitor, Buddhism, in its ideal of a perfected social life-"the Kingdom of God." Here, as the "path" of Buddhism does not, it opens a "way of salvation" practicable for all men. Here it best satisfies the demand of the modern world with its rising social ideal of democracy. Here also, as Professor Ladd warns us, its practice falls far behind its ideal, in closer conformity to which he sees the coming test of a standing or falling Church. The foregoing is but a meager account of a massive work, admirable both in analysis and synthesis, candid in its recognition of difficulties remaining to be solved, and modestly professing to be "at the most an effort to contribute to the better understanding and higher appreciation of the ultimate meaning and supreme value of the religious experience and religious development of man." (Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. \$7 per set, net.)

Romances of Mission Days

Miller has written a collection of gentle and prettily told stories, illustrated aptly by pictures of the missions. The intention is to California, as well as an acceptable and unambitious work of romance and historic sentiment for the general reader. (Lefavor-Tower Company, Portland, Maine. 75c.)

Two in Italy

A charming volume of Italian impressions in the form of stories by Maud Howe, the author of "Roma Beata." Whether the stories are true or not, the impressions evidently are. (Little, Brown & Co., Boston. \$2, net.)

Letters to The Outlook

WHAT IS A SKEPTIC?

In an editorial of December 16 The Outlook says: "Thomas was a skeptic. He not only rejected the fundamental article of belief, . . . that on which its whele message was to rest, but he refused to believe the prophecies of the Lord; for the Lord had more than once told his disciples that he would be crucified and would rise again the third day." This fact of Thomas's "skepticism" is taken to show that the early Church did not inquire after a man's dogmatic belief, but about his love. "Thomas," says The Ontlook, "was not excommunicated. He remained in the Church and attended its meetings," and ultimately came to believe in the divinity of our Lord.

May I dissent from this characterization of Thomas? First, he was not more "skeptical" than Peter, who thought the stories of the women were "idle tales" (Luke xxiv. 11, 12, 25) until they saw Jesus (Luke xxiv. 31, 34). Second, he did not hesitate any longer than Peter did when he had any evidence but hearsay (John xx. 24, 28). Third, when he had as much evidence as Peter, his "skepticism" left a more correct faith than others had.

To my mind Thomas seems the most desirable of models for men—young men—now. He was not willing to accept so great a truth as the resurrection of a dead friend upon any but the most convincing testimony. Was he not right? Did he not represent that class of men now who want more evidence than the "say so" of ecclesiastical authority or the traditions of religious enthusiasm, but insist on having the testimony grounded in experience? The Outlook, it seems to me, slanders itself when it calls Thomas a "skeptic" rather than a sensible, sane, serious-minded man.

ALVAH S. HOBART. Chester, Pennsylvania.

APOSTOLIC CONDITIONS OF CHURCH MEMBERSHIP

It is certainly to be presumed that The Outlook would not consciously or willingly be unfair or indulge in fallacy. But it does seem as if the brief article headed "The Skeptic and the Church" in your issue of December 16 were both unfair and fallacious.

In the first place, was St. Thomas a "skeptic" in any such sense as that in which we use the word to-day? He was doubtful of the reality of the resurrection only until he had had the same proof, ocular and tangible, which had been accorded his brethren. He

had not intrenched himself behind a carefully constructed rampart of *invincible* denial, and he yielded immediately and gladly and unreservedly to the proof as it was vouchsafed to him.

Secondly, is it not a most misleading representation of the situation to speak of the little company of the disciples during the first eight days after the resurrection as the "Apostolic Church," having conditions of membership, not excommunicating Thomas (who "shared in its work and attended its meetings") because "in the Apostolic Church not dogma but love was the bond of union "? Precisely this description or explanation of Bible incidents in terms of modern denominationalism is the cause of many of our errors, doctrinal and ecclesiastical. How can such explanation be true when the Church of the New Testament had not yet come to the birth? Who can truthfully make any assertions as to the doctrine or discipline of "the Apostolic Church," when as yet the Day of Pentecost had not come, when that Church had not been endowed with power from on high, when nothing had as yet been formulated or organized? But read the first Christian sermon on the Day of Pentecost, and it bristles with dogma, and confutes the statements of the article in question. It is impossible as it is unfair to go back of Pentecost to discover either what Christian discipleship means or what Christian doctrine is. Moreover, to treat the deity of the Saviour as of so small significance that those who worship him as Lord and God shall cordially hold ecclesiastical fellowship with those who deny his Divine Lordship, and therefore logically consider his worshipers idolaters, is to be false to the truth revealed to the vast multitudes of Christian disciples through the ages all along, since the Holy Ghost was given, because that Jesus hath been glorified, King of kings and Lord of lords.

They are not "timid souls" but loyal disciples who bend the knee and bow the heart in lowly adoration, and call upon all others to do the same. Would that every one who calls himself a Christian would indeed learn the lesson of St. Thomas, and be content with no less homage than his crying out in absolute self-surrender, "My Lord and my God."

CORTLANDT WHITEHEAD.

Pittsburg, Pennsylvania.

[The conditions of admission to the Church given by Peter at the close of the Pentecostal sermon are as follows: "Then Peter said

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unto them, Repent, and be baptized every one of you in the name of Jesus Christ for the remission of sins, and ye shall receive the gift of the Holy Ghost." Repentance, baptism, and acceptance of the name of Christian were the only conditions.—The EDITORS.]

SOCIALISM IN ATHENS

A friend of mine who is interested in ethnological psychology has called my attention to the article by Mr. W. D. P. Bliss on socialism in ancient Greece. While no one will dispute the testimony there adduced, few will agree with the conclusion that socialism was a potent factor in producing so many great men. Environment cannot engender intellectual pre-eminence, though it may call into existence the conditions necessary to its development. General Grant would probably never have been heard of but for our Civil War. Would any one in the wildest flight of fancy, knowing the milieu in which Napoleon Bonaparte was born, have predicted his subsequent career? But the unsettled conditions in France, of which country he was not even a native, afforded him a field for the exercise of his talents. The same may be said of Philip of Macedon, of Alexander his son, and of many other men. Every one of the prominent Russian writers of the last century was an uncompromising opponent of the régime under which he was born. The same is true of Athens. With almost the single exception of Sophocles, every Greek thinker was out of harmony, to a greater or less extent, with the peculiar democracy of Athens, which was, in truth, no democracy at all. Socrates, the greatest and most pronounced individualist of all time, paid with his life for refusing to truckle to the populace. We know from his own words that every man who took part in the politics of his day was in perpetual danger. Aristotle, "the master of those who know," and who, by the way, was not an Athenian either, considered a leisure class essential to the production of great men in the domain of thought, and he was right. But he was mistaken as to the provenience of such a class. Under the Romans the Greeks had just as little to do as before, or even less; but, with few exceptions, they spent their time "in hearing about or telling the last new thing." The Sophists were the only class that was content with the conditions as they existed, and at least in apparent accord with them. At any rate, they sought to use them for their own personal aggrandizement. Though the social conditions at Athens] were somewhat peculiar, they were not unique. Many of the Greek city-states passed through the same development with-

out producing great men in the realm of thought. It may, in fact, be said that all society progresses in the direction of the detachment of the individual from the mass; a gradual movement from the homogeneous to the heterogeneous. Galton has briefly stated the proximate causes of Athenian decline; but he does not profess to know the remote causes that set this decay in operation. The historian can generally discover the successive stages that mark the growth or decay of nations; it is beyond human ken to fathom the causes. History is full of surprises-Japan is the latest-and it is safe to predict that it will never be otherwise so long as man is, even to a limited extent, in possession of a free will. Many of the Greek thinkers-Plato and Aristotle among thembelieved that nations rise and fall by virtue of an inscrutable law of their existence. Who shall say that they were mistaken?

Athens, Ohio. CHARLES W. SUPER.

INTERNATIONAL ARBITRATION

One hears just now much talk about the extension of the jurisdiction of the Hague Tribunal for the settlement of international disputes; and some enthusiasts even predict the speedy elimination of war through this seemingly simple expedient. There is a surprising lack of penetration in most of the current discussion. Permit me to express a few facts which are almost always overlooked.

1. Courts are always constituted to apply existing law; or perhaps, in the absence of legislation, to expound existing law into new fields. This latter is always done in a tentative and conservative manner. Where the law is determined it is their sole function to apply it, entirely disregarding its righteousness or unrighteousness, its inherent applicability or inapplicability to the circumstances. It is never their duty to substitute one law for another, however expedient or necessary such change may appear.

2. The only law which can be applied by courts is the lex loci. Courts cannot apply the law of any other place, or general nebulous law. International law has validity in courts of law only as it has been incorporated into the law of the land. The Hague Tribunal, like all other courts, must apply the lex loci unless it is to exercise other functions which are certainly not judicial.

3. The law continually tends to become antiquated. New conditions and circumstances continually require new legislation to bring the law into harmony with the times. This must be true internationally as well as nationally. Moreover, while a continually developing law is everywhere neces-

sary, courts are always and everywhere traditionally conservative. Ancient precedents, antiquated forms, mediæval usages, are the material which they use. Judicial bodies, by their very constitution, hark back to the past rather than prophetically forecast the future. Changed relations, new conditions, mean nothing to them, and can mean nothing, if they are to preserve their character as courts.

4. War is not analogous in its results to a court, and therefore cannot be superseded by a court. War does not apply existing law. It destroys one legal status and puts another in its place. It supersedes one law by another new law. It is legislative, not judicial, in character. One party in every war fights to maintain the legal status; the other always strives to supplant it by another, more in conformity with its desires or with changed conditions. All wars grow out of the dissatisfaction of one nation or people with the legal status existing in some definite place. This lex loci is brought in question by the war, and the effort is made to alter it. This may not always appear at first sight, but fundamentally it holds true. Even such minor wars as are nowadays threatened to enforce payment of debts upon Spanish-American States rest upon the dissatisfaction of the aggrieved power with the legal status prevailing in the territory of the offending nation. It is not true that there is no court to administer the law. The courts of Venezuela are open, and presumably apply Venezuelan law, the lex loci. Perhaps in cases in which foreigners are parties the decisions are not just, and the Hague court might be expected to apply the law more impartially; but unless this body is to be something else than a court it must apply existing law, and the existing law of Venezuela.

5. The substitution of the Hague Tribunal for war, by unanimous consent of all nations, unless an international legislature were also provided, would result in far more serious injustice, misery, and evil than the present system of war. Without provision for the progressive development of law to meet the changing needs of the world, the application of law by any court, however distinguished and impartial, is the merest travesty of justice. In such quarrels as that of the United States with Spain, and of Japan with Russia, the verdicts would have been given in favor of the defendants, because they, in each case, stood upon the law. England could well afford to refer her dispute with her revolting colonies to the Hague Tribunal; German unity would never have been attained; South American republics would refuse to pay their debts with impunity; and Turkey would continue forever successfully to invoke the august sanction of the law. Reverence for law may become insane apotheosis.

6. If war is ever to be abolished, it must be by the substitution of an international legislature rather than an international court. But such an international legislature implies a far greater integration of national units than we have yet attained. Racial, linguistic, religious, economic, social, as well as legal differences must be assimilated. It is because such an international legislature is for the indefinite future quite impracticable that the specious notion of a world court has gained such currency. When we have a world lawgiver, we may expect a world court, not before.

Walter J. Shepard.

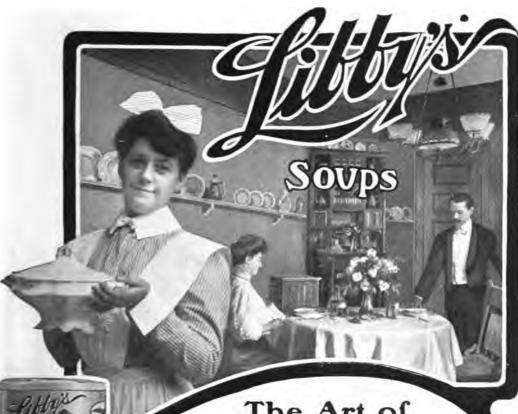
Heidelberg, Germany.

THE HIGHEST EDUCATION

In your issue of December 16 you say editorially: "The popular distinction between industrial education and higher education has no real existence. There is no higher education than that furnished by the professional schools—law, medical, theological."

May I presume to put the truth which is in this statement rather differently? The higher education is that which develops and trains the higher faculties. Technical education trains the eye, the hand, the judgment. the discerning and reasoning faculties. The higher education trains, along with these, the higher faculties, the imagination, the affections, the sympathies, the conscience, the will. This kind of education is not provided, or only incidentally provided, in the professional schools—not even in the schools of law, medicine, and theology. These schools furnish training in some single specialty, a kind of superior apprenticeship, and that not an apprenticeship to a rich and full life, but to a calling, merely or mainly. The higher education, properly considered, is not the aim of the university. It is the function rather of the college, and is attained through its so-called-and rightly called-humanistic studies. The highest education yet reached -it might be still higher-is given and gotten in the later years of our best colleges through studies, grouped so as to develop a well-rounded manhood, in literature, philosophy, art, history, economics, sociology, ethics, culminating, naturally and of logical necessity, in studies pursued in the school of Christ, in which alone the highest of all faculties, the spiritual—love, faith, power—have their full development and education.

M. H. BUCKHAM. University of Vermont, Burlington.



The Art of Making Soup

(And it is an art)

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The Outlook

Saturday, January 13, 1906

President Johnson and Negro Suffrage

By James Schouler

Georgia and the Chain-Gang By George Herbert Clarke

A Quarter-Century of Christian Endeavor By Francis E. Clark

Persuasion and Controversy By Brander Matthews



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A Thought-Compelling Letter

HUTCHINSON, KAN., Oct.

The Outlook

Volume 82

Saturday, January 13, 1906

Number 2

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THE OUTLOOK is a Weekly Newspaper and an Illustrated Monthly Magazine in one. It is published every Saturday—fifty-two issues a year. The fourth issue in each month is an Illustrated Magazine Number, containing about twice as many pages as the regular weekly laue, and many pictures.

PRICE.—The subscription price is Three Dollars a year, payable in advance. Ten cents a copy.

POSTAGE IS PREPAID by the publishers for all subscriptions in the United States, Hawaiian Islands, Philippine Islands, Guam, Porto Rico, Tutuila (Samoa), Shanghai, Canal Zone, Cuba, Canada, and Mexico. For all other countries in the Postal Union add \$1.56 for postage.

CHANGE OF ADDRESS.—When a change of address is ordered, both the new and the old address must be given. The notice should be sent one week before the change is to take effect.

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HOW TO REMIT.—Remittances should be sent by Draft on New York, Express-Order, or Money-Order, payable to order of The Outlook Company. Cash should be sent in Registered Letter.

LETTERS should be addressed:

THE OUTLOOK COMPANY

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The Outlook

SATURDAY, JANUARY 13, 1906

(2)

If any of the speeches The Philippine made in Congress last week by members of the opposition brought forward arguments against the bill to the effect that the proposed tariff relief would not be for the best interests of the Filipinos, or that it was not the duty of Congress to further those interests, we have failed to note the fact. The policy of the Administration was opposed or delayed, on the other hand, in two ways, both of which are far from corresponding to the description above: one consisted in gibes at the Republican party for inconsistency and timidity in its former course upon tariff matters, and in particular for its alleged unwillingness to take up seriously the question of the sugar differential; the other, in asserting that certain special interests (namely, the tobacco-growers and the beet-sugar growers) in this country would be injured by increased prosperity in the Philippines. The first need not be taken seriously as obstruction or argument; it was, in fact, the lightest of party skirmishing. Mr. Clark, of Missouri, a Democratic member, amused the House by a witty though not very dignified speech in which he favored the bill itself, minimized the effect that could be produced on the tobacco and sugar interests of the "United States proper" by what he called "the United States improper "-Hawaii, Porto Rico, and the Philippines; declared that the beet-sugar people were seven years behind the times, as they should have blocked the admission of Hawaiian sugar; and alleged that the Dingley tariff law was producing a deficit of a million dollars a day. If his speech represents the attitude of the Democrats, this is that the Philippine tariff bill is an excellent thing, but that the Republicans should have no credit for it. The real opposition is from Republicans who put local protection for their constituents'

business above considerations of National duty. On the other hand, Mr. Payne squarely answered the taunt that he had changed his attitude since the Porto Rican tariff measure was under discussion by saying simply, "I take my present position because it is right." And Mr. Hill, of Connecticut, a Representative from a tobacco-growing State, said manfully that while he was a protectionist from the crown of his head to the soles of his feet, he was a protectionist against foreign countries and not as against our own possessions. This is the true and only answer to the repeated assertions of the opponents of the Administration that the Philippines are treated now as American territory, now as a foreign country, according to the dictates of policy.

An Important
Decision

The Criminal Code of
New York makes it a

penal offense for any employer of labor to "coerce or compel any person or persons, employee or employees, laborer or mechanic, to enter into an agreement, either written or verbal, from such person, persons, employee, laborer, or mechanic, not to join or become a member of any labor organization, as a condition of such person or persons securing employment, or continuing in the employment of any such person or persons, employer or employers." The Appellate Division of the Supreme Court in the District of New York has unanimously held that this provision is unconstitutional. This is in accordance with a long line of decisions to the general effect that the Legislature can limit the private right of contract only so far as may be necessary to protect public health, public morals, or the public wel-The refusal to employ union men does not affect the public health nor the public morals, and, says the Court, it

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can be said to affect the public welfare only on the ground that such a refusal will tend to incense employees and promote breaches of the peace and consequent public disorder, and—

No statute can be sustained on that theory. It is the duty of the State and the Nation to protect every citizen in the exercise of his Constitutional rights, and so long as the State and Nation last, inability or unwillingness to perform that duty may not be assigned as a justification for a law making the exercise of one's Constitutional rights a crime.

The Court recognizes the legitimacy of labor unions, but declares that it is not competent for the Legislature to force individuals against their will to become members of the labor unions as a condition of obtaining employment, nor to compel employers under penalty of fine or imprisonment to employ union men It concedes, however, though it does not affirm, that it may be constitutional for the Legislature, under its general power to alter, amend, and repeal the charters of corporations, to make it unlawful for corporations to require their employees not to be members of labor unions. In the judgment of The Outlook this decision, which may be regarded as one, if not in favor of the open shop, at least in favor of the legal right to maintain an open shop, will really inure to the benefit of the trade unions. For whatever compels them to abandon the policy of coercion, and depend on making the trade unions so valuable that every member of the trade will wish to join, will, in the long run, promote the efficiency and so the strength of those organizations.

•

An Inelastic Currency

Mr. Jacob H. Schiff, in an address last week at the Chamber of Commerce of New York City, called attention to the radical defect in our currency system, and declared that if it was not corrected the consequences might be very serious. The most important portion of this speech, which produced a decided sensation in financial circles, is found in the following sentences:

"We have witnessed," he said, "during the past sixty days, conditions in the New York money market which are nothing less than a disgrace to any civilized country. There must be a cause for such conditions. It

cannot be the condition of the country itself, for wherever you look there is prosperity—prosperity as we never had it before. The cause is in our insufficient circulating medium, or the insufficient elasticity of our circulating medium. . . . I don't like to play the rôle of Cassandra, but mark what I say. If this condition of affairs is not changed, and changed soon, we will get a panic in this country compared with which the three which have preceded it would be only child's play."

The difficulty has been compared, by a sagacious business man, to that experienced by the railways at a certain season of the year when their freight cars are insufficient for the freight traffic. Yet to have sufficient freight cars for the busy season requires many cars standing idle during the rest of the year. How to secure money enough for the busy seasons without idle money the rest of the year is the financial problem. Mr. Schiff proposes to allow the bankers to issue additional circulation beyond that now permitted, basing it upon commercial paper of unexceptionable character. To meet this difficulty Secretary Gage advocated in 1900 a system of elastic bank currency to be secured by deposits of Government bonds equal to thirty per cent. and a legal tender deposit of twenty per cent., the remaining fifty per cent. to be based upon assets and secured by a In his latest report guarantee fund. Mr. Shaw, the present Secretary, recommends permitting the National banks to issue additional Government-guaranteed circulation equal to half their bondsecured circulation, the new notes not to be secured by bonds but to be subject to a tax of five or six per cent. until redeemed; naturally, the additional circulation would not be issued until interest rates exceeded six per cent., and would be quickly retired when interest rates declined below that amount. Thus we have three plans for currency elasticity. The first two find some analogy in the German system. The Reichsbank is empowered to issue regularly a large amount of uncovered or asset currency, and in times of great demand a further elasticity is provided for by additional issues subject to a tax of five per cent, paid into the Imperial Treasury. During the crisis of 1900-1901 in Germany this system is said to have saved the nation from

disaster. Mr. Schiff's plan, on the other hand, finds a certain analogy in the history of the New York City Clearing-House during the crisis of 1893. Bank reserves had fallen below legal requirements and currency was scarce. Lacking cash for payments, the banks put out paper instead, chiefly in the form of Clearing-House loan certificates. This paper was accepted apparently without question, though it was reported that a hundred million dollars in Clearing-House certificates had been issued. That the perils of the present inelastic conditions are very real, that over-expansion of the currency tends to wildcat speculation, and inadequate currency produces an increased value in money and a consequent National inconvenience that may easily become a National distress, is apparent to all thoughtful men. It is not so easy to prescribe the remedy. Outlook believes that it would be wise to secure the appointment of a small body of experts representing different financial interests and different sections of the country to consider and propose a plan for the consideration of Congress.

The traveling public The Rights of will welcome the de-Railway Passengers cision of the Appellate Division of the Supreme Court in New York in a suit brought by a passenger against the Pullman Company. plaintiff purchased a ticket for a double lower berth in the sleeping-car from San Antonio, Texas, to Jersey City. he reached New Orleans, where he had to change cars, he was informed that there was no lower berth for him, and as he was accustomed to walk in his sleep, he believed that an upper berth would be unsafe for him and he was obliged to ride in an ordinary coach for two days and a half. He brought a suit for damages. Under the charge of the trial judge he recovered a verdict for the eight dollars which he had paid for the lower berth which had not been accorded him. The Appellate Court ordered a new trial on the ground that the plaintiff was entitled to something more than the price of his ticket, which was not an adequate compensation for the discomfort and inconvenience suffered by the plaintiff. Says the Court in this decision:

Public policy also requires that a liberal rule of damages should be accorded the plaintiff in such a case. If the damages are in such case to be limited to the cost of the ticket, not only will the traveling public be seriously inconvenienced and annoyed, but it would lead to the resale of tickets for gratuities tendered by subsequent applicants and result in the utmost confusion. The sleepingcar company has notice of every element of damages that a traveler is liable to encounter in such circumstances. For the indignity inflicted upon the passenger in the presence of other passengers by being refused the berth which he had purchased, and by being obliged to leave the sleeping-car, and for the inconvenience and annoyance which he suffers by being obliged to travel in a day coach without sleeping or washing facilities, and being obliged to change cars at early and late hours, he should be compensated. Although the decisions on this point are not fully in accord, the trend of judicial authority is that these are elements of damage for which a recovery may be had.

It is to be hoped that this decision will render the Pullman Car Company somewhat more careful than it is accustomed to be in its assignment of berths. The selling of berths or seats twice over to different passengers is not an infrequent event, and usually the complaint to the Company results in no compensation whatever to the passenger, though we believe the clerk is sometimes fined, so that the Company gets the profit of two seats sold and only one occupied plus a fine collected from one of its subordinates.

Reforms in Insurance
Management
More The publicity afforded to insurance

port, the publicity afforded to insurance methods by its investigation has already produced good results. Last week Mr. John A. McCall resigned his position as President of the New York Life Insurance Company, to be succeeded by Mr. Alexander E. Orr, the President of the New York Rapid Transit Commission. In tendering his resignation to the Board of Trustees Mr. McCall turned over to the Company his check for \$85,000 and his personal note for \$150,000, to cover the sum of \$235,000 paid to Mr. Andrew Hamilton in 1904, and not satisfactorily accounted for by him

in his recent statement. The trustees accepted Mr. McCall's payment, which will be held subject to a further audit of Mr. Hamilton's account. They had already refused to accept the deposit of \$100,000 which Mr. Hamilton desired to make for a similar purpose. Each of the "Big Three," as the New York companies which are at the head of the life insurance business in this country in point of size and prominence are called, is now under new management. affairs of both the New York and Mutual Life Insurance Companies are being investigated by committees of their trustees, and a similar investigation under the direction of its President, Mr. Paul Morton, has just been completed of the Equitable Society. In a letter to the policy-holders of the Equitable Mr. Morton reports that a rigid examination by two firms of chartered accountants shows that the assets of the Society are intact and worth over \$416,000,000; that the surplus amounts to over \$67,000,000, about seven-eighths of which is a fund for division among existing deferred dividend policies at the end of their accumulation period; that economies amounting to over \$600,000 a year have already been introduced. Mr. Morton states further that he expects to institute other economies of a radical character, and that the Society will depend upon its policy-holders that no unreasonable legislation is enacted; under no circumstances will it be a party to corrupt methods in preventing "strike" legislation. It is universally recognized that the practice on the part of agents of giving rebates to new policy-holders on their premiums is a widespread and serious evil. An agreement has just been entered into by the Equitable, Mutual, and New York Life Insurance Companies that they will not countenance the giving of rebates by their agents, and that any agent found guilty of the practice will be immediately discharged and will not be re-employed by either of the other companies. Mr. Grover Cleveland has been engaged by the companies, at a salary of \$12,000 a year, to act as referee in any disputed cases of rebating. editorial on the subject of insurance appears on another page.

The housesmiths' strike. The Printers' of which we gave some Strike account in The Outlook for December 9, has failed, as such strikes always ought to and generally do fail. A new one has now been organized for a general raise in wages from \$4.50 to \$5 a day. Such a question of wages ought to be settled by the conciliation of arbitration, not by industrial war. A far more serious strike is that of the printers. The Typographical Union is one of the strongest of the trade unions. It insists upon the closed shop—that is, none of its members are allowed to work in a printing establishment if any non-union men are working In addition there are some other regulations which employers have found irritating, if not seriously injurious to their business. Printers on the daily papers have an eight-hour day. Typographical Union is now striking for an eight-hour day in all composing-rooms. It is conceded that this shorter day will involve an increased expense to the employers. The members of the Typothetæ —that is, the employing printers—are not only resisting the demand for an eight-hour day, but are taking the occasion to demand the open shop. If we are correctly informed, the strike has not quite the extent which the daily press would indicate. It is said that in New York City there are 7,500 printers, and only about a thousand engaged in the strike, the rest being either employed by the daily press, or in shops not connected with the Typographical Union, or by establishments which have yielded to the demand of the Union. The principles of The Outlook, repeatedly affirmed, lead to a twofold judgment on this strike. Dividing the day into three equal portions, giving one-third for sleep, one-third for work, and one-third for rest, recreation, and home, is certainly a good division. Yet it is obviously not possible to apply this division equally to all establishments. Generally speaking, The Outlook believes heartily in an eighthour day, and, beginning with the first of January, this schedule has been adopted in the composing-room which is under our own control. The Outlook does not believe in the closed shop as an

essential element in trade union prin-In our judgment, the unions would gain more in enthusiasm than they would lose in members if they were all to adopt the principle, which some of the most prosperous trade unions have adopted, of trusting to the general advantage of trade unionism and public sentiment among workers to secure membership in their organizations, without attempting to coerce workingmen into trade unions by the attempt to drive them out of employment unless they are unionists. If the contest between the Typographical Union and the employers were based primarily or chiefly upon a demand for the closed shop, in comparison with the open shop, The Outlook would find itself compelled to stand in opposition to the Union on this point, even though our own establishment is not an important factor in the situation, for, with the exception of typesetting, the printing work of The Outlook is done by contract. Since, however, the chief demand is for an eight-hour day, in which The Outlook believes, and to which there are indications that substantially all employing printers will come within a short time. The Outlook has deemed it wise to adopt the eight-hour day, and postpone consideration of the question of the open shop.

❸

By a majority of five-Political Affairs in sevenths, Mr. James New York State W. Wadsworth, Jr., was last week elected Speaker of the New York Assembly. Only twenty-eight years of age, with but a year's experience in the Legislature, Mr. Wadsworth has been called upon to bear an unusually heavy political burden. Upon him, in the first place, rests much of the responsibility for the conduct of the Republican party in the State at a time when that party is resting under the shadow of discredited leadership. Whether justly or unjustly, Mr. Odell, former Governor and present Republican State Chairman, has been attacked with more bitter and contemptuous animosity than any leader has in recent years been forced to endure. With the election of Mr. Herbert Parsons, a high-minded man, as Chairman

of the Republican Committee of New York County, in place of Mr. Odell's henchman who conducted the campaign in New York City so disastrously last November, the power of the State boss was shaken. With the election now of Mr. Wadsworth as Speaker, Mr. Odell's power, for the present at least, seems shattered. Mr. Odell's warning that the State may now become Democratic has been interpreted as a threat. It is possible that he may make that threat good. The new Speaker, therefore, confronts a difficult situation. He, moreover, presides over a branch of the Legislature which has the duty of embodying in law the results of the insurance investigation. This is a task to which he brings little experience; but, as one legislator has remarked, his inexperience is better than certain varieties of experience. Governor Higgins, whose support of Mr. Wadsworth's candidacy was the signal for the final revolt against Mr. Odell's leadership, has, in a firm message to the Legislature, outlined the problems of insurance and taxation which the Legislature is called upon to solve. The whole Nation has reason for watching with interest the process by which New York State not only deals with such Nationally important problems as those of insurance, mortgage taxation, ballot reform, water supply, and the preservation of Niagara Falls, but also meets the conditions created by the dethronement of a boss capable of resentment.

(8)

The readers of Prices in Canada The Outlook are and the United States indebted for the following summary to a special correspondent of The Outlook who is now touring the Maritime Provinces with the Commission: "The transcript of the notes of the evidence and discussions before the Canadian Tariff Commission would make a much larger book than the 'Historians' History of the World.' It would constitute a veritable Domesday Book for Canada; replete with facts concerning industrial and social conditions in the Dominion in the opening years of the twentieth century. The transcript is not to be printed. Only five typewritten

copies are being made by the official shorthand writers for the use of the Commission. But were these notes to be put into book form, and made available for public reading, one surprising fact would confront the student who could give the necessary time to the work. The notes would show that, except as regards foodstuffs, all goods are cheaper to buy in the United States than in Canada. In these days of a high tariff in the United States, and of combines beyond count, this statement may seem to call for some qualification. Some explanation is in order; but there is no need for qualification. The explanation is that although the Dingley Tariff is from twenty to fifty per cent. higher than the Dominion Tariff of 1897, American manufacturers cannot or do not live up to the limit of their tariff protection as Canadian manufacturers generally do. Canada has its combines pretty much as the United States has. Seventy of them were exposed in the criminal courts at Toronto while the Tariff Commission was in that city, and these combines undoubtedly have helped the manufacturers in keeping up prices to the tariff limit. The plea of the manufacturers, however, is that prices must necessarily be higher in Canada than in the United States-combines or no combines-because the market is so very much smaller. A smaller market means a higher cost of production. Scores of Canadian manufacturers have appeared before the Commission to plead that this is the greatest industrial disadvantage under which they labor. Comparative details of American and Canadian manufacturing costs have been submitted in connection with nearly every manufacturing interest in Canada. One case will serve to illustrate the position. The manufacturers of cotton prints, who appeared before the Commission at Montreal, showed that the demand for printed cottons is almost identical in Canada and in America; but that while in New England one set of printing-machines can be run year in and year out on one line of goods, in Canada the home demand for one line is not suffi. cient to keep the machines running for a month. The manufacturers of picture

moldings and frames and of silver-plate ware, and the lithographers, presented similar cases; and among manufacturers in Canada about the only men who are not working under these disadvantages are the merchant tailors and the cigarmakers. It is clearly the immense population in the United States, the competition which still prevails in many lines of industry, and the way in which industries are distributed over the country, that serve to make it unnecessary for manufacturers, or make it impracticable for them, to push prices to the Dingley limit. Canada has not the large population; there is little or no real competition among her manufacturers, and her industrial plants are not distributed over the country as the plants are in America. In a country that is determined to have a protective tariff, that is bent at any cost on building up its industries by means of high tariff protection and bounties from the central Government and bonuses and tax exemption from the municipalities, these conditions are unfortunate—burdensomely unfortunate for the consumer; and as the evidence which has been submitted in behalf of the farmers in Ontario and Ouebec and in the Far West has shown. the burden of the cost of upbuilding these industries falls chiefly on the farm-It is now beyond question that the farmer of the Dominion, who it is conceded gains not the least advantage, direct or indirect, from the protective tariff, is being heavily mulcted on everything he buys to put the Canadian manufacturer, with his smaller manufacturing equipment, his smaller output, and smaller and more widely scattered market, on as good a footing as the manufacturer in the United States."

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San Domingo The death in battle of General Roderiguez on Tuesday of last week is considered a serious blow to the political faction to which ex-President Morales belongs. It has been followed by the formal impeachment of Morales before the Dominican Supreme Court, and there is little doubt that on his failure to appear and put in a defense he will be pronounced guilty

Ramon Caceres, the former of treason. Vice-President, has been sworn in as President, and, unless overthrown by insurgent success in arms or by conspiracy within his own party, will hold office until the next general election, which takes place in 1907. In the skirmish or battle near Puerto Plata in which Roderiguez was killed the total loss on both sides was about seventy-five killed and perhaps double that number of wounded. A characteristic incident illustrating the instability of parties and candidacies in San Domingo was Roderiguez's declaration before the battle (which he was fighting in the name of Morales) that if victorious he should himself at once become a candidate for the Presidency. Caceres's accession is really a triumph of the old Horacista faction (named after Horacio Vasquez) as against the Imenistas, or followers of Jiminez. A patchedup truce between these factions after the overthrow of President Wos y Gil led to the selection of Morales as a compromise or provisional President under the agreement, it is said, that Jiminez should be his successor. The Horacistas have been gaining strength, and it was because he feared that they would overthrow him that Morales fled and took up arms. Where he is now is not known. There are at least half a dozen "generals," in command of small bodies of soldiers, nominally supporting the Caceres government or the Morales opposition, every one of whom would be an aspirant for the Presidency if an opportunity presented. The Dominican Consul-General in New York is reported as saving that President Caceras can give far more substantial aid to the pending treaty between the United States and San Domingo than Whether this is so or not, the Morales. greater the anarchy in San Domingo the stronger the need of just administration of its finances and the greater the danger of foreign creditor nations intervening.

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The Russian Duma

The past week in Russia has been chiefly remarkable because of the preparations for the elections to the Duma, or Parliament, promulgated by Imperial decree last August. Of the taxpaying

classes, in St. Petersburg alone more than seventy thousand persons registered. Many members of labor and Socialist organizations, however, are not registe: ing. Their leaders have ordered them to boycott the elections on the ground that the Duma is not being chosen by direct, secret, and universal suffrage, and that it is to have no guaranteed power to frame a Constitu-The revolutionary Socialists have adopted a series of resolutions declaring against any participation in what they call "police elections," but urging Socialists to take advantage of such freedom of meeting as may be allowed them to discuss the elections and preach the doctrine of armed revolt. The Social Democrats in general do not go so far as this. They may even boycott the Duma; but they believe that a Constitution can be secured without the hor-The Moderates rors of a sevolution. and Liberals favor, of course, using the elections and the Duma as a steppingstone to genuinely representative and popular government. It is unfortunate that they are not supported by the more conservative Socialist and labor organizations. The Witte Ministry in general, and Minister of the Interior Durnovo in particular, do not seem to be shedding any tears over the refusal of the proletariat organizations to take part in the elections; indeed, encouraged by their success in mercilessly repressing the Moscow revolt, they are apparently falling into the error of which the revolutionists in many places in Russia have been guilty. Law and order should be upheld, of course, but an advantage can be pressed too far. In St. Petersburg, for instance, there have been wholesale searches for arms or evidence by the police acting under the Minister of the Interior. These have now been succeeded by an exasperating order from the prefect of police which practically gives to the dvorniks, or house porters, a free hand to search private lodgings for arms, and suspicious persons for documents, offering a premium of a ruble (about fifty cents) to them for the discovery of every revolver or bomb, and half as much for a knife. Not since Plehve's time has any Minister of the Interior countenanced such an offensive order.

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The political campaign in Politics in England is becoming ani-Great Britain mated. The Parliament elected in 1900 was dissolved on Monday, and a new Parliament summoned to meet on the 13th of next month, the interval between dissolution and reassembling being the shortest allowed by law. The election will be more generally contested than any which has taken place in twenty years. Twenty years ago this year the rejection of Mr. Gladstone's first Home Rule Bill for Ireland was followed by a fierce contest throughout the country. At the election held six years ago many of the nominees of the Unionists were elected without opposition; reports indicate that in the present election there will be opposing candidates in practically all the borough divisions of Great Britain. this distance indications point to a general gain on the part of the Liberals. The Conservative plan of campaign halts, and it looks now as if it were doomed to fail-The country refuses to believe that the real matter at issue is the Home Rule question; it sees clearly, apparently, that the Liberals are not only sound in policy but true to the fact in making the fight turn on the free-trade issue. Two somewhat unusual demonstrations of feeling took place last week. Disorderly political meetings are by no means uncommon in England, and political speakers are often howled down; but it does not often happen that men of the position of Mr. Balfour and Mr. Chamberlain are silenced by riotous proceedings, as these two gentlemen were at Derby and Manchester last week. The Liberals have made two very substantial gains. Duke of Devonshire, who has been an uncompromising Unionist since the last election, and who carries great weight in England, not only on account of his position, but on account of his recognized independence of mind and disinterestedness, has issued a manifesto to the Unionists' Free Trade League virtually advising free-trade Unionists to support the Liberal rather than the protectionist candidates. The Duke unceremoniously dismisses the Home Rule question, on which Mr. Balfour is insisting, as a side issue, declares that there is no indication that the opinion of the country has changed since the rejection of the last Home Rule Bill, and that it is in the last degree improbable that the Liberal Government will take the risk of introducing another measure of the same kind in the next Parliament: that, therefore, the question of free trade versus protection is the real issue in the election, and that there must be no departure from the established British policy of free trade. This manifesto is of very great importance to the Liberal party, and its effects are already noticeable in influential quarters. Not less important is the manifesto of the United Irish League, drawn up by Mr. Redmond, which declares that it is the first duty of Irish voters of Great Britain "to aid to the utmost in the discomfiture of the great coalition which has inflicted such immense injuries on their country." The Irish voters are recommended to support Labor candidates who are sound on the Home Rule question, otherwise they are urged to vote for the Liberals. This action is one of the most sagacious taken for a long time by the leaders of the Irish movement, and will do much to reinspire confidence in their ability to deal practically with a difficult situation. It seems to indicate some understanding between the Irish and the Liberal leaders. and foreshadows, probably, some measure of local self-government which the Irish are ready to accept on the principle that half a loaf is better than no bread.

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The Yerkes
Gifts to New York

Charles T. Yerkes, the well-known promoter, the city of New York receives two gifts of the first magnitude. One is a great hospital, to be built in the Borough of the Bronx and to be an institution of the highest order in point of equipment and endowment. The amount of this gift has not been authoritatively announced, but it is reported that it will not be less than three millions of dollars. The other gift con-

sists of the two houses which Mr. Yerkes occupied on Fifth Avenue, with the very valuable collection of paintings, statuary, bronzes, rugs, and other objects of art which he had been collecting for the last twenty years. Mr. Yerkes is said to have taken the idea of his collection from the well-known Wallace Collection in London. It was on a visit to the Wallace galleries that he realized for the first time the great interest which the public takes in art. This collection, bequeathed to the city of London by the widow of Sir Richard Wallace, is under the control and direction of a board of trustees appointed by the Crown. After Mr. Yerkes had familiarized himself with the contents of this collection, its arrangement, its popularity, and its management, he declared that he would remember the people of the city of New York and of America in the same way. Under the provisions of his will the houses and the collection, on the death of Mrs. Yerkes, or before if she so desires, are to be maintained as a separate public museum, affiliated with the Metropolitan Museum of Art and managed by five trustees, four to be appointed by the Metropolitan Museum, the fifth being the Mayor of the city of New York. The collection which will thus become public property includes nearly one hundred works, largely of early English, Dutch, and Flemish schools, with a generous representation of the work of modern French artists. Among the most notable pictures are portraits by Van Dyck, pictures by Troyon, Corot, Daubigny, Delacroix. There are also works and Leschamps. by Rembrandt, four Turners, and characteristic pieces by Rubens, Ruysdael, Hals, Brouwer, Dow, and Ostade. The collection of rugs is said to be particularly important by reason of the artistic value which it represents. The total amount of the gift in money will probably exceed five million dollars.

A Garden City

A very interesting development of the garden city movement is being worked out at Peterton, near Cardiff, Wales. The site chosen for the experiment, which is a business one, is within five minutes' walk of the Peterton station. It is surrounded

on three sides by low hills, and readily lends itself to striking arrangement. The plan of the village is circular, with the village green in the center. This is surrounded by a row of shops. No others will be allowed anywhere else on any other part of the estate. Five wide boulevards branch off from the village green, communicating with a great outer circle to be known as Grand Avenue. The better class of houses will be located on this outer street, and will be either detached or semi-detached dwellings. Each house will have enough ground for a kitchen-garden and tenniscourts. The other avenues will be arranged in concentric circles, and the style and quality of the houses will depend upon their nearness to the village green, or outer circle, the better ones being near the latter and the less expensive ones being near the former. A limit will be placed upon the amount of land to be allowed any one individual, so that every one may be properly, and as nearly as possible equally, accommodated. Provision is to be made for recreation ground, open places, small parks, and there will be adequate provision for a religious site, and sites will be set aside for the various religious interests. Ground is to be let on ninety-nine-year leases, with a low ground rent, and the tenants are all to build their own houses. subject to the general requirements and limitations of the village. The government will, in all likelihood, be in the hands of a small committee, appointed at a town meeting. In addition to the outdoor recreation features, there will be schools, a village hall, a gymnasium, a reading-room and lecture hall. There is also to be a small village inn.

School Boards

There was one feature of the recent municipal election in Boston which has received very little attention in proportion to its importance. At the last session of the Massachusetts Legislature an act was passed whereby the existing Board of Education, consisting of twenty-four members, was abolished, and a new Board possessing the same duties, rights, and liabilities, but consisting of only five members, was created. The new Board

was made elective, contrary to the better judgment of the petitioners. However, at the municipal election of December 12 a fine Board was elected. Among the number was James J. Starrow, who was the father of the act. The Board as elected is made up of excellent men who possess the confidence of the best people of Boston. It is thoroughly representative, consisting of two Roman Catholics, two Protestants, and one Hebrew. Dr. F. V. Thompson, a postgraduate at Harvard, who has carefully investigated the organization and working of school boards in the larger cities of the country, has declared in a thesis prepared on the subject that large school boards, whether elective or appointive, are unmitigated evils. The efficiency of school systems seems to be in inverse ratio to the size of the school committee. He could find no large school board in any of the first fifteen cities of the United States that was at all successful, in the iudgment of unbiased minds. The best results are invariably accomplished by small boards. Dr. Thompson points out that there is a marked coincidence between the small boards and the date of the charter. There are but few exceptions, and these are easily accounted for, where a charter granted later than 1890 provides for anything less than a reduced board. The appointive feature seems to be the most marked tendency of the latest charters. The small board, whether appointive or elective, works There is nowhere discoverable any intelligent tendency to enlarge small The large elective board is, apparently, altogether bad in constitution, effectiveness, and generally in personnel. Every city investigated possessing such a system is seeking reform, and reform in each case is prevented only by corrupt partisan politics, or from methods equally censurable.

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Church Union in Canada Was taken last week toward Church union in Canada. As recorded in The Outlook of January 7, 1905, representatives of the Methodist, Presbyterian, and Congregational Churches, to the number of

one hundred and fifty, met a year ago in consultation in Toronto to promote the organic union of those Churches. After three days' deliberation they decided that there were no insuperable difficulties in the way, and committees were appointed to harmonize, if possible, the various systems of doctrine, Church polity, administration, and the status of the ministry. These committees met again in Toronto for further consultation and to report a practical basis of union. That irenical conference met, very appropriately, in the Christmas week, December 20 and 21, in a church decorated for Christmas. A common creed was formulated expressing the essentials of the systems of doctrine of the several Churches. It was found, in frank and friendly discussion, that there were fewer points of difference and more of agreement than they had thought. The sovereignty of God and the free will of man were shown to be the complements each of the other. Similarly it was found that the diverse systems of Church polity and administration and ministerial status could be harmonized to the mutual advantage of all negotiating bodies. The name of the new organization will probably be The United Church in Canada. names suggested for its courts are: General Assembly, to meet every two years, Annual Conferences, and Local District Councils or Presbyteries. The pastoral term may be of indefinite duration, but a Settlement Committee may assign pastors to their charges from year to year. The principle of lay delegation is recognized in all the Church courts. freedom of congregational action is given the several Churches, their ultimate relations being left to the legislation of the General Assembly, tentative plan of union will be submitted to the General Conference of the Methodist Church, the General Assembly of the Presbyterian Church, and the Congregational Union for further action, and will doubtless be sent by these bodies to the people, who are ultimate authority, for ratification. The Rev. Dr. Carman, General Superintendent of the Methodist Church, presided with rare ability, and three secretaries, representing the three Churches, kept the

record of this epoch-marking conference. The pressure on the resources of all the Churches in both men and money for the extension of their work in the great Northwest of Canada, so fast filling with a foreign population, was a very strong factor in promoting this union of effort to overtake the needs of the new West. Immigrants are pouring in by the thousands, and it will tax the energies of the United Church in Canada, and all of the other Christian agencies, to supply those needs.

The Strike of an Opera Chorus

Gounod's "Faust," that most popular and tuneful of a strike of an operation of the strike of the ful of operas, was sung last week at the Metropolitan Opera-House without a chorus. Operatic stars of the first magnitude were on the stage in plenty, but the host of lesser lights was absent. In some passages the opera was "cut." but in others the orchestra played its part while mute supernumeraries presented Chorus even more quietly than Bottom promised to play the part of Lion. At the close of the first act Mr. Conried, the manager, read before the audience a typewritten statement in explanation. He declared that the members of the chorus, acting under the orders of the labor union, had, without notice, deliberately repudiated the contract which they had signed with They had him as individual singers. made demands as members of a labor union to which, "as a matter of principle, of respect for art, and of respect for this art-loving public," he had refused to submit. He admitted that his objections to making concessions to the chorus were "not founded upon the nature of the demands themselves;" he simply "refused to be dictated to by the chorus as a labor union." Before the end of the week a reconciliation was effected. Each side asserted that the other side had made a concession. In this probably both sides are right. After conference with President Gompers, of the American Federation of Labor, Mr. Conried received the chorus, without formally recognizing it as a union, acceded to its demands for increased salary and better treatment, and announced publicly that the chorus had yielded to his demands.

This is a case where the dispute ought to have been settled without causing annoyance to the public.

To us, and we believe Musicians to all reasonable peoand Labor Unions ple, the demands of the chorus seem entirely justified. The members were paid fifteen dollars each a week. This is less, we understand, than is paid to members of the chorus in many musical burlesques. certainly seems in appalling contrast to the huge salaries, not infrequently a thousand dollars a night, paid to the so-called The work of the chorus singer is not only unremunerative, but is distressingly hard; long-continued rehearsals added to the performances lasting late into the night make a demand upon the nervous energy as well as the physique of the singer which is never made by a labor that does not involve the emotions as does the performance of music. Mr. Conried's defense or explanation seems to us really in the nature of a confession. It is equivalent to his saying that he will grind down the members of the chorus until they make an organized remonstrance and then he will deny them relief because their remonstrance is organized. On the other hand, this chorus, we believe, made two serious errors. In the first place, its members violated their contracts. No enemy of any organization, whether it be industrial or artistic or otherwise, can do it more serious harm than can those, even if they be its professed friends, who counsel it to break its word. Labor organizations have done themselves vast injury by repudiating contracts. The very power of collective bargaining for which they struggle is dependent upon the inviolability of the bargain which they make. The second error which this chorus made, we believe, was in allying itself with a federation of labor unions. The Outlook believes that orchestral players, chorus singers, and all other musical performers not only have the right to organize themselves, but also are likely to be benefited by organization; but they lower their own calling and injure even their economic standing by regarding themselves as laborers, even

though they class themselves as skilled laborers. In the performance of music the personal equation enters as it does not into even the skilled trades. No singer or musical performer can do his part, even though it be the humblest part, well, unless he regards himself as contributing to a work of art. Certainly no labor federation is capable of understanding the elements that enter into the production of a work of music, and therefore no labor federation ought to have the power to determine in what fashion a work of music should be performed.

Panama

Mr. Poultney Bigelow has contributed an article to the New York "Independent" describing conditions as he saw them in Panama, which has attracted wide attention. It is wholly pessimistic: from his description it would appear that in the past everything has been done wrong and nothing right, and that throughout the work has been characterized by inefficiency mingled with dishonesty. But he throws no light on the question whether things are going from bad to worse or bad to better; he gives no indication of having interviewed any of the public officials for the purpose of ascertaining what they have done or are trying to do, and intimates that he regards such inquiries as superfluous; his accusation that Secretary Taft in common with others made a superficial investigation and a whitewashing report, and exhibited a "panicky dread of disease where thousands of their fellow-men were exposing themselves," needs no other reply than Mr. Taft's past career, proved character, and public service: in brief, if there are whitewashing reports, there are also black-washing reports, and one is little better than the other.

But when all this is said, it remains true that here is a definite accusation and an individual accuser, who gives specifications, dates, and names, so that his story can be investigated, and either verified or contradicted. Previous anonymous stories are focused in this signed report. The Outlook believes that Mr. Taft's account of conditions at the Isthmus, as

given in The Outlook for December 9, is as much more reliable as it is less sensational than Mr. Bigelow's. But the country ought not to rest on beliefs of either individuals or newspapers; it should have assurance. Mr. Taft has himself invited a Congressional investigation. The President, in his special message to Congress accompanying the annual report of the Panama Canal Commission and the Panama Railroad Commission, repeats with emphasis this invitation. It is true that he characterizes as wholly without foundation the charges hitherto preferred against the work as carried on at the Isthmus:

All the work so far has been done, not only with the utmost expedition, but in the most careful and thorough manner, and what has been accomplished gives us good reason to believe that the canal will be dug in a shorter time than had been anticipated, and at an expenditure within the estimated amount.

Trom time to time various publications have been made, and from time to time in the future various similar publications doubtless will be made, purporting to give an account of jobbery, or immorality, or inefficiency, or misery, as obtaining on the Isthmus. I have carefully examined into each of these accusations which seemed worthy of attention. In every instance the accusations have proved to be without foundation in any shape or form.

But the President proves his faith in the excellence of the work by inviting Congress to investigate for itself. court," he says, "the fullest, most exhaustive, and most searching investigation of any act of theirs" (the officials engaged in the Panama work), and he promises exemplary punishment if any one shall be shown guilty of any wrong. To this invitation Congress should at once respond. It owes no more imperative duty to the country than to provide such an investigation as shall discover incompetence or dishonesty if they exist, and shall put an end to the reports of incompetent or dishonest observers if such there are.

Nor should this investigation be made merely by a committee of Congress. It is charged that the inefficiency discovered is largely due to Congressional appointments. The country has quite as much desire to know about Congress as about the War Department. It cannot be difficult to secure the appointment of some men of National reputation to go on behalf of Congress, either with a Congressional committee or independently, to make a thorough inquiry and a full report as to present conditions and immediate prospects at Panama.

Let us not be misunderstood. We believe in an Isthmian Canal built by the Government and operated by the Government. We recognize the great difficulties which the Government has to overcome in achieving this undertaking. The engineering difficulties are not insignificant. The sanitary difficulties are The difficulty of securing and greater. maintaining the necessary labor is still greater. Mr. Bigelow is certainly ill informed in his statement that "there is plenty of labor to be had for the asking." But there are other hindrances which, just because they are not patent, are more difficult to overcome. There is a corporate interest, the more effective because it is unavowed. is a conservatism which does not believe that government should go into any industrial undertaking. There is a partisanship always ready to exaggerate evils for the purpose of attacking the Administration. There are some journals and some journalists-though the "Independent " is certainly not among themthat think the best way to show a courageous independence is to criticise, if not to vilify, anything that is American. There are politicians, in Congress and out, who are only too ready to foist upon the Panama Canal any man who has rendered them a political service. And there is a spirit of impatience in the American people, who are too eager for immediate results to consider the difficulties to be overcome before the results can be secured.

These constitute excellent reasons for patience with the Government in the work it has undertaken—excellent reasons, too, for distrusting the reports which are published from time to time for the ill-concealed purpose of discouraging the American people and preventing the further prosecution of the work. But they are not reasons for suffering evils which can be corrected, nor for a failure to demand a high standard of efficiency, nor for suffering a popular ignorance as to

the work, its conditions, the hindrances it meets, and the progress it is making. The honor of the Nation is at stake in this enterprise. And therefore the Nation ought to know how that enterprise is being conducted.

The Outlook intends to contribute its share to secure this result. Several weeks ago it secured the services of a special commissioner to go to Panama and investigate conditions-Mr. John Foster Carr, author of the article on "Campaign Funds and Campaign Scandals "recently published in The Outlook, and of other carefully written articles in "The World's Work" and elsewhere. Mr. Carr is now engaged in preliminary preparations in order to make his investigation as thorough as possible. He will start the last of this month, but it will be spring or early summer before we can give our readers the result of his investigations. Neither time nor pains will be spared in making them as thorough as it is possible to make them. His object will be neither to eulogize nor to condemn, but to report. His instructions are to make that report without fear or favor. His character is a guarantee that he will make it in no And we recommend those other spirit. readers who are accustomed to trust the honesty and the intelligence of The Outlook to suspend their judgment concerning conditions on the Isthmus till this report of The Outlook's representative is laid before them.

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Life Insurance Reform

The Insurance Investigating Committee has completed its sessions and will make its recommendations to the Legislature for changes in the insurance law as soon as its report can be prepared. It has sat for four months and taken volumes of testimony on the different phases of the life insurance business as conducted in New York State. testimony has disclosed an astounding lack, on the part of the officers of insurance companies, of a sense of trusteeship, manifesting itself in disregard of the rights and interests of policy-holders and too often in exploitation for personal gain of their property as represented by

the funds in the treasuries of the companies. Coupled with this misconception of their fiduciary capacity there has been shown to exist among insurance officials a kind of moral cowardice which has led them to expend great sums of money to influence and control legislation and taxation in the different States. Both of these conditions of mind are probably present, in some measure, in those who control other financial and commercial institutions; but nowhere else, except in savings banks, is it of such vital importance that they be eliminated.

Until the recommendations of the Committee are made public The Outlook refrains from making or discussing any definite suggestions for legislation. There is, however, one broad principle lying at the foundation of life insurance which has been almost completely lost sight of in the recent development of insurance business, and even in the recent discussions of the subject. life insurance the interests of the beneficiary should be paramount. Life insurance was originally intended, and, until the time of the late Mr. Henry B. Hyde, the founder of the Equitable Life Assurance Society, was only intended, to enable a man to provide support after his death for those dependent upon him. On this theory the best insurance company was the one that gave in return for the amount of money which the insured had expended the largest sum to the beneficiary. The invention and introduction by Mr. Hyde of "endowment" or "investment" forms of insurance obscured this principle and diverted attention from the returns which the beneficiary would receive to those which the insured might receive if he lived through the period for which his policy was written. These new forms of insurance made possible the piling up of enormous surpluses, with the almost inevitable consequence of extravagance and exploitation. endowment policies were more popular, and more of them were written; the company could pay the agent a larger commission on such a policy, and he would therefore recommend it more strongly. Everything co-operated to throw the emphasis from the "straight" life policy to the investment form of

policy. In consequence, the insurance company came to be regarded as the best which, measurably ignoring the beneficiary, promised the largest dividends to the insured.

There is without question a real and legitimate demand for endowment policies, but there is a no less real and a more important demand for "straight" life policies from those who can afford to pay only for protection, and to whom the protection is vital. This demand should receive the first consideration, while the other should not be neglected.

If the reform of the insurance law is to be anything more than a tinkering with the law, it must embody in legislation certain general principles. Of these one is most important: The man who desires protection for those dependent on him should be assured of procuring as much protection in return for his premium as is consistent with safety. Only secondary in importance is this principle: The man who wants an additional feature of investment in his policy should be assured of receiving as large a return upon his money as is consistent with safety. In order to produce these results the law should be so framed as to encourage honest, conservative, and economical management, insuring to the beneficiary and the policy-holder all the profits of the business beyond a fair and adequate compensation to officers, a reasonable return on their investment to stockholders, and an ample reserve.

The Situation Abroad

The anarchy which prevails in Russia, and the uncertainty of the outcome of events in the near future in that empire, have given rise throughout Europe to a general feeling of uneasiness. The equilibrium of the Powers has been destroyed, a realignment has not been thoroughly effected, and the various governments, like steamers in a fog, are feeling their way with a good deal of solicitude. There is, however, no probability of any widespread disturbance; the very conditions which have created a feeling of uncertainty tend to the keeping of the peace of the world. The death of the

Emperor Francis Joseph may at any moment precipitate a crisis in southwestern Europe, the outcome of which no man can foresee; but that menace has hung over the general situation for a long time past and is a danger to which Europe has become accustomed. Conditions have changed, it is true, during the past two years; for Hungary has assumed a much more definitely antagonistic position towards Austria, and the personal popularity of the Emperor has yielded somewhat to the rising tide of racial feeling. New conditions are likely to be produced also by the establishment of universal suffrage, which, while it is likely to diminish the power of the Magyars in Hungary, will certainly diminish that of the Germans in Austria, and anything which diminishes the power of the German element will turn that element more and more toward Berlin, and give a fresh impulse to Pan-Germanism.

Further occasion for alarm is the fact that Germany and France are not yet in full accord in regard to the situation in Morocco, and that, until the conference of the Powers which is to be held next week, uncertainty will exist. It is reported that the French are reinforcing their army along the northern frontier, and that Germany has met this indication of preparation for possible disturbance by an immense enlargement of the facilities for the transportation of troops towards the French frontier. Whatever mistake may have been made by M. Delcassé during the early stages of this misunderstanding has been more than made up by the tact and firmness of M. Rouvier. who has directed the policy of France towards Germany so far in a conciliatory spirit, but without the slightest sacrifice of dignity. The provocation of the French to lose their temper was apparently so definite that when the full story was laid before the Chamber of Deputies last week the party for peace at all hazards was overwhelmingly outvoted, all parties practically uniting in support of the Government policy.

It is said that King Edward VII., who has made himself one of the foremost personalities in Europe, is using all his tact and personal influence to persuade the German Emperor to take a moderate

course. France wants an open door in Morocco for all commerce and the policing of the country under French control. Germany, on the other hand, will take the position that this control ought to be international in its character. The United States will be represented at the conference by Mr. Henry White, Ambassador to Italy, and Mr. Gummere, the American Minister in Algiers. fact that an American fleet is to be in the neighborhood at the time of the meeting at Algeciras has been made the basis of some sensational reports, to which no kind of importance is to be attached. The plan which takes the fleet into the Bay of Gibraltar next week was made long before the conference was arranged to be held at that point. Our Government will keep clear of any possible complication in the matter, and will use all its influence to secure a pacific adjustment of differences.

It must be said, on the other hand, that the German Emperor, although somewhat aggressive in his tone, has for more than twenty years falsified every prediction of warlike intentions or a bellicose policy. In the present isolation of Germany it is not surprising that when he found himself left out of an arrangement which affected in a way German interests, he frankly declared that Germany must be consulted when international questions are at issue. That the Emperor is a statesman was demonstrated long ago, and his foresight has been justified by the events. As has often been pointed out in The Outlook, he saw when he ascended the throne that Germany could maintain her position only by an enormous increase of her financial resources, and he set to work to secure that increase with a precision, thoroughness, and mastery of detail which stamped him as a man of very great ability. There is every reason to believe that the statement he has so often made, that the German Empire needs and desires peace, is sincere. The desire for peace is universal, in spite of an occasional note of arrogance on the part of certain sections of German society; the need of peace is So far as can be foreseen, a evident. great war at this juncture would find Germany in an extremely perilous position, would very seriously interrupt her development, and might jeopardize the integrity of her colonial interests. The Emperor has everything to lose and very little to gain by war with France or with England.

The accession of the Liberals to power in England involves no change in the foreign policy of that country, the keynote of which is a close alliance with Japan, a very cordial understanding with France, and the best possible relations with the United States. This is a broadminded and far-seeing policy which makes for the peace of the world, and the Liberals have pledged themselves to its continuance. This is not only politic, but strictly in accordance with Liberal traditions. It would be a great step in advance if the relations of Germany and England could be put on a more friendly footing. The root of the unpopularity of the English in Germany and the dislike of the Germans by the English is very largely the sharp commercial competition which exists between the two countries, and business interests are quite as prominent in the politics of Europe as in those of the United The modern world is rapidly becoming a great open field for international commerce, and nations which are in the most acute stages of commercial rivalry must learn to live together in amity and good will as the United States and England are now living, although both are competitors in many of the same branches of trade. A good understanding between Germany and and Germany and France England would establish the peace of the world on a secure foundation. France's interest now centers in the election of a successor to President Loubet, whose term will expire on the eighteenth day of the present month, and who has positively refused re-election. His successor will be chosen at a joint session of the Senate and the Chamber of Deputies to be held at Versailles. Four candidates are being urged by different groups: M. Doumer, who is one of the most influential Deputies and who gained wide reputation as Governor-General of Tonquin; M. Fallières, the President of the Senate, who has behind him apparently the

dominating forces in the Chamber of Deputies; M. Rouvier, who is not likely to receive a large vote on the first ballot, but who would be an extremely promising candidate, with ex-Premiers Brisson and Bourgeois in the background, supported by Radical and Socialistic votes. A change in the Presidency will not involve any change in the general conduct of affairs in France, though the good sense and moderate temper of President Loubet have undoubtedly been important factors in the history of the country during the past seven years. More important, so far as any change of policy is concerned, will be the general election for members of the Chamber of Deputies to be held in the spring, when the verdict of the people on the abolition of the Concordat will be pronounced. The modified law, which provides that existing bishops and priests of the Church shall continue in the pay of the State, has taken the sting out of a measure which might otherwise have produced a sharp reaction. It is the conviction, however, of well-informed observers that the legislation which has dissolved a century-old partnership between Church and State has the support of a great majority of the French people.

There are possibilities of danger in the situation of affairs in Europe, but nothing to justify the alarmists who are always quick to predict a war involving all the Great Powers; every nation in Europe needs peace, knows that it needs peace, dreads the appalling expense of war, and shrinks from the radical internal changes which might follow even a successful war.

The Doom of Political Autocracy

There comes an hour in the movement of events when causes which have long been unobtrusively and sometimes without observation undermining decayed systems suddenly bring those systems down with a crash. Every bad system contains in itself the seeds of a reaction which it sooner or later sets in motion; tyranny in all forms breeds rebellion against itself, and though the

day of fate is sometimes long postponed, it inevitably arrives. It has arrived in Russia for a blind and stupid autocracy, deaf to innumerable voices of warning spoken for years past, and to signs of the times which all the races of the world have read; and it has come in America to the blinded and stupid bosses of political machines whom the gods have made mad in order that they may be destroyed. When a political boss is in possession of a State, a county, or a district, his power seems unshakable to the superficial observer, and the boss comes to hold the opinion that it is unshakable. As a matter of fact, any tide of public indignation may sweep away the foundations of his authority in a single day. This has happened again and again in the history of the country; for a party machine created by a boss is always and everywhere, under free governments, an artificial and temporary thing put up over night like a scaffolding for a procession, and taken down in an hour when it has served its time. have been times in the last twenty years when it has seemed as if any rebellion against the boss in any State were practically hopeless, as it has seemed in Russia, from the time of Tourguéness to the beginning of the present movement for liberation, that the autocracy could not be destroyed.

The strength of the boss in this country has been the negligence, indifference, and criminal neglect of the voting population. When the voters were aroused the boss has gone. is what has happened in many parts of the United States to-day, much as revolts are breaking out in many parts of Russia. These outbreaks may be quelled for the moment by a show of arms, but they are the forerunners of a revolution which will be like an avalanche. The day of boss rule and machine politics in America is rapidly drawing to a close. It has been the most dishonorable and uninteresting episode in our political history, to be explained, doubtless, by the historians of the future as an abdication of political functions brought about by too great absorption with personal interests. Individual opportunity in this country during the past quarter of a century has been so alluring and so unprecedented in the magnitude of the material prizes which it has offered that men have forgotten their duty to the State, and, because of what Mr. Kidd once characterized in the columns of The Outlook as "lack of civic self-sacrifice," the government of a good many States has gone into commission and has been carried on under irresponsible rulers.

The boss and machine systems are doomed, for three reasons:

They involve the denial of the right of self-government, the abandonment of political responsibilities, the surrender of public liberties. In half a dozen States, conspicuously in New York, Pennsylvania, Delaware, and Missouri, there has been no truly free government for many years past. New York has been ruled by a Hill, a Platt, an Odell, or a Murphy, with as complete indifference to public interests, popular convictions, and the desires of the voters of the State as if these irresponsible rulers held their places by divine right or by military authority. The people of New York have allowed their policies to be determined by a group of men who were sometimes not even in public life, held no official positions, were paid no salaries, clothed by no authority, elected by no exercise of the suffrage. Measures of the highest importance have been decided upon in secret conclave, pushed through the Legislature practically without discussion, under instructions to legislators who have been mere puppets responding to the strings that were pulled from behind. The business of the State has been transacted out of sight, on the back stairs, in whisperinggalleries; and the people of the State have been led like sheep, and like sheep they have paid the penalty. Greater enemies this country has never had than men like Platt, Odell, Addicks, and Ouay, who have transformed free governments into autocracies, annulled the fundamental charters of the country, and made popular government an object of satire, if not of derision, throughout the world.

The boss and machine system in politics is inevitably corrupt, Affairs

of state involving vast interests, dealing often directly with great investments and business opportunities, cannot be managed honestly unless they are managed in the open, where every one can see what is done, and unless they are settled by public discussion in which every voice can be heard and the public can understand what motives are prevailing. impressive vote given to Mr. Bryan nine years ago, like that given in New York City to Mr. Hearst two months ago, was not a vote indorsing the principles of the candidate; it was a protest against ring politics and the corruption that inevitably attends them. will of the people in different States has been thwarted for years, and the men who have organized the machinery which has annulled popular government have had corrupt dealings with organized capital and brought about an unholy combination of business and politics which has left the interests of the people of the country out of account. The perception of this fundamental treason against free institutions and popular rights is becoming more and more clear, and there have been increasing evidences of an impending revolution. When Senator Platt testified before the investigating committee in New York City a few weeks ago that he had been in the habit of receiving \$10,000 a year from the New York Life Insurance Company, he did not seem to be aware of the moral significance of that admission, for a curious blindness has fallen on the political bosses, as it has fallen on many life insurance officials. They have been overtaken by an avalanche without suspecting that they were in any danger, and many of them are still of the opinion that the wreck of their reputations is the result of a passing fury which will soon vent These gentlemen are mistaken. Some of them may survive and reconstruct and direct their shattered machines for a little while longer, but their era and the era of their kind of politics is fast drawing to a close. They are just as much violators of trusts, and have shown as complete an indifference to the interests committed to their hands, as the life insurance officials who have been driven by public indignation from their places. Every public man holds his place as a trustee on behalf of the people, and these bosses have treated their places, their authority, and their opportunities as if they were private property.

The boss and the machine have taken the very life out of our politics for twenty years. In that time everything that has been vital and interesting has been associated with the men who have fought against them; the real interest in American politics in that time has centered in men like ex-President Cleveland and Theodore Roosevelt, who have stood for the free movement of ideas in public life and for the administration of public office as a public trust and for the square deal. In a State in which it is impossible for a young man to go to the front in public affairs unless he bows the knee to a boss there cannot be any real public life, for no man of integrity and ability will accept that kind of servitude. bosses have substituted for the personal element, for the brains and daring of the statesman, the monotonous grinding of the machine. That our politics has had any interest during the last twenty years has been due to the fact that there have been great questions which the bosses could not postpone, and men whom they could not down.

The American people are now demanding three very simple things, and they will secure them: Free government—that is to say, the management of public affairs by the people; honest government—that is to say, the settlement of public questions and the carrying on of the public business in the interests of the people; an open field and a square deal—that is to say, the opportunity for all men to go to the front in public affairs without bowing the knee to bosses or compromising with machines. In a democracy there must be leaders, parties, and party organizations. But a party organization is not a machine, nor is a leader a boss. We are not looking for perfection; we are asking for a chance to breathe freely as a Nation, to get men in public life who will have some of the instincts of the statesman, and to be able to hold our heads up as Americans when we face the rest of the world.

PRESIDENT JOHNSON AND NEGRO SUFFRAGE

BY JAMES SCHOULER

Author of " A History of the United States under the Constitution," etc., etc.

ISTORIANS of the reconstruction period should make careful study of the voluminous manuscripts and papers left by President Andrew Johnson, which have lately been added to the collections of the Library of Congress, and throw a flood of light over the course of his forceful but unfortunate administration.

Except for a few important drafts or copies of his own letters, newspaper reports of his various speeches with verbal changes or corrections which he made in his own hand, and a few notable briefs or memoranda in connection with the impeachment trial, we find little here from the President himself. Johnson's private letter-books have been otherwise disposed of, and the collection now owned by the Nation consists mainly of the letters, pamphlets, and documents which came to him from all parts of the land, private and unofficial, seeking to influence his Presidential policy and expressive of sympathy or dissent regarding the momentous measures and aims of his administration. Here opinions of the people and of our leading men may be found freely expressed towards their Chief Magistrate. Resolutions of various public bodies are exhibited, from State legislatures and social or religious conventions down to ward political clubs, some of them handsomely engrossed on parchment or costly paper and adorned with ribbons. Besides important letters from public men we find pamphlets, prospectuses, newspaper cuttings, and the effusions of amateur poets and philosophers.

All such correspondence, however miscellaneous, indicates clearly the cross-currents of opinion which reached the White House daily, and it faithfully duplicates that other pressure of oral interview and conversation, contemporaneous in character and diversity of

belief, to which every ruler of our Republic must cheerfully yield his personal attention. The indications are many that President Johnson carefully considered the weightier matters of advice here tendered him, while it is certain that he submitted all to the test of his own independent judgment and did not follow the lead of any one. Whether in framing the great measures of National policy or in making National appointments, deliberation and an honest though sometimes mistaken purpose to do right are manifest on his part.

For the first few months following the terrible tragedy of April, 1865, which placed him at the head of affairs for closing hostilities, instituting schemes of reconstruction, and restoring peace to the whole country, President Johnson, aided by the Cabinet advisers who had served under Lincoln, proceeded with discretion and success, gaining strong popular support at the North. South was powerfully impressed by the magnanimity of his policy extended towards its people, and many of the late leaders sought sincerely to aid his efforts for a permanent reconciliation. But the crucial and fundamental difficulty was to determine and fix positively the status of the Southern negroes, newly freed and needing hostages from the Nation or their former masters for a new career. Upon this point Southern people of the white and ruling race had nothing to offer. 'And it was ominous that three and one-half millions of people, lately enslaved, had in that whole region of the late Confederacy no initiative of their own to take, nor even competent brethren of their race in the North to make plea or demand for their civil and political rights. Their only powerful friends were humanitarians who dwelt in free States far distant, or new white immigrants equally remote in local favor, too

many of whom hoped to manipulate an ignorant vote eventually for their own selfish and corrupt advancement. The Southern situation, as the senior Blair described it in one of his letters to the President, was that of a black nation inside of a white one.

This whole stupendous problem our white brethren who now came back to the National fold, laying down their arms and meaning to accept the actual results of the Civil War-which included the bona-fide extinction of slavery as an institution-had hoped to regulate after their own methods. Legislatures of the reconstructed States were not slow in taking up such matters of a new era as equal negro trials, equal negro testimony, the legitimatizing of slave marriages and slave offspring, and even to some extent the subject of equal civil rights. But to enfranchising, at once or presently, the colored inhabitants lately held in bondage, and admitting locally the principle of equal suffrage, regardless of race or color, white Southerners were to a man opposed, nor could the ablest arguments nor the most persuasive influence from Northern fellow-citizens convince them to the contrary.

President Johnson's personal views on this latter question, as well as the position which he desired to take as Chief Executive of the whole Nation, deserve the reader's attention. Those views he announced carefully and deliberately, under circumstances entitling them to the fullest credence, and while in the immediate exercise of his lawful powers as Chief Executive during the interval of Congress. It appears that in Massachusetts at this time, while all Republicans upheld negro civil rights and felt inclined to give an equal ballot to those emancipated, there was difference of opinion on other points. The dominant wing, under Senators Sumner and Wilson, were for imposing harsh conditions upon the vanquished foe; while a large and respectable portion inclined rather to the views of Governor Andrew, who favored a liberal amnesty and urged that State reconstruction be left to the South's natural leaders. The latter set tried to persuade President Johnson to attend Harvard's Commencement in the summer

of 1865. This effort failing, an address, drawn up by Professor Parsons, of the Harvard Law School, and signed by some 250 solid and influential citizens of Boston and vicinity, was sent to the White House. It applauded the President's general purpose, but claimed: (1) That all constitutions drawn up by those States lately in rebellion must be submitted to Congress when it met; (2) that equal negro suffrage seemed just in itself, while it certainly would be unjust to the Union to give two-fifths representation otherwise to the master race, over the three-fifths which the Constitution had conceded before slavery was abolished. Mr. George L. Stearns, a Massachusetts man of high personal standing, who seems to have had some earlier acquaintance with the President, visited Washington and the White House about October first, as the spokesman of these petitioners. He was most kindly received. President Johnson gave him a long and frank interview, and he made so favorable an impression by what he said that Mr. Stearns, upon his return home, reduced the substance of their conversation to writing, had it printed privately, and sent a proof-sheet to the President for the latter's revision, expressing his confident belief that the circulation of so authentic a statement of the President's views would do good Johnson willingly in Massachusetts. complied, and, with some verbal corrections, certified to the proof-sheet as substantially correct.1

"The States," said the President in the course of this reported interview, "are in the Union, which is one and indivisible. We must not be in too great a hurry with our reforms; it is better to let our Southern brethren reconstruct themselves in their several States than force them." He wished to give the South time to understand its new position, with slavery abolished. As to our political adversaries, "the old Democratic party finds its old position untenable and has come to us;" we ought not to consider ourselves worse off by that.

¹ Mr. Stearns's later correspondence shows that the friends he represented still adhered to negro suffrage; but President Johnson carefully preserved the correspondence and his own printed slip, as establishing his own views on that subject.

"Our United States government is a grand and lofty structure, which rests on the broad basis of popular rights. elective franchise is not a natural right, but a political one. I am not disposed on that point to interfere with the people of a State; if the people there go wrong, we have the army, and can control by legislation too. But the general government has no right to control the right of voting in the States. My position here is different from what it would be were I in Tennessee. There I would try to introduce negro suffrage gradually: (1) to those who had served in the army; (2) to those who could read and write; and perhaps (3), with a qualification, to others—say, \$200 or \$250. It will not do to let the negroes have universal suffrage now; it would breed a war of races." He further stated his disposition to have the apportionment basis for Representatives in Congress changed from that of population to that of qualified voters, North as well as South. If that were done, the States, in due course of time, without regard to color, might agree to extend the elective franchise to all who possessed certain mental, moral, or such other qualifications as might be determined by an enlightened public judgment.1

These were wise and honest words, whether comprehensive of the whole immediate issue or not. And it should be said that Andrew Johnson, in spite of all defects of temperament or character, was, among public men of his own section in that day, justly remarkable.

President Johnson received various letters from Southern statesmen in those months, expressed on the same point with frank but deferential counsel. Thus, Memminger, of South Carolina, lately Secretary of the Treasury under the Confederate Government, took the liberty of writing, September 4, "though under the ban," at considerable length. "The whole Southern country," was the purport of his letter, "accepts emancipation from slavery as the condition of the colored race, but neither the North nor the South has yet defined what is included in that emancipation. The boundaries are wide apart which mark

Stearns's printed proof: Johnson MSS.

political equality with the whites, on the one hand, and a simple recognition of personal liberty on the other." And he proceeded to argue, temperately, that there could not properly yet be negro suffrage, since the necessity was paramount of "training the inferior race." And this training, as well as the discipline and government, he submitted, belonged properly to each State.

But, regardless of practical methods for compelling Southern obedience short of military violence pushed to an extreme —for the task must be stupendous where external conviction seeks to mold local institutions elsewhere to suit itself-a tide of sentiment which mingled natural rights, in sense, with those political, gained at the North great headway. "The ballot itself will be a protection to those who exercise it, a means of education;" "they who handle a musket can surely handle a ticket;" "the negro vote of the South will be cast for loyalty to the Union and to the party which preserved the Union, and hence serve as a lasting national safeguard;"—such was the tenor of abstract argument to which Northern sentiment yielded. "The great doctrine of equal rights will prevail," wrote Medill, of the Chicago "Tribune," to President Johnson in September, 1865, warning him not to Tylerize his party nor go back on those who had elected him. "The civil war has emancipated the North from their vassalage to the Southern oligarchy, as well as the bodies of their slaves." All such communications received at the White House were carefully filed and considered. piece of advice, September 20, though from a personal stranger, unknown to fame, contained a passage so impressive that it was marked, probably by Johnson himself, with a pencil: "Your motives are good, but do not let the experiment go too far, so that in case of need we cannot retrace our steps."

Foremost among those in exalted station who cherished the ideal of a political reconstruction at the South upon the broad basis of equality of races, regardless of complexion or former social condition, was Chief Justice Chase. So eager was he to be in his own person the great arbiter of the two sections,

under such a policy, that even, as it would seem, while President Lincoln was alive, he impressed upon the destined successor his own ideas of "universal suffrage and quick reorganization." Early in May, while Johnson was deliberating upon a policy, he drafted in his own hand and sent to him an address with an earnest letter entreating the new President to copy, sign, and promulgate such a manifesto to the Southern people. This document was vigorous in expression and had even the glow of eloquence. It took ground that the Southern States sustain their just relation as such, notwithstanding an impotent secession. It called upon all loyal citizens throughout the late insurrectionary region to restore harmonious relations with the Union as speedily as possible; but to add the negro race, which had done so well and deserved so much at their hands, in their enrollment. They who had disorganized by rebellion had disqualified themselves for the work of restoration; and all reorganization should be by enrollment. A State convention should be summoned in each jurisdiction for a new constitution or constitutional amendment, expressive of new National conditions; there should be no more slavery, no subjugation. In his accompanying letter Chase besought the President to issue such an address as this and to lead on in the grand work. "Say to the people of the South, 'Organize your State governments and I will aid you in the work." Such an appeal, he felt confident, would quickly bring reconstruction throughout the South and Union gatherings in full response. As Chief Justice Chase was about to make a tour through the South, with this great purpose in view, visiting Wilmington, Charleston, and other points as far as Florida, he would be glad to hear from the President while absent. This journey he made. in fact, receiving various banquets and ovations on the way. In letters to the White House while on his route he described at length the state of Southern feeling as he marked it on his progress; but the Executive adoption failed him, and this correspondence subsided.

Charles Sumner, in a letter from Bos-

ton dated June 30, 1865, transmitted to the President the petition of three hundred "colored citizens of Georgia" (as he styled them), who prayed to be allowed to exercise the right of suffrage in the reconstruction of that State. And in aid of their petition, which he forwarded at their request, he made warm appeal to the Executive that they should not be shut out from exercising the right. Of this petition (still preserved among the President's papers), which consisted of various detached sheets, whose caption bore the imprint of the Savannah "Republican," it is noticeable that no signature was made by mark, and that while the handwriting of many of these petitioners bore obviously their own names rudely formed, the signatures of many others were in one trained hand, which either copied them out or wrote originally as by proxy. No other petition purporting to come from Southern negroes appears to have reached the President.

Sumner himself, and all others who sought to influence President Johnson's policy, admitted the latter's Constitutional discretion during the seven months and more which should precede the assembling and organizing of a new Congress. No one seems even to have suggested that the accidental Chief Magistrate should practice self-abnegation by calling an extra session in advance of the session regularly designated for Decem-Thaddeus Stevens, alone of correspondents, is seen advising the new President (and that in no respectful or conciliating tone) to waive his rightful initiative in reconstruction and wait until Congress should in course convene. From Pennsylvania he frankly expressed, by the middle of May, his personal disbelief in this Executive remodeling of States, and thought it better that the President should wait for Congress and leave reconstruction to that body. with more acrimony and peremptoriness, he warned President Johnson, July 6, that the restoration policy which the latter had now entered upon would "destroy the party and injure the country;" and again did he advise that the whole policy be left to Congress and until it convened, the Executive meanwhile

ruling the South by military officers. "No one of the Northern leaders," he wrote, "approves of your policy."

But the inevitable dissension between Northern party supporters of the Administration had been forecast while Lincoln was yet alive, and Johnson's stand and influence were for a conservative treatment and moderate terms of reunion. As though to trust him generously in the new emergency, ex-Vice-President Hamlin, Governor Morton, of Indiana, Generals Dix and Thomas, Elihu B. Wash-

burn and Lyman Trumbull, of Illinois, Reverdy Johnson of Maryland, Governor Curtin and Senator Cameron, of Pennsylvania, and Gratz Brown, of Missouri, were all prompt in assuring President Johnson of their sympathy and support. Zealously constant were Senators Dixon and Doolittle. Francis Lieber, the publicist, sent a pamphlet with friendly words of encouragement; while George Bancroft, now in scholarly retreat at New York, gave his approving counsel in various letters preserved with the rest.

GEORGIA AND THE CHAIN-GANG

BY GEORGE HERBERT CLARKE

HORTLY before midnight of Saturday, March 12, 1904, one Henry Jamison, a negro resident of the city of Macon, Georgia, was arrested on the streets while drunk and disorderly, and arraigned on that charge at the Monday session of the Recorder's Court. The additional charge was lodged against him of disorderly conduct in the city barracks. After a hearing he was sentenced, in the one case, to pay a fine of twenty-five dollars or be committed to the county chain-gang for ninety days, and in the other to pay a fine of thirty-five dollars or to work on the chain-gang for one hundred and twenty days. Jamison accepted the latter alternative in each instance, and was taken out to the gang before noon of Monday. On the 17th day of the same month he petitioned the United States Court of the Southern District of Georgia for the issuance of a writ of habeas corpus, which was duly granted. lengthy hearing before the United States Judge, the Hon. Emory Speer, resulted in the discharge of Jamison, on the ground that he had been deprived of his liberty and subjected to infamous punishment, without due process of law, contrary to the Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution of the United States, which declares that "no State shall make or enforce any law which shall

abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States; nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law, nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws." The city of Macon, through its attorney, the Hon. Minter Wimberly, appealed this decision to the Supreme Court of the United States, which denied Judge Speer's jurisdiction in the following mandate, handed down October 16: "Per curiam. Final order reversed. Cause remanded with a direction to quash the writ and dismiss the petition." The Court's action was based on the contention that Jamison's means of redress lay, in the first instance, in the State courts, not the Federal. Upon the official receipt of the mandate, therefore, by the United States District Court,

¹ The case has moved with some rapidity since the writing of this article. Jamison was rearrested November 25, before Judge Speer had made the mandate the direction of his own court. As a result, City Attorney Wimberly, Chief of Police Connor, and Superintendent Wimbish were cited to appear before the United States Court January 2, to show cause why they should not be punished for contempt of court. On November 28 Judge W. H. Felton, of the Bibb County Superior Court, declined to discharge Jamison from custody on a writ of habeas corpus. An appeal was immediately taken to the Supreme Court of the State, and meantime, on December 2, Judge Speer granted an order temporarily releasing Jamison from the chain-gang on a new writ of habeas corpus, holding (1) that his means of obtaining reasonably early redress in the State courts were now exhausted, and (2) that his rearrest had been illegal. The Supreme Court of Georgia, on December 19, declined to hear Jamison's case argued until after his return to the gang, and finally, after two days' hearing, reserved its decision.

Jamison must shortly be returned to the chain-gang.

It is plain that this is not a merely individual case, nor even a State or sectional one, but a National issue of real importance, the crucial questions being these: Is "due process of law" an elastic phrase, construable in widely varying and mutually inconsistent ways by differing States, or is it to be interpreted as requiring a reasonable uniformity? If the latter, shall any court, in any State, be permitted to sentence a petty offender, without indictment or trial by jury, to "infamous punishment"—that is, one commensurate only with crime, not with misdemeanor? And if it persists in doing so, shall not the writ of habeas corpus invariably apply?

Jamison's counsel, Messrs. Akerman and Akerman, have thrown these questions once again into the scales of justice by suing out a writ of habeas corpus before Judge W. H. Felton, of the Superior Court of Bibb County, in the case of another negro, Rufus Pierson, who was tried summarily in the Recorder's Court on October 28 of last year for drunkenness and disorderly conduct, and sentenced to six months on the chaingang without the option of a fine. On November 3 the case was argued at length before Judge Felton, who remanded the negro to the custody of Mr. E. A. Wimbish, superintendent of the chain-Pierson's counsel have thereupon appealed on a writ of error to the Supreme Court of the State of Georgia,1 and will, if necessary, so I am informed, carry the case to the Federal Supreme Courts that a final decision may be reached on the merits of the question involved.

For several years past public attention has been repeatedly directed to the penal system of the State of Georgia, and of late months the cases cited above have made this interest acute. Penology is a various question, in point of both motive and method, and this paper cannot assume to handle the question in itself. Punitive law may be a panacea, or a desirable habit of action, or an unescapable responsibility that all regret.

"Look here, sir," says Mrs. Deland's Doctor Lavendar, "this business of the law is all very well, and necessary, I suppose, in its way, but let me tell you it's a dangerous business. You see so much of the sin of human nature that you get to thinking that human nature has got to sin. You are mistaken, sir; it has got to be decent. We are the children of God, sir." Strongly stated though this truth may be, and surely as it wins our response, yet no thoughtful citizen fails to recognize the dignity and power of the idea of law and the unreason of many old and current protests. While one does not care, for example, to contradict Bernard Shaw's epigram that "imprisonment is as irrevocable as death," yet it may be pointed out that the physical conquest of death is perhaps no more conceivable than the abolition of crime. And while it may be true that "the most anxious man in a prison is the governor," it is not less true that anxiety resting upon a sense of accountability is worth much more to society than defiance, bravado, or conscienceless indifference.

Whatever hopes may now be cherished of changes and modifications in prison management, it is plain that there has been since the days of John Howard and Elizabeth Fry—not further to extend the roll of honor-a steady improvement in the humaneness of the treatment accorded the captives of society. This is true in some measure of all countries vitally alive; it is true as affecting lunatic asylums and poorhouses, industrial homes and common jails, prisons and penitentiaries. The modern mind has been peculiarly alert to the countless words that have been written and uttered on this subject. Precisely for the reason, then, that the system long and still obtaining in the State of Georgia seems to the foreign observer in many respects an extraordinary anomaly, it has been the writer's purpose to inform himself at first hand of the facts, the results, and the probabilities.

Chain-gangs existed in Georgia for a long time prior to the passage of the Act of 1897 creating a State Prison Commission, and amended August 17, 1903; but this Act permits the hiring

¹ Pierson's case was heard before the Supreme Court of Georgia December 18, the decision being reserved.

out by the Commission to the several counties of the State of felony convicts for a period of five years, beginning April 1, 1904. Individuals, firms, and corporations are also permitted to enter bids for such convict labor, the minimum price considered being \$175 per annum for each convict. The prisoners bid on must be "short-term" men and women, i. e., those sentenced for not more than five years, and before allotment are formed into gangs or squads of not fewer than twenty-five nor more than fifty. The highest and "best" bid wins, and the law permits the same county or other bidder to secure the services of more than one squad. The non-bidding counties participate pro rata in the revenue accruing from such leasings, and these moneys are devoted to the maintenance of schools or public roads. The successful bidders are required to provide the convicts with transportation, food, medicine, clothing, and shelter, the State furnishing guards and physi-

By felony convicts the Georgia law means those who have been sentenced to a term in the penitentiary or to capital punishment. All other prisoners are known as misdemeanor convicts. counties are accustomed to work their misdemeanor convicts on the public roads in gangs more or less closely associated with the felony convicts, subject, however, to the supervision of the State Prison Commission. Not all of the 145 counties avail themselves of the opportunity the Act affords them of purchasing convict labor from the State, but twenty-nine do so, the chief being Fulton, Richmond, Floyd, Burke, and Bibb.

This last-named county, Bibb, is so clearly representative of the system that a brief but detailed study may profitably be made of the conditions it presents. Its chain-gang contains at the present writing a total of 123 convicts, divided as follows:

Felony Convicts Leased from the State.		Misdemeand Convicts.
White	2	6
Black		71
Total	46	77

The misdemeanor convicts are sentenced by the Superior Court, the City Court,

or the Recorder's Court of the city of Macon, the county seat. All three are "State courts." The first has power to try all civil and criminal cases within the jurisdiction of the county. The second has concurrent authority, save that it cannot hear felony cases, those involving titles to realty, divorce cases, cases of equitable relief, appeals from a justice court or an ordinary, or cases carried from the Recorder on a writ of certiorari. The third, or Recorder's Court, was constituted by the State Legislature in a charter granted the city of Macon in 1893, and has power "to try offenses against the laws and ordinances of the municipal government, and to punish for the violation of the same." The Recorder is given power to impose fines not to exceed five hundred dollars, and "to imprison offenders in the city barracks for the space of not more than sixty days or at labor on the public works in the county chain-gang for not more than six months."

The writer has attended sessions of all the courts named, and has observedas any spectator must at once observethat the great majority of petty and criminal cases tried are those of negroes. and that of these the majority, again, consist of offenses committed by negro against negro. Whether the dockets are swelled through personal spite, a desire for excitement, or a genuine love of justice, is, unfortunately, a question too easily answered by one familiar with the negro temperament. Certainly there is always to be found in a court-room during the progress of a trial a horde of negroes, many as witnesses, more as obviously entertained spectators. the Recorder's Court on Monday, November 20, I listened to the calling of fourteen cases, but two of which involved a white man either as offender or witness, apart from the arresting officers. Of these latter several were required to appear before the Grand Jury, then in session, so that a few cases were con-Only one man was sentenced to the chain-gang, receiving two months for drunkenness and disorderly conduct. This court tries some five thousand cases annually. Usually about thirty or thirty-five cases are tried on Monday

mornings, and of this number not more than five or six result in sentences to the chain-gang. The Recorder-Judge Custis Nottingham-informs me that such sentences are very rarely imposed for a first offense, and are scarcely ever incurred, save by incorrigible characters. It is interesting to notice, in passing, that even the poorest negroes show extraordinary ability to pay their fines, owing to the aid of loan-sharks and "societies," and that escape from actual easy, though the means be hard.

When a new recruit for the gang arrives, he is provided with two striped cotton suits in summer, woolen ones in winter, and such other clothing as may be necessary; iron manacles are riveted about his ankles and connected with chains two and a half feet long. manacles are not removed or removable save by the use of the anvil and cold chisel. The convict is then given a pick or shovel, and required to work on the public roads, in company with his fellows, every week-day from sunrise to sundown, the noon rest varying from one to two hours with the season. Guards stand by armed with rifles and shot-guns, to deter and if necessary to wound or kill escaping convicts; and at closer quarters walks the whipping boss, whose badge of office is a broad, thick strap over three feet long and tapering toward the end. This strap is not seldom employed several times daily, sometimes again not once in a month—on the average, according to the statement made me by Captain Oxley, the whipping boss, about six times a month. It is used on idlers and malingerers, and creates a sharp, burning sensation, though I am unable to learn of any instance in which it has wrought physical harm by drawing blood or depriving the punished person of consciousness. The law requires that not more than fifteen lashes shall be administered on any one occasion. As a rule, fewer are given.

Though the felony convicts and the persons sentenced by the Recorder wear the same stripes and are cumbered with the same shackles, they have not of late been worked indiscriminately in one gang, but are at present—

in Bibb County at least—kept distinct and separate, one group seldom seeing the other. This is true even of the sleeping arrangements; the camps are a considerable distance apart, though the accommodations do not differ. These include a rough bunk, with straw mattress and blankets. Neither clothes nor fetters are removed upon retiring, while, to make assurance doubly sure, a long chain is attached to each sleeper in turn, and fastened to opposite sides of the service on the chain-gang is therefore stockade. The women's quarters are somewhat more luxurious; they wear no fetters, and their control is less rigid. Their duties consist chiefly in the domestic occupations of cooking, washing, sewing, etc., and they are not usually permitted to leave the camp. The use of the pick, however, is not entirely unknown to them.

Whipping in the comparative seclusion of the camp appears to be a more serious affair than on the highway. the latter case, save in peculiarly refractory instances, no preparations are made and the punishment is soon over; but "at home" the convict is sometimes obliged to prostrate himself across an inclined support and receive several blows upon his bare flesh. If he refuses or resists, he is held in position by one or two of his mates. I am assured by guards and others that these whippings, though deliberate and at times somewhat prolonged, are in no wise harmful. Perhaps not; but while it is nowhere asserted that such punishments are inflicted for other than regulative, disciplinary purposes, it may be observed that even for *crime* the Constitution of Georgia forbids the use of whipping as a means of punishment.

Of the social life of the convicts—that is, of the negroes, who outnumber the white prisoners by about fifteen to one a word may well be spoken. I have talked with black-skinned men both on and off the chain-gang, and find it their general opinion that the life is not unhappy. I have often passed the gang on the public roads, hearing their drawling songs break out and seeing their picks descend in unison, with something of the same musical jerkiness of the grave-digger's performance in "Hamlet."

There is ample opportunity for talking and laughing together, at meals and after working hours, and even for smoking and card-playing. Those convicts who use tobacco are liberally supplied with it, and all are furnished an abundance of plain, wholesome food, such as corn bread, wheat bread, meat, vegetables, molasses, coffee, etc. To watch a hillside dotted with these incongruous figures during the dinner hour is to become more and more aware of their light-heartedness, their healthy poise, their almost total insensibility to shame or degradation, their childish recklessness of speech, their camaraderie, and, in some cases, their genuine attachment to their guards. I have seen discontented-looking free negroes on railway lines, on plantations, and in the kaolin mines, working no less hard but with apparently much less zest than their brothers on the chain-gang. Cases, indeed, are not rare of deliberately planned returns to the gang, after the novelty of liberty has worn away and its responsibilities have begun to pall. Whether the existence of this complacent frame of mind is not a graver menace to both white and black than extremely harsh and severe treatment could possibly become is a question I sometimes ask myself. Certainly the average negro's mind is not yet to him a kingdom, nor is it likely soon to become so. In the evasion of responsibility he is a pastmaster. Relieved of all doubt concerning his maintenance as a convict; assured that he will find and make many friends on the gang, and that upon the expiration of his sentence, which may be shortened by good behavior, he will be sent home newly clothed, and welcomed by his kith and kin as a hero back from the wars, if but on furlough; and even childishly proud of his public conspicuousness and of the very interesting episodes that he may see and share in as a member of this perpetual road-mending club: he learns to look upon the chain-gang with something of institutional loyalty, and to preserve inviolate its unwritten traditions. It is not so with the whites, who prefer and are permitted to work, eat, and sleep apart, and whose faces as a rule look conscious and sorrowful enough.

But why—the reader is asking—why cannot Georgia get along with a system less anachronistic and indefensible? Are stripes good for petty offenders? Are shackles necessary? Are armed guards desirable? Are these vigorous whippings in harmony with the modern spirit? We don't flog men nowadays in our penitentiaries or on board our warships. We don't know that quick recourse to the rough-and-tumble argument is a sure sign of gentlemanhood. dislike any exhibition whatever of physical violence for violence' sake, and particularly when we see that the relation is one, not of equal antagonists, but of painer and pained. We may tolerate and even defend the infliction of death as the penalty with which the law must visit some crimes, but even then we desire and urge that the death be quick and certain. Whipping does not seem to us a sure deterrent; it can hardly be called a manly art, nor a rational method; it is in its essence akin to the bite of the brute. Must men "reel back into the beast"? How many of your captives are, in any respect, improved or reclaimed? Why are they taught neither profitable trades nor individual self-respect? And why, too, must they be forced not only to wear the uniform of shame and to knit their brows under the stinging blow, but also to work day after day in the open, before the public gaze—a gaze indifferent, curious, or even contemptuous or hostile? There is, it would seem, something "Siberian" about this whole business.

The Georgians, like most Southerners, are kindly, hospitable, generous people, Anglo-Saxons of the old stock, conservative of their traditions, loyal in social and business relations, lovers of fair play, honorable men and women. Personally, after several years' association with them, I have come to regard their character as almost passionately idealistic. But it is doing them no discredit to say that they, again like most Southerners, have a "blind spot" that often prevents clear vision of the negro and the negro problem. For this whole matter is, as many of their best citizens freely admit, a by-product, a side issue of that eternal question, and the chain-

gang may fairly be described as Georgia's answer to the question's criminal side. I do not wish to be understood as positing more intelligence and sympathy in this regard of other sections, or, for that matter, of other countries. None of us has perfect sight, and perhaps no other people try so hard as do our Southern friends to see well and so to act well. But it is a very delicate and difficult thing for men and women with the traditions of slavery in their family heritage, and with the necessity forced upon them of practical contact with these black millions every day of their lives—the children with their nurses, the employers with their laborers, the mistresses with their cooks and butlers, the merchants with their customers, patrons with dependents, never, in the fine meaning, friends with friends—it is a very delicate and difficult thing for these white masters of the situation to understand and compassionate the peasantry—nay, the serfs -that dwell about them through a lifetime. Now, the average Southerner of station does not admit or believe this. He feels that his good-natured generosity and even at times his easy familiarity towards a tried negro retainer is proof sufficient of his understanding and sympathy. But is it? To me one of the most appalling considerations of this entire situation is, not the unwillingness, but the sheer inability, of whites and blacks to understand each other. "Between us and you there is a great gulf fixed, that they that would pass from hence to you may not be able, and that none may cross over from thence to us."

Rightly enough, the South feels that the negro population is virtually supported by the whites, and that, entirely apart from the question of color, the black man shows many racial characteristics that require to be met with firmness, directness, and even severity. In an economic sense, the negro and the South may be likened to the old man of the sea fixed unshakably upon Sindbad's back-with this difference, that the modern Sindbad is not seeking very hard to rid himself of his burden. It is true that John Temple Graves, a well-known Southern publicist, has lately advocated deportation, but the idea receives no

serious consideration, first, because it is generally deemed impossible; second, because the South is growing stronger and richer, in part despite of, in part by virtue of, her very burden. If he is a parasite, yet he may be made to serve a useful purpose. His labor is cheap, and, in the cotton-fields at least, peculiarly unreplaceable. It is, in a sense, true that the South does not want the negro, but it is also true that she does want and is determined to keep him. She wants his labor but not his vote, his presence but not his society. She looks upon him as not merely a black but an unwhite man, incompetent to become white in either body or mind, whose place in the evolutionary scheme is many stages behind that of his superiors, and whose status involves and requires, therefore, a constant social discrimination that has come to be almost an obsession by this time upon whites and blacks alike.

Accordingly, the questions our reader has been asking himself and us may be answered by others on the part of the Georgian. Can'we afford, in any sense, to maintain a large criminal population in which negroes preponderate greatly in the comparative comfort and idleness of prison and penitentiary life? Would not that criminal population increase with alarming rapidity? How are we to handle the vicious negro so as not to punish him merely, but to make him pay us a just indemnity for his crime, to make him feel our strong disapproval of his ways, to frighten him—for we cannot reach him otherwise—out of his evil habits into decency and decorum? To confine him—for he has no real vitality is to doom him to disease and death. To reform his character is an almost hopeless task. We do not say that we have discovered the ideal method even for our own local situation, but we do declare that the chain-gang system is the best means we have yet been able to devise of using the negro criminal to the economic benefit at least of both himself and society. We do not wish to treat him cruelly, nor do we feel that we are doing so. But the negro is a negro. He is not of us nor tending toward us. We must deal with him as he is.

On the other side of the great gulf

there are natural remonstrances against this point of view, some violent and reckless, some quieter and more intelligent. A few negroes show sulkiness at what they feel is oppression; many others seem to display a cheerful carelessness. Most of them, however, have a brisk realization of the meaning of the chaingang. The unrest of all has, of course, been increased by the developments of the past few months. Some show this by fiercely resisting arrest; others by the more rational behavior of inquiry and comment concerning their rights as now called into question.

The decision of the Supreme Court in the Jamison appeal cites several equivalents in matters of jurisdiction. arguments of both counsel urged upon the Court's attention also a number of cases touching the root question of law presented in this article. Probably the most important of these is that of Joseph Hurtado against the State of California. Hurtado was tried in the State Court. May, 1882, without indictment but simply by information, as authorized by the Constitution of California, for the crime of murder, and was convicted and sentenced to death. Both the State and Federal Supreme Courts sustained the finding and sentence, the highest tribunal holding that "the words 'due process of law 'in the Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution do not necessarily require an indictment by a grand jury in a prosecution by a State for murder." and that "the Fourteenth Amendment does not profess to secure to all persons in the United States the benefit of the same laws and the same remedies.

. . . Each State prescribes its own modes of judicial proceedings." "It follows." ran the opinion, "that any legal proceeding, enforced by public authority, whether sanctioned by age and custom or newly devised, in the discretion of the legislative power, in furtherance of the general public good, which regards and preserves these principles of liberty and justice. must be held to be due process of law." Yet, while the foregoing was conceded, the Court declared that "it is not to be supposed that these legislative powers are absolute and despotic, and that the amendment prescribing due process of law is too vague and indefinite to operate as a practical restraint. It is not every act, legislative in form, that is law. Law is something more than mere will exerted as an act of power. It must not be a special rule for a particular person or a particular case, but, in the language of Mr. Webster, in his famous definition, 'it is the general law, the law which hears before it condemns, which proceeds upon inquiry, and renders judgment after trial, so that every citizen shall hold his life, liberty, property, and. immunities under the protection of the general rules which govern society."

Whatever be the outcome of the long legal struggle—and many thousands of minds are following every phase of that struggle with intense interest—there can be little doubt that not only Georgia and the South, but all parts of the Nation, will be benefited by the airing, and, we must hope, the settling, of a question which in one aspect or another—the present perhaps the most vexed—has troubled the American conscience and judgment for many decades.

A QUARTER-CENTURY OF CHRISTIAN ENDEAVOR

BY FRANCIS E. CLARK

O compress within the limits of a magazine article the story of a religious movement that has found its way into every land, that numbers its organizations by tens of thousands and its adherents by millions, and that has gathered about itself many subsidiary movements, is not an easy task; but the approaching twenty-fifth anniversary of the formation of the first Society of Christian Endeavor makes appropriate an attempt to write such a

From one standpoint, however, the task is easy, for there are no dusty archives to search, no intricate and doubtful points of origin to settle, and no disputed articles of creed or principle

to decide.

The whole life of the movement is contained between the little span of years indicated by the hyphen between the dates February 2, 1881–February 2, 1906, and does not cover half the years of many of us who can scarcely yet believe that we are not young men.

Here are a few facts which make these dates significant:

February 2, 1881.—One society with forty members.

February 2, 1906.—Over sixty-seven thousand societies, with nearly four millions of members.

February 2, 1881.—One nation and one language represented in the Society.

February 2, 1906.—Over fifty nations or large colonial dependencies and eighty languages represented.

February 2, 1881.—The only literature a draft copy of the constitution.

February 2, 1906.—Forty weekly or monthly publications in fifteen different languages exclusively devoted to the Society, weekly or monthly Christian Endeavor departments in several thousand papers and magazines, and abundant other literature in most of the chief languages of the world.

February 2, 1881.—No National, State, or local Christian Endeavor unions.

February 2, 1906.—National unions in the United States, Canada, Australia, Great Britain, France, Spain, Italy, Germany, Sweden, Switzerland, Finland, Bulgaria, Hungary, Bohemia, India, China, Japan, Brazil, Mexico, and South Africa (both for the Dutch and English), and more than three thousand State and local unions, with regular meetings held in almost all parts of the world.

February 2, 1881.—One denomination rep-resented.

February 2, 1906.—One hundred denominations represented.1

This summary makes plain, as nothing else could, the timeliness and providential character of the movement.

No genius or combination of geniuses could, in twenty-five years, have introduced such a movement into every land; and, as a matter of fact, geniuses have been conspicuous by their absence from the Society and its work. Very plain and commonplace men and women have, for the most part, managed its local and National affairs.

Its founder was one of the youngest and humblest pastors in the State of Maine, and its charter members were average boys and girls such as can be found in any New England church. The pastor was feeling about, in his youth and inexperience, for some way of training these boys and girls for Christian service, if haply he might find it. He tried many experiments, ran up many blind alleys, knocked at many closed doors; made experiments along literary, musical, and debating society lines; did not despise the seductive ice-cream festival or the succulent oyster as a means of interesting the youth in things religious; but at last made the discovery that nothing but religion really appealed to the religious nature of young people; that a prayer-meeting could be made more interesting than a debating society, and that what young men and women

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¹ Whenever, in the above enumeration, the writer has had to deal in round numbers, he has made a most conservative estimate, to keep the numbers given considerably below the actual figures, which in many cases are growing so rapidly that exact accuracy is impossi-

really desired, though they did not always know it themselves, was to do something for the Church rather than to have the Church do everything for them.

As soon as he discovered for himself this old truth, which doubtless every wise man had discovered before him, he set to work on new lines, made the prayermeeting, and not the pink tea, the central feature of the Society, and service, not entertainment, its watchword.

On these lines the first constitution of the new Society was framed. There should be a prayer-meeting every week, and every one should take part in it. There should be work enough for all, and "to every man his work," definitely and distinctly marked out; and every month each committee or section of the Society must report in writing what its members had actually tried to do for the Church in the name of Christ.

Entertainment had its place in the new Society, but it was given a distinctly subordinate and secondary place, and even this the young people were to furnish for themselves, through their social and hiterary committees, and not lay an additional burden for their amusement on their overloaded pastor and elders.

Immediately a new order of things developed in that church. The young people's prayer-meeting, which, like most throughout the world at that time, was a poor, thin, dead-and-alive affair, carried on by two or three elderly young men who could "speak in meeting," became popular, interesting, often crowded and full of spiritual power; the committees brought in other young people, interested them in the church, improved the singing, beautified the pulpit with flowers, collected and raised money for missions, aroused a new interest in temperance and allied virtues.

A new day had dawned for the young people of that church, and, as it proved, for millions more in all parts of the world; for in eight months more the second Society of Christian Endeavor was formed, and soon after the third, and then they began to multiply faster than they could be recorded, and often in most unexpected places.

The desire for a larger and more fruitful work among young people was

felt everywhere. Pastors and people were think ng and talking and praying about this perennial subject—"How shall we attract and hold our young people?" The subject was in solution, as it were, the world over; and the experiment, at Williston Church, of February 2, 1881, simply gave it shape.

There were, doubtless, Christian Endeavor societies before the Christian Endeavor movement—societies with the same purpose and with some of the same methods, called by different names, and answering local needs—but they soon perished, either because they were not universal enough in their scope, or because the times were not ripe.

One of the most interesting of these pre-Christian Endeavor societies was originated by none other than the distinguished Cotton Mather; and the little book in which he tells about it was discovered years after the modern movement had grown strong. Here is its title-page:

Religious Societies.

PROPOSALS

For the REVIVAL of

Dying Religion,

BY WELL-ORDERED

Societies

FOR THAT PURPOSE.

With a brief Discourse, Offered unto a Religious Society, on the First Day of their Meeting.

1 Thest. V. 11. Edify one enouber

BOSTON:

Printed by S. KNEELAND, for JOHN
PHILLIPS, and Sold at his Shop
over against the South-side of the
Town House. 1 7 2 4.

There are some interesting family likenesses between these societies of 1724 and 1881. In both great stress was put upon the weekly meeting, though in the earlier society the proceedings could hardly have been as varied and lively as in a modern Christian Endeavor meeting, for it was ordered that "there be two hours at a time set apart, and let there be two prayers made by members of the society in their turns, between which let a sermon be repeated, and there should be the singing of a psalm annexed."

Other features, too, remind us of the modern movement. For instance, the monthly roll-call meeting of the present-day society, by which it is kept free from inactive members, who are dropped if they fail to respond at three consecutive monthly meetings, seems to have been foreshadowed by an article in Cotton Mather's manual, which provides:

Let the List be once a Quarter called over; and then, if It be observed, that any of the Society have much absented themselves, Let there be some sent unto them to inquire the Reason of their Absence; and if no Reason be given, but such as intimates an Apostacy from good Beginnings, Let them upon obstinacy, after loving and faithful Admonitions, be Obliterated.

The italics and the capitals are Cotton Mather's, who doubtless meant that the names and not the unfaithful members themselves were to be "obliterated" from the society rolls, as is to-day done in the modern young people's organization when the rules are lived up to.

The most fruitful book of recent times relating to Christian Nurture is doubtless Bushnell's great little volume with that title. It turned the thought of the modern Christian world to this subject, and compelled the Church to acknowledge that there must be growth from within as well as conquest from without if she was to hold her rightful possessions as well as extend her boundaries.

The writer acknowledges with profound gratitude his debt to this book, which he read with eager interest, and whose great thought of winning and holding the youth for the Church he sought to embody in the first Society of Christian Endeavor.

Though the Christian Endeavor So-

ciety apparently found such ready acceptance and grew with such rapidity, it must not be supposed that its sails were always filled with the favoring gales. In fact, in some quarters it to-day receives far "more kicks than ha'pence," though active opposition has largely ceased.

Some one has said that every great movement that wins acceptance must pass through three stages: the "poohpooh" stage, the "bow-wow" stage, and the "hear-hear" stage. At first the public sneers at it, next it growls at it, and lastly it applauds it.

The Christian Endeavor Society has passed through all these periods of disapprobation and approbation in almost every land, and even to-day has not got beyond the "bow-wow" period in some ministerial assemblies.

Its very earliest days, to be sure, were so small and inconspicuous that they excited no interest and consequently no denominational envy or opposition. The Portland local papers did not chronicle the birth of the new society nor record any of its doings for many months, and it was half a year before any religious newspaper (first "The Congregationalist," and soon after "The Christian Union" and the "Sunday School Times") gave a column to the working of the new society.

This was as it should be, for it gave the pastor and young people time to try the temper of the new blade before its virtues were exploited. They did not feel in any way that they were on show or on trial, and did not dream for a moment that what they were doing would be of interest to anybody else in the They simply all did the best they could in their own little sphere and for their own church, attending the meetings and taking part in them, as they had promised, answering to their names with a word of purpose or high resolve at the monthly consecration meeting, doing their share on the various committees without a thought that there would ever be another Christian Endeavor Society, or that any one would care to know about the first one.

But when the societies began to multiply, and the inevitable union meetings followed, and even National conventions began to excite attention, then the cooing voice of the turtle was no longer always heard in the land, but frequently the sharp treble of sarcasm or the deep bass of more violent opposition against the new movement which the Church had upon her hands almost before she knew it

The most common accusation was that the Society would sap the strength of the church by segregating the young people; the critics apparently forgetting that in most families the young people have interests, pleasures, and duties of their own, which are in no wise antagonistic to the interests of their parents or the family as a whole.

The Society in those early days was frequently compared to the bumptious young man who, when he was admitted to his father's firm, hung out the shingle,

JOHN SMITH & FATHER

And one well-known Doctor of Divinity assured the writer, after an exposition of the principles of the Society had been given, that he had no objection to any callow and vealy young folks forming what they called a society. They could have a "Red-Headed Society," or an "Anti-Swallow-Tail Society," and for his part he presumed they would do as much good as this so-called Christian Endeavor Society.

Another very common objection in those early days was that it would promote a forced, precocious, hot-house religion, that the active members would become so fond of hearing their own voices in meeting that they would go about seeking whom they might exhort in ungrammatical platitudes.

Again the critics forgot that the object of the new prayer-meeting was not to develop a host of embryonic orators (that would have been a calamity indeed), but to put a premium upon outspoken, unabashed allegiance to Christ and his Church, and that a simple appropriate verse of Scripture or other quotation brought to the meeting fulfilled all the requirements of the constitution.

But this fact was difficult to impress upon some minds. The writer remembers laboring for some minutes to make this plain to a distinguished clergyman of the Church of England who had requested an interview on the subject. When he had finished, and succeeded, as he fondly hoped, in making his point, the distinguished clergyman merely remarked, with that exasperating brutal obtuseness which some Englishmen assume:

"This society of yours must make no end of prigs, don't cher know."

Sometimes, of course, the immaturity of the young people, but rarely their headiness, got them into trouble with their elders, as in the Australian society of Juniors who had the habit of placing on the minister's table in the vestry a little bouquet of flowers and a Scripture text as he was about to go into the pulpit. It so happened that their pastor was unsympathetic with the Junior society. and his estrangement was still further increased when he found one Sunday morning, lying beside the little bouquet, the unfortunate text, "Ye are of your father the devil;" whereupon he took the bouquet and the text and in high dudgeon threw them both out of the window.

The children, who were left too much to their own devices by their superintendent, had meant no harm, but, supposing that any verse they found between the covers of the sacred book was good, especially for a minister, had opened the Bible and written down the first one on which their eyes rested—an unhappy choice, truly, but still a due sense of humor would have prevented the good man from flying into a rage. This would have also mollified the bitterness of many another critic of the Christian Endeavor Society.

By far the most determined and effective opposition to the Society, however, has come from strict sectarians who have seen in its rapid growth a menace to denominational fences which had been built so high and guarded with so much jealousy.

And from their standpoint the denominationalists were entirely logical in their opposition, for though the Society has always inculcated the utmost loyalty to the local church and denomination, it also encourages and promotes the widest brotherhood, both internationally and

interdenominationally, and has brought the young people of the different sects together as never before since there were sects to bring together.

But these official brethren of the strictest sects could not, or would not, see the difference between "inter" and "un," inter-denominational and un-denominational, and went to work vigorously, openly, and secretly to block the wheels of the Christian Endeavor movement.

In thousands of cases, chiefly in one denomination, existing Christian Endeavor Societies were disbanded, often against the earnest wish and protest of the young people; in other churches young people were forbidden to join the movement when about to start a society; rival societies with the same principles and methods, but with different names and a slightly different nomenclature, were started, and ardently pushed by denominational influence and money.

Especially in missionary fields has this denominational pressure been hard to explain, where groups of young native Christians have been forced to give up their Christian Endeavor name and organization, which they had come to understand and love, and to adopt a purely denominational name, meaningless to them, which only resulted in separating them, in a measure, from the native Christians of a neighboring mission.

At first it seemed, when the denominational cyclone struck the Christian Endeavor craft, as though she would founder on her very first voyage. But she soon righted, broad-minded men in every Church rallied to her help, her sails filled again, and it was seen that the denominational gust was but temporary and local.

Take it the world over, the great divisions of the non-liturgical Protestant Churches are about equally represented in the Society. The Presbyterians are perhaps the most numerous, certainly in the United States, though the Disciples of Christ and the Congregationalists are close seconds. In Great Britain the Baptists and Methodists lead, while in Australia the United Methodist Church has adopted the Christian Endeavor Society as part of the official church machinery, to be found in

every one of their churches. In Episcopal churches the movement is beginning to 'grow; the Church of England Christian Endeavor Union is now a vigorous and aggressive organization.

In any event, whether Christian Endeavor is preached by name or not, its principles have been adopted and propagated by the denominational societies. In this we "rejoice, yea, and will rejoice." Moreover, their relations, which were at first very considerably strained, are becoming more and more brotherly toward Christian Endeavor, and several of them have become wholly amalgamated with the parent society by adopting its name, either alone or in connection with their denominational name.

No account, however brief, of this movement should omit mention of the remarkable series of conventions which have marked it almost from the beginning. The first Society was scarcely a year and a half old when it called its few friends and neighboring societies together, saying, "Rejoice with me."

This first little convention, when there were scarcely half a dozen known societies in all the world, was typical and prophetic. It was enthusiastic, eager, joyful, optimistic. It was full of song as well as prayer. The young people themselves had part in it. They and their leaders looked forward to larger and ever larger things. They felt the stirring of the pulse of a great movement, though they could hardly define it. new kind of convention had been born, as well as a new prayer-meeting-and this, not of the will of man or of the wisdom of man, but of the power of God.

The long series since at Saratoga, New York, Boston, San Francisco, London, Berlin, Baltimore, Ningpo, Bombay, Tokyo, Madrid, and Durban, to mention but a few, have fulfilled in a wonderful way the promise of that first inconspicuous convention in Williston Church.

The great number of eager and earnest youth, the pick of the churches, who have at these times come together has of itself been impressive and inspiring. At the convention in Boston no less than 56,425 delegates were actually registered. The city gave itself up for

a week to their entertainment. Public and private buildings and city parks, and all railway stations within a radius of twenty miles, were decorated with welcoming banners. Three simultaneous meetings, aggregating nearly 30,000, were held every day, besides many smaller gatherings, and, in the denominational rallies, more young Baptists, Presbyterians, and Congregationalists assembled in each tent and hall, it is said, than had ever before come together.

In San Francisco, a few years later, the same scenes were repeated. More than twenty-five thousand people crossed the mountains from the East on special trains. The leading dailies for a week agreed to omit all details of crime and horror, and give themselves to religion and the convention.

The latest convention, held in Baltimore last summer, was in many respects the most significant and enthusiastic of all.

Nor is this interest confined to volatile young America. Conventions in Great Britain, Australia, Germany, China, and India have been quite as remarkable and full of enthusiasm.

The writer has seen the great Albert Hall in London on more than one occasion, as well as the Metropolitan Tabernacle and City Temple, the splendid City Halls of Melbourne and Sydney and Adelaide, and the largest churches which could be obtained in Kobe and Foochow and Calcutta and Madura and Honolulu and many other cities, thronged with eager crowds of young people at such conventions.

There is something contagious and fascinating about their enthusiasm, and the magnificent volume of voice in the music; it all seems to be a foretaste and promise of the time when "all nations and kindreds and peoples and tongues" shall stand before the throne and before the Lamb," crying with a loud voice and saying, "Salvation to our God which sitteth upon the throne, and to the Lamb."

These conventions are, indeed, symbols of Christian fellowship personified, and herein perhaps lies their chief charm.

The late Joseph Parker voiced this

idea in his own picturesque way at the World's Christian Endeavor Convention in London in 1900. On the same platform in the Alexandra Palace were the Bishop of London, Hugh Price Hughes, Dr. Greenough, representing the Baptists, and Dr. Monroe Gibson, the Presbyterians; while Dr. Floyd Tomkins, Dr. Maltbie Babcock, and other wellknown Americans added distinction to the platform.

Each speaker was supposed to represent his own denomination, and Dr. Parker was naturally expected to speak for Congregationalism.

It was a frightfully hot day; the sun beat down with relentless force upon the great glass roof. Dr. Parker perspired at every pore, and the water seemed to drip from every individual hair of his shaggy locks. In his thunderous tones he remarked, after a few preliminary words, "Mr. Chairman, I wouldn't be wet through for any ism in the world, but I will sweat anywhere for the cause of fellowship and brotherhood as represented in this splendid assembly!"

The tremendous applause that followed this sentence showed that the audience, too, were willing to perspire for the cause of Christian unity.

My space is almost exhausted, and I can but indicate in a word the underlying principles that have made such a movement and such conventions possible.

First, Deep religious devotion. There is no such compelling and attractive power as this. "For Christ and the Church" has always been the motto of the Society.

Second, Service for all and all for service. "No impression without expression," the latest word of the psychologist relating to adolescent youth, has been practically wrought out in Christian Endeavor methods.

Third, "Fellowship with Fidelity," "Brotherhood with all, loyalty to one's own "—these are the watchwords which are heard in Christian Endeavor circles all over the world, and which, incarnated in deed, have given the Society its power.

What of the future?

Let the historian of the fiftieth year of the Society prophesy after the event.

But it can be said in a general way that the outlook was never so bright as to-day; the Society was never winning its way so rapidly in all lands; its critics were never less destructive or more helpful; its supporters were never so numerous and courageous; and, with augmenting ranks, increasing flexibility, enlarging scope and variety of service, and a firmer grasp than ever on its fundamental principles, it is entering upon its second quarter-century with more than the vigor, hope, and determination of its earliest youth.

PERSUASION AND CONTRO-VERSY

BY BRANDER MATTHEWS

FEW years ago a colonel of the Civil War, who is now a Justice of the Supreme Court of the United States, delivered a Memorial Day address on the "Soldier's Faith," in which he suggested that it is perhaps " not vain for us to tell the new generation what we learnt in our day and what we still believe—that the joy of life is living, is to put out all one's powers as far as they will go, and the measure of power is obstacles overcome; to ride boldly at what is in front of you, be it fence or enemy; to pray not for comfort but for combat; to keep the soldier's faith against the doubts of civil life, more besetting and harder to overcome than all the misgivings of the battlefield."

It will be a sorry day for us when words like these of Mr. Justice Holmes fail to arouse an echo in the hearts of our young men.

"For never land long lease of empire won Whose sons sate silent when base deeds were done."

When the youth of America is ready to seek comfort and to shrink from combat, then the end will be near, and society will stagnate into a morass of moral malaria. Life is neither nirvana nor chaos; it is a never-ending struggle toward the Promised Land; and no sooner have we topped one hill than another still higher rises before us, which we shall find the easier to climb since our muscles have been hardened by the earlier effort. No sconer is one victory won than there looms large before us the next conquest to be undertaken. There is never a truce in the fighting, and

never a season when the armor may be laid aside. But of a truth the joy of living is in the putting forth of all our power in overcoming the obstacles which are more abundant and more difficult in civil life than on the battlefield, as the soldier-judge declared. Yet the more abundant they may be and the more difficult, the keener is the zest of combat, and the less worthy is the comfort which might come to us from giving up the struggle.

If, however, there is a cause in behalf of which it is worth while to battle, surely also it will be worth while to learn how to wage the war. Ardent youth is swift to enter on a civic campaign, often without training and without taking time to form a plan, although none of us is ignorant that the course of military instruction at West Point extends over four years; and it teaches only the elements of the art of war. If it is true that the conflicts of civil life are more exhausting than those in which the soldier engages. and that the maneuvers of the enemy are more baffling, then is there an obvious need of education for those, who are undertaking a civic struggle. They go forth to contend with evil, by calling the attention of the public to the impending danger and by awakening the interest of good citizens in the cause in which they are enlisted.

Here it is that a military metaphor becomes misleading. Although it is our duty to wrestle with wrong and to overcome it, we can win the fight only with the weapons of peace; and of these the most important is persuasion. We can

achieve our end only by so presenting our case as to bring over to our opinion the majority of our fellow-citizens. Undue aggressiveness is wholly out of place; it will never attract, it will always repel. No doubt the actual adversary must be faced boldly; but there is rarely ever any chance of converting him, for he is rooted in his own superstition, and he has his own reasons for the faith that is in him. It is not the opponent who stands up against us that we are striving to convince, since his case is hopeless. It is to the bystanders that every appeal must be addressed, to those who are looking on idly and without attention. If their interest can be aroused, if they can be converted to our view, then our adversary is beaten, even if he is stubborn to the end; for then the majority is ours, and he is only one of a shrinking minority. This is an aspect often overlooked by men who are naturally combative and who are lacking in the sympathetic appeal which wins adherents; they spend all their energy in the grapple with the individual advocate of the other side, and they pay no heed to the duty of persuading those who are not hostile, but only indifferent. Sometimes it seems as though their interest was rather in the argumentative duel than in the final decision of the debate.

Only those who have taken active part in urging an improvement or in assaulting an evil, ever realize how difficult it is to awaken the attention of the general public in behalf of any particular cause, and how protracted and wearisome a task it is to arouse any real interest in favor of it. The human units who make up the general public know little or nothing about any one topic, and they seem to care less. They have each of them their own traditions, their own prejudices, their own proportion of conservatism, their own distrust of innova-They have a strong desire to let well enough alone and to keep to the good old ways. Yet they are not resolutely hostile to any new proposal; they simply fail to see the necessity for it or to seize the significance of it. They are open to conviction, if you can once get them to listen to you while you show cause why your opinion should be adopted. They are all of them engaged in minding their own business; and they are loth to lend an ear to any one who asks them to listen to argument or even to evidence.

Yet it is these human units who are to be made to listen, who are to be won over, who are to be awakened from careless inattention and aroused to active interest. Whoever applies himself to this labor of love must possess his soul in patience and curb his temper with firmness. He must put up a good fight against the defenders of the condition which he is attacking, but he ought not to waste his strength mainly upon them. He must never let a delight in controversy tempt him to forget that his chief duty is not to argue with the other side, but to persuade the men who are taking no part in the dispute—the men who are ready enough to dismiss the matter from their minds, and who are prompt to cry "a plague on both your houses." These are the very men whose support, if only it can once be secured. will make success certain. Whenever they can be allured into listening to the facts, they are swift enough in coming to a decision on the merits of the case; and when public opinion has once been created in favor of a cause, all the protests of its opponents are useless and hopeless. There is no need to waste time in answering the arguments of the other side after the public has made up its mind.

It is not really argument which is effective, it is information. If once you can induce the public to believe that here is something that they ought to know about, if once you can get them to turn aside from their own work long enough to take in a plain statement of fact, then the rest is easy. But to get them to listen at all is not easy; it is very hard indeed, and it cannot be done in a hurry. It can be done only by patient and unceasing effort, which profits by every occasion, and which neglects no opportunity.

In this first approach nothing is more important than an unassuming manner. If you want to win the public to listen, you must be firm, of course, but you must not be condescending; for there is

nothing that human nature resents more quickly than being addressed in words of one syllable, as though it was infantile in understanding. And as you must not assume superiority, so you must avoid the domineering tone and the aggressive attitude which only too many reformers are prone to adopt. For example, there is little doubt that the ineffectiveness of Ruskin's eloquent crying aloud in the wilderness was due largely to his shrill scolding and to his contemptuous bullying. As the late Sir Leslie Stephen pointed out, "the arrogance of Ruskin's language . . . is one of the awkward consequences of being an inspired prophet," since "it is implied in your very position that your opponents are without an essential mental faculty." Over-emphasis always excites antagonism in the average man, just as over-statement arouses suspicion.

In fact, nothing is more effective than an under-statement so clear and so moderate that the listener is inclined to believe himself capable of restating your case more powerfully; for if he once undertakes this, he is your partisan forever, if only for the pleasure of arguing on your side better than you have done. As M. Émile Faguet has reminded us recently, "the great point of all dialectic and of all eloquence is to make men believe that they come to a decision of their own accord, that they are guiding themselves, that the idea which has just been given to them is one they have had since infancy." This is a difficult feat, no doubt, but it can be accomplished by a sincere speaker who is also adroit, as Lincoln was. It is never achieved by an exhorter who scolds and who bullies; the more he talks himself hoarse, the more he hardens the hearts of his hearers, fixed in their resolve to oppose him.

It is recorded that Benjamin R. Curtis once tried a law case against John P. Hale, and was astounded when the verdict went against him. "I had with me all the evidence and all the argument," he explained, "but that confounded fellow, Hale, got so intimate with the jury that I could do nothing with them." And we may rest assured that there was in Hale's manner, while he was dealing

with the men in the jury-box, nothing superior or condescending, nothing aggressive or domineering. He met them on the level of a common humanity, and he assumed that they possessed both intelligence and a desire to do right. It is comic to think how complete a failure Carlyle or Ruskin would have made had either of them been called to the Prophets of wrath they may have been, both of them, but sweet reasonableness was not their portion. They may have helped to destroy the temples of Baal, but whatever they sought to build themselves was built on the shifting sand. At best, they achieved only the easier feat of destruction, and they failed to accomplish the more useful duty of construction.

An illustration of the successful use of cogent under-statement can be taken from the history of the movement in behalf of international copyright. Only after half a dozen years of incessant endeavor was it possible to pass the act of 1891, whereby the protection of copyright in the United States was extended to the foreign authors who should comply with certain conditions. Previously foreign authors had no control here over their own writings, which were freely pirated, thus forcing American authors to sell their writings in unfair competition with stolen goods. Obviously, this was a bitter wrong alike to the friendly alien and to the citizen; but it was very difficult to make the average man see Winter after winter the members of the American Copyright League devoted themselves to the awakening of public interest. Meetings were held in the larger cities, and reports were published in the local newspapers and telegraphed all over the country; speeches were made before all sorts of societies; sermons were preached on the National sin of literary piracy; articles were inserted in the magazines and reviews; statements were put forth frequently in which the question was considered from every point of view; explanatory pamphlets were to be had for the asking; and no possible means of arresting public attention was neglected. And yet, after this propaganda had been going on for years, the advocates of justice

were continually surprised to meet men of education and of intelligence who had paid no attention to our appeals and who were not aware that there was a wrong to be righted. These men were very rarely hostile; they were only uninterested because of their total ignorance in the matter. Generally we found it easy enough to gain their sympathy, and sometimes even their active support. after they once understood what the need was for an improvement in the law. But they had been minding their own business, and they had chanced not to be reached by any of the multitudinous appeals that we had been making.

Some of the appeals, it must be confessed, were now and then declamatory and domineering; and it was apparently a reading of these unduly vehement documents which turned the late Speaker Reed against the cause. This was the more unfortunate as the time came when he was the one man whose good will was absolutely necessary. The friends of the bill believed that it would pass if it was allowed to come up; that is to say, if only the Speaker would grant a small portion of time in the final days of the session, always tumultuously overcrowded. Just then, as it happened, a member of the League published a paper from a new point of view, tracing the slow evolution of copyright ever since the invention of printing, and pointing out that the United States, which had been among the most progressive nations at the end of the eighteenth century, was among the most backward in this respect at the end of the nineteenth. The writer of this paper was studiously moderate in tone, and he strove to force the reader to draw his own conclusion—that the opportunity was then offered for this country to recover its proper rank among the nations. A member of the Copyright League—who is now the President of the United States—asked the Speaker to read this article as a personal favor to him, and the next day Mr. Reed told Mr. Roosevelt that he was ready to grant time for the passage of the bill.

Probably it was the cautious understatement of this paper which captured the sympathy of the Speaker, and quite

possibly the vehemence of some of the other appeals which had repelled him were more effective with readers of another type. The very manner needful to arouse the interest of one man another may reject as rant. There are all sorts and conditions of men, and they cannot all be converted by the same arguments. But, however emotional the speaker, however lofty his standard, however assured he may be as to the moral necessity of the step he is advocating, he will fail to reach the hearts and to touch the minds of his hearers unless he is ever honest with himself and unless he is absolutely fair to his opponents. If he descends to personalities, he may amuse his audience, but he is far less likely to bring them over to his side. Indeed, the sincere advocate of a cause will often accomplish most by resolutely refusing to acknowledge the existence of his opponents as persons. In stating his own case he will meet their arguments fairly, refuting them as best he can; but it will be arguments that he will attack, and never the persons who have put forth the arguments. Especially will be refrain from misjudging the good faith of those who urge these opposing arguments; for, by the very fact that he has been willing to enter on a debate with them, he has placed himself on the same plane, and whatspever debases them lowers him Any man seeking to persuade will do well to refrain from controversy. was Dr. Holmes who drew attention to what he wittily called "the hydrostatic paradox of controversy," pointing out that "controversy equalizes fools and wise men, and the fools know it."

The wise men know it also; and they keep out. They know that controversy, in the narrow meaning of the word, is useless, and worse than useless, even if it does not descend into the rude exchange of offensive personalities. They know, as Sainte-Beuve has declared, that "after half an hour of any dispute no one of the contestants is any longer in the right, and no one of them is then really aware of what he is saying." They know that public interest very soon ebbs away from a dispute between persons, and that public opinion is likely to accept what each side says against the other and to

reject what each side says in favor of itself. They know that a prolonged debate is likely to defeat the interest of those who are in the right and to raise a dust of side-issues for the profit of those who are in the wrong. They know that nothing is more hopelessly uninteresting than a controversy which has died down to its ashes—ashes in which there may be heat enough but never any light. They know that protracted controversy is fatal to persuasion, and that persuasion is the only means of carrying a cause to victory.

Not a few wise men have carried this distaste for dispute so far that they have resolutely refused to pay any attention to personal attacks. Buffon was one of these; and he explained that he took pride in the thought that persons of a certain kind could not injure him. Ibsen advised Georg Brandes to adopt the same attitude—"Look straight ahead; never reply with a word in the papers; if in your writings you become polemical, then do not direct your polemic against this or that particular attack; never show that a word of your enemies has had any effect on you." Jowett summed up his own principles in a terse sentence: "Never retract, never explain; get it done, and let them howl." And this is only a new setting of the old Scots saying, "They say. What say they? Let them say." Silent contempt is often the most crushing rejoinder; it is the true vengeance of large souls; and it is the one way open to all who are seeking to persuade and who are determined to abstain from bickering. A good workman is not known by the chips on his shoulder.

In attacking an established abuse, the ardent advocate of improvement will find himself confronted by opponents belonging to several different classes. First of all, there are those who are conservative by nature and who are moved to defend the established order of things simply because it is the established order, and because they dread and detest innovation of any kind; and these can often be won over by showing that the proposed change is not really an innovation, but rather a return to the practice of the fathers and to the usage of the good old

days. Second, there are those whose good faith is beyond question, but whose temperament leads them to defend the existing situation in spite of its defects; and these are the men whose opposition is most difficult to overcome, because they are honorable adversaries, possessed of the best intentions. They must ever be faced firmly but courteously; and their arguments must be met squarely. It was of opponents of this type that Gladstone was thinking when he said that "the one lesson life has taught me is that where there is known to be a common object, the pursuit of truth, there should be a studious desire to interpret the adversary in the best sense his words will fairly bear."

And then there is a third class, of those who are personally profiting by the abuse which you are attacking; and it is from these that you may expect the bitterest fight and the most unscrupulous. They will never hesitate to resort to the meanest of personalities and to the imputing of the lowest of motives. They will seize any weapon that comes handy; and they will never hesitate to strike below the belt. This is an unsavory opposition, which must be anticipated; as the "Autocrat of the Breakfast-Table "declared, with his pithy shrewdness, "you never need think you can turn over any old falsehood without a terrible squirming and scattering of the horrid little population that dwells under it." But although the defense of an abuse by the men of this type, who are touched in their pocket. will always be venomous and protracted, it is likely also to be so violent and so hysteric and so offensive as to repel the sympathy of the disinterested onlookers in whose hands the final decision lies.

As a general rule, it is safest and wisest to disregard the ululations of unworthy opponents of this type or of any other; but sometimes a rare occasion may arise when it is needful to turn on an opponent, and to smite him hip and thigh, and to reduce him at once to impotent silence; and this is what Huxley did to the Bishop of Oxford. Sometimes again the chance may present itself to puncture an adversary with a swift retort, just as Leatherstocking caught by the handle the tomahawk the

Indian had thrown at him, hurling it back at once to bury itself in the brain of his red foeman. Once when a noted wit was holding forth, a drunken bystander broke out with "You're a liar!" To which the noted wit returned, instantly and with the utmost suavity of manner, "Surely not-if you say so!" When Beecher was addressing a meeting in Liverpool packed with Southern sympathizers, a voice from the gallery asked him why we had not ended the war in sixty days as we had said we would. There was a pause in the tumult at this home-thrust, and Beecher took advantage of it to reply, "We should have done so, if we had been fighting Englishmen !" To the credit of his hearers, this bold stroke touched their sense of fair play, and thereafter they listened to what he had to say.

But though this may be successful, it is ever dangerous, for it is perilously close to the flinging to and fro of empty personalities. If the foeman is unworthy of your steel, and if you suspect him capable of a foul blow, it is best to refuse to cross swords with him. There was common sense in the saying of Truthful James, in his metrical minutes of the meeting of the "Society upon the Stanislaw," when he declared that

"I hold it is not decent for a scientific gent To say another is an ass—at least, to all intent:

Nor should the individual who happens to be meant

Reply by heaving rocks at him, to any great extent."

The general public takes no interest in the bandying about of personalities;

and it is even inclined to despise a victory won in such ignoble strife. On the other hand, it is swift to give its confidence to those whom it has observed to be honest to themselves and fair to their adversaries, moderate in statement and dignified in utterance. And it is the general public which must decide the question at last; and the general public is ever repelled by unseemly altercation; and it can be reached only by incessant and unassuming persuasion. He who seeks to convert it must be patient and persistent, coaxing the general public to go forward with him one step at a time, and taking care that there are no steps backward. He must remember the potency of little drops of water and of little grains of sand. He must not try for too much all at once; but he must ever be ready to take what he can get, and he must always be glad to convert an individual here and there, since the general public is only a mass of stray individuals.

Above all else must the advocate of a new cause and the assailant of an old abuse respect the opinions of those he is striving to convert. He must ever bear in mind that the average man, the unit which is multiplied into the general public, means to do right—that the average man is ever ready honestly to echo the fine phrase of Marcus Aurelius: "If any one is able to convince me and show that I do not think or act right, I will gladly change. For I seek the truth, by which no man was ever injured. But he is injured who abides in his error and ignorance."



Comment on Current Books

The Climbers We cannot say that Mr. Clyde Fitch's plays "read" as well as Mr. Barrie's or Mr. Bernard Shaw's. They were made to act, and with little thought of literary effectiveness. "The Climbers" had a considerable degree of success on the stage, and has some well-devised situations. (The Macmillan Company, New York. 75 cts.)

The feature of special The Conquest of interest in the revised Arid America edition of William E. Smythe's stimulating account of the part played by irrigation in the opening up of the West is the section devoted to a résumé of the progress made since the book first appeared, five years ago. Mr. Smythe was himself a pioneer in the National irrigation movement, and is thoroughly competent to serve as its historian. He is, moreover, imbued with the hearty, optimistic spirit of the West; and if at times he appears overenthusiastic, his picture of the past and present is none the less significant for the possibilities it reveals. Intending home-seekers will find much practical information in his pages, while readers of all types will derive therefrom a larger knowledge of the States in which the work of colonization is now being pressed so vigorously. Mr. Smythe's book falls into four parts. In the first he discusses colonization and irrigation in a general way; in the second, some of the earlier irrigation ventures; in the third, the several arid and semi-arid States which remain to a greater or less extent undeveloped; and in the fourth, the genesis and evolution of the movement which has led to the intervention of the United States Government in the task of reclaiming the desert parts of our country. He also supplies, in an appendix, the text of the original Newlands Irrigation Bill and of the present law, and a brief statement of methods of irrigation. In addition to revising the text, he has incorporated new illustrations from recent photographs. As it stands, his book is invaluable to all who would make themselves fully acquainted with the internal territorial expansion of the past few years. (The Macmillan Company, New York. \$1.50, net.)

The
Life of Froude
Froude. His admiration lends a charm to his volume, but also imparts to it its two chief defects: it could be lessened in bulk with advantage, for it contains repetitions

more appropriate to a speech by a defendant's counsel than to a biography; and its tone is throughout too much that of one who is retained to defend an accused from attack. But in the main we agree with Mr. Paul's Mr. Froude was bitterly interpretation. assailed by three classes of enemies: first, by ecclesiastics, for his liberalism in theology; second, by scholastics, pre-eminently by Mr. Freeman, because he was guilty of making history interesting; and, third, by the devotees of Mr. Carlyle, because he ventured to tell the truth about their hero. In all three cases there was some excuse for the attack. Mr. Froude's reaction against orthodoxy carried him, as Mr. Paul admits, too far; but atter reading Mr. Paul's account of Froude's childhood, the reader wonders that the youth was not carried over into blank atheism. In writing history Mr. Froude, though conscientious in his investigations, was not always careful in matters of detail, nor was this carelessness confined, as Mr. Paul seems to imply, wholly to proof-reading; and his dramatic instincts led him sometimes to accept minor incidents which were inadequately verified though not inherently improbable, because they furnished such effective color to his narrative. But he was one of England's really great historians; in our judgment a far better historian than Freeman; because a true understanding of character and a true interpretation of events is far more important than minute accuracy in dates or the spelling of names. No historian has done so much as Mr. Froude to interpret aright the English Reformation and its great characters, no one so much to explain Henry VIII., and no one so much to dispel the romantic mystery which has enveloped the character and career of Mary Queen of Scots, who deserves to be ranked, as Froude's realistic portraiture has ranked her, with Jezebel of Israel, Lucretia Borgia of Italy, and Catherine de' Medici of France. There may be a question whether he ought to have told at all the story of Carlyle's domestic infelicities. We have no question that in telling it he took somewhat too seriously Carlyle's exaggerated expressions of remorse. But in the main the fire of criticism to which his narrative has been subjected has had no other effect on those who have read the voluminous literature on both sides, if they are accustomed to weigh and measure evidence, than the conclusion of Sir James Fitzjames Stephen: "It is to me wholly incredible that anything but a severe regard for truth,

learnt to a great extent from his teaching, could ever have led you to embody in your portrait of him [Carlyle] a delineation of the faults and weaknesses which mixed with his great qualities." (Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. \$4, net.)

Under the title "The Journeys La Salle's of La Salle and His Compan-Journeys ions," Professor L. J. Cox, of the University of Cincinnati, has edited the original narratives of Tonty and others of that intrepid band of explorers. Some of these narratives have been difficult of access, and certainly they all abound in stirring adventure and incident. Professor Cox's characterization of La Salle is worth quoting: "He was coldly ambitious, reserved to hauteur, over-confident in his own judgment, with great natural ability and equal determination, imaginative to a fault, and consequently often more visionary than practical. . . . The essential failure of his colonizing and monopoly projects should not obscure his real services as the greatest French explorer of the Mississippi Valley." (A. S. Barnes & Co., New York. 2 vols. \$2, net.)

F. B. Kirkbride and J. E. The Modern Sterrett meet a real need Trust Company with this book. The modern trust company is so essentially a modern institution that hitherto there has been no account of its organization and operations written with the fullness necessary to enlighten the general public. The present work, however, is so complete and lucid that it should serve as a standard guide not only to the public but to students of banking and finance, and deserves wide recognition as an authoritative text-book. No detail of trust company functioning appears to have escaped the authors, who further proffer numerous suggestions of solid value to the management of such concerns. The point of view is soundly conservative, and there is little theorizing, concreteness being the distinguishing characteristic throughout. The practical usefulness of the book is increased by the reproduction of a number of the forms best adapted to facilitate the conduct of business. (The Macmi'lan Company, New York. \$2.50, net)

Nation
Builders

This saga of the early days of American Methodism vindicates the fact which its title assumes. Home missions among the pioneer families who planted themselves in the wildernesses now transformed into civilized States made the American people what it is to-day—a people dominated by moral sentiment, and stamping its National coinage with the most widely circulated of all confessions of relig-

ious faith, In God We Trust. In this work of nation-building the itinerant Methodist preachers bore not the only but still the leading part. Especially in the Central States, with which this volume is largely concerned, they made a record of ever-memorable courage, patience, and fervor. The history of the circuit-rider is closed. But there is no part of our National history which more deserves to be treasured in living memory. It is a continuation of the Acts of the Apostles. The experiences of its heroes here related have a stirring martial note, as well as a fascinating personal interest. The plan, with a small portion of the story, comes from the late Andrew Carpenter Wheeler, known also by his pen-name, J. P. Mowbray, to whose friend, Mr. Edgar Mayhew Bacon, of Tarrytown, New York, its completion is due. (Eaton & Mains, New York. \$1.)

Two-fifths of this volume is The Prevention occupied with the essay of and Cure of Dr. S. A. Knopf, of New Tuberc closis York, selected in 1900 from eighty-one competitors to receive the prize of \$1,000 offered by the International Congress at Berlin for the best treatment of the question how to combat tuberculosis as a disease of the masses. This essay has already been translated into many languages. To this are added a dozen or more short chapters by various authors, which the compiler, Mr. Joseph R. Long, has drawn from the "Handbook on the Prevention of Tuberculosis," published by the Charity Organization Society of New York, and other sources. The non-professional reader will find here what every one should know concerning "the great white plague," its prevention and its extirpation. (H. M. Brinker, Denver, Colorado.)

S. A. Clarke, the author Pioneer Days of of this unique and inter-Oregon History esting contribution to the history of the Pacific Northwest, is himself an Oregon pioneer, having made his home in that State since 1850. He has for many years studied and written on the history of the region, and his present work, which comprises two substantial volumes, is intended, in his own words, as a last tribute to the people of Oregon, "who for half a century have been my kind and indulgent friends." His object is to set forth the story of the growth of Oregon from the earliest days of discovery and exploration to the establishment of a territorial government, and this he does in an original and unconventional way, preserving chronological unity, but expanding the narrative by the inclusion of a mass of material not commonly found in historical worksreminiscences of missionary, fur-trader, trapper, and mountaineer, descriptions of Indian life and characteristics, Indian folk-lore, firsthand accounts of romantic and tragic episodes of early settlement, etc. Necessarily his work contains a good deal of little more than local interest, and from the standpoint of the critical historian is in some respects open to serious objection. But it is not without value for the light it sheds on a civilization already of the past, and for the fact that it preserves much of historical interest which might otherwise be lost. Mr. Clarke's style is plain to the point of awkwardness; but his book is undeniably readable and should attract an audience not limited to those to whom he primarily addresses himself. (J. K. Gill Company, Portland, Oregon.)

In creating a work of Spiritual Adventures art one has to be relentless in the rejection of material. Mr. Symonds, in his "Spiritual Adventures," has applied the principle of selection rigorously. He presents in this volume eight studies in temperament. In each study he is intent on reproducing a distinct temperamental type; or, to put it another way, in each case he has isolated a temperament and assigned it to a person. In real life, of course, temperaments are not apportioned out to people in that fashion; but these studies do not purport to be records of real life. They are pictures. Each study has a tone of its own as truly as a painting by Whistler. Traits which would mar the tone of a study are not even suggested. Some readers may find a certain intellectual stimulus in reading this book, just as some people find religious stimulus in looking at a Giorgione; but those will judge it best who read it as a work of literary art. As such it is undoubtedly skillful. Among the writers of to-day who regard the pen as a craftsman's tool Mr. Symonds cannot be ignored. These studies, however, show more skill than sense of beauty. There is scarcely a tint of cheerfulness or real health in the series. The tones are all too gloomy. No artist can wholly escape responsibility for his choice of subject. Like the pictures painted by one of the men here portraved, these studies not only have a hint of unhealthy green in their shadows, but have for their subjects the abnormal or artificial. No matter how impersonal the reader tries to be, he will probably close this book with a sense of depression. (E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. \$2.50, net.)

Eight biographies have J. M. W. Turner already been written with Turner as their subject. His was a puzzling character, and criticism of his works is apparently occupying less space in the late than in the early biographies. The latest of all is the work, not of a literary man, but of a painter. Mr. Wyllie has a true brotherpainter's sympathy for Turner's troubles and trials, rough and uncouth as was that worthy. As to Turner's works, an artist is, of course, better able than a mere teller of tales to distinguish the difficulties, limitations, beauties, and influences of a painter. However sympathetic Mr. Wyllie's attitude, he may well envy the literary man's style. The latest biography of Turner is not brilliant in that regard, though Mr. Wyllie's language is undeniably clear and concise, especially in his replies to certain assumptions-notably Ruskin's-about Turner which Mr. Wyllie thinks unwarranted. (The Macmillan Company, New York. \$3.)

This story of the East The Wisdom of Side of New York is the Simple chiefly interesting because of the personality of the author, Owen Kildare. His first book, "My Mamie Rose," was hailed as a remarkable achievement because the author, as he told in that book, was at the age of thirty a "Bowery tough" who could not read or write his own name. The present volume describes the careers of two boys on New York's East Side, with a little too much of the atmosphere of the oldfashioned Sunday-school book to be a good story. (The Fleming H. Revell Company, New York. \$1.50.)

A clever, readable story by A Yellow Miriam Michelsen, the author of Journalist " In the Bishop's Carriage" and "The Madigans." It describes the experiences of a young woman reporter on one of the yellowest of American newspapers. Her quest for "copy" brings her into intimate relations with public and private scandals, family quarrels, divorce cases, and murders. The unscrupulous methods which she pursues in the attempt to score a "beat" for her paper are hardly less repellent than the details of the cases themselves. The young woman is a very entertaining person, but not even the attractiveness of her personality makes "yellow journalism" seem anything but vulgar and degrading. (D. Appleton & Co., New York. \$1.50.)

Letters to The Outlook

ARIZONA AND STATEHOOD

In the issue of The Outlook for December 30 there is an editorial on the Statehood Question which contains such a gross misstatement of facts in regard to one phase of that subject that I am sure you will welcome a contradiction of the same. I refer to that part of the editorial which relates to Walter Wellman's article in the Chicago" Record Herald," and the" railroad and mining lobby "in Washington. Now, it has been my privilege to be associated the past four weeks in a very intimate way professionally with the man who, outside of Congress, has been leading the fight against joint Statehood for Arizona and New Mexico. This man has had more to do with the marvelous development and progress of Arizona than any other one man, and he is at the present time unquestionably the leading citizen of that Territory, and it is this individual, together with his brother, an honored ex Governor of the Territory whose home is in Washington, who have constituted the "railroad and mining lobby" referred to in your editorial. Having been in a position to be thoroughly acquainted with the methods and tactics pursued by these gentlemen in their opposition to "joint Statehood," I wish emphatically to state that their conduct in this matter has been honorable and beyond criticism, and such that no advocate of pure political methods could take the slightest exception to it. As a matter of fact, it has been their clean-cut method of opposing the bill in question that has been a real element of their strength as they have come in contact with the members of Congress. To these latter they have repeatedly said, "All we ask is that you will not act in this matter until you have thoroughly investigated the conditions in the Territories; and if you will only do this, we fear not the result." Well indeed would it be for Congress and the legislation it enacts if in connection with all questions of public policy it could have the help and advice of such clean and honorable "lobbyists" as are the men to whom this communication refers-men who are fighting with clean hands and right motives for the Territory they love and which they have been so instrumental in developing.

CHARLES E. BARKER.

FACTS ABOUT ARIZONA

In your issue of December 16, pp. 911 and 912, there are a few misleading statements which no doubt you will gladly correct when

your attention is called to proper data. Twelfth Census, our population was 122,931 -inclusive of 26,480 Indians-net 96,451; there is where the 29 per cent. of illiteracy came in. Same volume, pages 909-13, you will find that the native white illiterates are only 4.5 per cent., while in the whole United States the percentage is 4.9. You note 7,000 Mormons; eliminate the women and children, leaving 1,378 voters, not a very large factor in 44,081 voters. It is a fact that this is a rapidly developing mining territory. In 1902 there were engaged in this industry 5,323 persons, about 4.5 per cent. of population, while in agriculture we have 16,174, or 13.1 per cent. of population. Males of working age, fifteen and up, show 30.3 per cent. engaged in agriculture (United States Census, Vol. 2, p. 508). There are in culture now about 257,000 acres—less than one-third of the available land when irrigation works in progress are completed. With the large holdings subdivided, no farmer can individually do justice to over forty acres; there will be room for a quarter of a million agriculturists. New Jersey has only 68,881; Pennsylvania, 341,712; Connecticut, 44,796; Massachusetts, 66,551, etc.; so in ten years' pro rata progress with past ten years we will show a good general average with any State in that line-based upon the fact that farming pays upwards of 150 per cent. better than the general average of the whole United States, and our methods are yet very crude.

I inclose twenty pages of solid facts if you care to be further informed, a 1 pray for your good services to aid us in o r desire to be let alone and work out our salvation on merit.

SILAS ST. JOHN.

Prescott, Arizona.

[Some of Mr. St. John's figures are either ambiguous or inaccurate. According to the Twelfth Census, of the total native white population (over ten years of age) the percentage illiterate in the United States is 4.6, while that in Arizona is 6.2. The detailed statistics are, however, of little importance. We took the figures in the Senate Report on the Statehood Bill as sufficiently worthy of confidence to be used in round numbers. At best our correspondent's statements and those in the pamphlet containing "twenty pages of solid facts" are in refutation of the arguments for joint Statehood with New Mexico; they furnish even more ample arguments against single Statehood for Arizona. -THE EDITORS.]

STATE CONTROL OF CORPORATIONS

[The following letter, coming from a Justice of the Supreme Court of Pennsylvania, deserves, by reason of the character and position of its author, careful consideration. It does not, however, modify our conviction, for reasons often given, that corporations engaged in inter-State commerce must be brought under the Federal control; that no State control is or can be adequate.—The EDITORS.]

For the most part I agree so thoroughly with the views of The Outlook that it only emphasizes an occasional point of difference. In the last issue you repeat a statement which, in my judgment, ought not to pass without protest. You say, referring to Federal control of corporations, "proper control is no longer possible by the single State which creates corporate existence." I beg leave to question sharply the accuracy of this statement, and I submit that it has no foundation in fact. On the contrary, the State which creates corporate existence has the power of complete control over its creature, as absolutely as has the potter power over the clay which grows into shape under his hands and which takes the form that he gives to it.

A corporation can do nothing except that which by its charter it is authorized to do. It is in this respect limited—like the powers of the Federal Government. It can do that only which its charter expressly or by fair implication gives it the right to do.

Plainly, then, the remedy for wrongful action by corporations lies in limiting their powers, when they are being created, and by supervising them more closely, by the same authority which called them into being.

Does any one doubt for a moment the power of the State of New York to supervise and control to any desired degree the insurance companies chartered by that State? Certainly not. Insurance companies can be controlled by the State to just the same degree and with the same success as are the savings banks. The only trouble heretofore is that the State has not attempted to discharge this duty. But her ability to do it cannot be questioned.

Neither can the right of each State to protect its people against the inroads of loose or unsafe corporations organized in other States be questioned. Under the principle of comity between the States, a very broad and liberal practice has grown up of permitting practically free and unrestrained access to the people of the various States by corporations of other States. But this principle has been carried too far, and has been

abused. Here again the power to protect themselves is ample, and needs but to be called into play. The American people are entirely capable of protecting themselves in all of the several States and in each community.

The real danger in any attempt at contro! of corporations by the Federal Governmen? is that it would be made the excuse for preventing the people of the States from guarding their own interests. Under the plea of a Federal license, the dangeous and predatory concerns would claim the right to invade the whole country, without regard to the protests or sound requirements of the States that might desire to protect their people. We are not infants. We do not require the protection of any Bureau at Washington. In fact, supervision by the National Government would be a farce. No matter how good the intent might be, it would be impossible to supervise the business interests of this great, vigorous country of ours by any bureau of clerks at the National capital. Such an attempt would be unwise and un-American. We believe in home rule, and the right and duty of self-government in this country; and it would be a sorry day indeed when the people of any State in the Union acknowledge their inability to protect themselves from the evils and dangerous practices of a corporation created under the laws of their own State, or that of any other State of the Union.

Just give the people a chance. Do not fetter them or tie their hands by any attempt to take from them the power of control, by centralizing it at Washington, and there will be no difficulty in properly protecting every right and in preventing its invasion. No greater calamity could befall us as a Nation than the formation of the habit of looking to Washington for help, instead of helping ourselves at home. The curse of Russia is its system of bureaucracy and centralization. Let us not turn our faces towards a system which Russia is struggling to throw off. Urge, rather, the assumption of thorough and reasonable control by each State over the corporations which it creates, and the exercise of the right by each State to exclude from its borders such corporations, created by other States, as do not comply with its own reasonable requirements enacted for the protection of its own citizens. In other words, let each State require from the stranger within its gates the observance of the same rules and regulations which it imposes upon its own people for their own good. Were this done, there could be no reasonable com-W. P. POTTER.

Supreme Court of Pennsylvania, Justices' Chambers, Pittsburg, Pennsylvania.

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LIFU DOS

EVERY WOMAN should preserve her health, firength, beauty, poise and, with these, her happiness. It is my secres in treating nearly 18,000 women and my knowledge of what my work has done for them that makes me know I can do as much for you.

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Only 15 Minutes a Day each day, in your own home, by following my simple directions. Just a little care is all you need to make you the ideal woman of your type. Do not say it is impossible, that matter has not given you the first requirements of health she beauty—I know it is possible; I have accomplished it for the means.

Drugs are Dangerous

use no drugs. I never treat a pupil cannot help. If I cannot help you, I

Women Young
Do you think
"True Mother-hood" means de-I Keep

wothness a outing hood means dewothness a mother to her family and neglect
of herself? True?—No, the true mother is true to her sacred duty of preserving and protecting herself, that
the may be of greatest service to her family. The mother needs health, strength and lightness of heart that
the may be a true wife —the delight of her husband, his joy, rest, social help and inspiration, not a slaving,
sufficient dead-weight for his pity.

The true mother keeps well, beautiful and young, that she may enjoy the confidence and admiration of her children and be their guide and welcome councillor.

If you could sit beside me, at my desk, I could, if I would, show you, daily, hundreds of letters from pupils I have helped. I never violate a confidence, never show a letter without permission, but here are a few snatches from one morning's mail:

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Just think, Miss Cocroft, before I took up your work I could not eat anything without the greatest distress, and now I think I could DIGEST TACKS. I am so happy.

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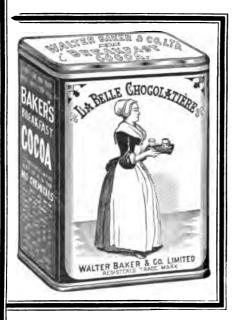
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The Outlook

Volume 82

Saturday, January 20, 1906

Number 3

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THE OUTLOOK is a Weekly Newspaper and an Illustrated Monthly Magazine in one. It is published every Saturday—fifty-two issues a year. The fourth issue in each month is an Illustrated Magazine Number, containing about twice as many pages as the regular weekly issue, and many pictures. PRICE.—The subscription price is Three Dollars a year, payable in advance. Ten cents a copy. POSTAGE IS PREPAID by the publishers for all subscriptions in the United States, Hawaiian Islands, Philippine Islands, Guam, Porto Rico, Tutuila (Samoa), Shanghai, Canal Zone, Cuba, Canada, and Mexico. For all other countries in the Postal Union add \$1.56 for postage.	

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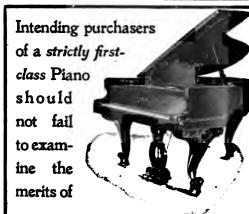
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he Outlook

SATURDAY, JANUARY 20, 1906

As Representative Hep-Railway Rate burn is Chairman of the Regulation Inter-State Commerce Committee of the House, his railway rate regulation bill has been awaited with special interest. It seems to be more comprehensive than any yet presented. It broadly defines "transportation" as follows:

Transportation shall include cars and other vehicles and all instrumentalities and facilities of shipment or carriage, irrespective of ownership or of any contract, express or implied, for the use thereof, and all services in connection with the receipt, delivery, elevation, and transfer in transit, ventilation, refrigeration or icing, storage and handling of property transported.

The bill also provides that—

It shall be the duty of every carrier subject to the provisions of this act to provide such transportation upon reasonable request therefor, and to establish through routes and just and reasonable rates applicable thereto.

The requirement that the railways should regulate refrigerator cars more satisfactorily by furnishing icing is regarded as a specially distinguishing feature of this "Midnight tariffs" are also to be bill. abolished by a provision that no schedule is to be changed without thirty days' notice. Failure to publish rates makes the common carrier amenable to a writ of mandamus issued by any United States Circuit Court, and failure to comply with the requirement that, to be lawful, rates must be just and reasonable, is punishable for contempt, the Commission being empowered to apply for an injunction against any common carrier to restrain it from doing a transportation business until the provisions of the bill are complied with. The Commission is authorized to determine and prescribe a just and reasonable maximum rate; its order is to go into effect thirty days after notice to the carrier, and is to remain in force unless suspended or

set aside by a court of competent juris-Violation of the Commission's diction. order shall subject any carrier to a fine of five thousand dollars for each offense. The various District Attorneys are to prosecute for the recovery of such forfeitures. The bill increases the Inter-State Commerce Commission to nine members, stipulates that they shall be appointed for a term of nine years (not more than five men from the same political party), and fixes the annual salary of each member at \$10,000. The Commission is to have access to all records and accounts kept by carriers. Present indications point to a concentration of effort in the House to press the Hepburn Bill.

A Protest Against

Widespread dissatisfaction in Kansas Excessive Rates with the freight rate situation found expression early in January in a public convention held in Wichita at the invitation of the Commercial Club of that city. Letters were sent to leading men throughout the State inviting their attendance for the purpose of upholding the Kansas delegation in Congress "in the fight which they will be called on to make for legislation which will give the country at large, and especially Kansas, relief from unjust discrimination and excessive freight rates;" and of insuring the nomination of officials, both State and Federal, who should represent the people on these important questions. In response to this call several hundred delegates assembled, and adopted resolutions asking Congress to confer rate-making authority upon the Inter-State Commerce Commission, the rates to become effective within a reasonable time, subject to the review of the Supreme Court; favoring a uniform system of railway bookkeep

ing under supervision of the Inter-State Commerce Commission; urging the enactment of a law forbidding railroads to issue passes to any persons except employees; and declaring for a direct primary vote for the nomination of all officers, including United States Senators, in order to minimize corporation influence. The most important work of the Convention, however, was its organization of the Kansas Civic League, modeled after the Municipal Voters'. League of Chicago. It was decided to name an Executive Committee of Sixteen. two from each Congressional district. which in turn is to select an executive committee of five to report on the acceptability of all candidates for public office. These committees are to keep watch of the records of all officers, with a view to ascertaining especially their susceptibility to corporation influences. These records are to be printed, and the organizers of the movement believe that Kansas sentiment is such that the Civic League's report will have a powerful influence in determining elections. Such well-known men as J. L. Bristow, ex-Assistant Postmaster-General, Governor Hoch, and William Allen White are behind the movement.

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There has been introduced The Tariff into Congress by Representon Art ative William C. Lovering a bill to remove the tariff from paintings in oil or water-color, statuary, sculpture, drawings, engravings, and etchings. This measure is not a new one. It has been introduced into a previous Congress by Mr. Lovering, and the movement to attain this end has been active for a number of years. There are only two possible arguments for the retention of the tax on works of art. First, that it affords protection to American artists. argument is effectually disposed of by the attitude of the artists themselves, who are practically unanimously opposed to the tax as it now stands. They do not want protection, and they resent the suggestion that they need it. second argument is that the rich people of the country should bear their share of the taxation. If the poor man is to have

the price of his tea, coffee, and tobacco increased by the tariff, the rich man should have the price of his paintings and statues increased. Experience has shown, however, that the tax does not produce revenue in any considerable amount. It simply acts to prevent the importation of works of art, which does no good to any one. A tax on art, moreover, is not a tax on the rich. Works of art are not altogether the possession of their owners; the canvas or the marble may be the property of the rich, but the art, which gives value to the canvas or the marble, belongs to any one who can enjoy it. Thus persons of moderate means and even of downright poverty may share with the wealthy every benefit that a work of art bestows. Experience has shown that the people actually do receive such benefit. Many paintings and sculptures find their way from private collections into public museums; but even those which remain private property are to a great degree made accessible by loan exhibits. It is to be hoped that a second bill, now before Congress, also bearing Mr. Lovering's name, which would limit admission to the free list to those articles which shall have been manufactured or produced at least fifty years before importation, will have the fate it deserves. Absolutely nothing can be said in favor of its distinctive feature, except on the ground of protection. Such ground in the case of art is a veritable swamp. Yet even this bill, by providing that the tariff be removed from all objects of art fifty years old, would at least give us free access to the art of the world of two generations ago. As it is now, the man who would enrich this country with the work of any European or Oriental artist must pay a fine as if he were committing an offense.

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The German-American Tariff The new German high-tariff law goes into ef-

fect on the first of March. Its minimum rates cannot be offered to this country in return for such feeble concessions as the Dingley Act empowers the President to grant in exchange. This situation

has caused two bills to be presented in Congress for a maximum and minimum The first of these was presented in the Senate by Mr. Lodge, of Massachusetts. It provides for a reduction below the Dingley rates to nations according tariff concessions to American products, and imposes an increase over the Dingley rates to those countries which accord no such concessions. The second and more drastic bill was introduced in the House by Mr. McCleary, of Minnesota. It provides for a twentyfive per cent; increase over the Dingley rates on imports from all countries which fail to give to the United States the lowest rates given to any nation, leaving the existing Dingley rates as the minimum tariff. During the past -week Senate and House leaders have been in conference over the general question. They propose that the President shall be authorized at his discretion to issue a proclamation making the maximum tariff applicable to any country which unjustly discriminates against American products. If the McCleary bill is decided upon, or even the Lodge bill, the impression obtains that Germany would not submit to the proposed enactments without taking retaliatory steps. The question then arises, Is Germany or America in a better position to sever all trade relations? We sell to Germany twice as much as we buy from her. More than half our exports to Germany are in raw cotton; it is argued that if the cotton factories of the Fatherland are to be kept running, Germany must continue to buy cotton in America. On the other hand, we must not forget how necessary the prosperity of other German manufacturers is to the American as to the German people. Such a proposition as the McCleary measure, however, is not tariff revision; it is tariff reprisal.

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The Panama
Canal

Secretary Taft has thought it worth while to reply explicitly and exhaustively to the charges of maladministration of affairs on the Isthmus made by Mr. Poultney Bigelow in an article referred to in The Outlook last week. Indeed, the fact that so complete and minute a statement,

covering every charge in such detail, could be made almost instantly at Washington, shows in itself how thorough is the knowledge possessed by the Administration of everything connected with the practical working of the Canal plans. Secretary Taft's reply to Mr. Bigelow's charges, taken in connection with President Roosevelt's special Message to Congress, already quoted in The Outlook, in which it is declared that "the work on the Isthmus is being admirably done and great progress has been made," together also with the full report of the Commission, lately made public, will convince fair-minded people that no credence is to be given to vague accusations " of jobbery or immorality or inefficiency or misery," to quote the President's words, and that he rightly attributes most of these statements to "irresponsible investigators of a sensational turn of mind," or to individuals with a personal grievance. Congress has accepted the President's suggestion for a full investigation into present conditions on the Isthmus, and a Senate Committee is now in session for that purpose, not, it is stated, with the idea of discovering any hidden sensations, but that Congress may have an intelligent understanding of the entire situation before enacting further legislation. Secretary Taft has already appeared before this Committee. and has described the duties of the different officials and employees, so that an orderly presentation of the facts may be secured. Mr. Bigelow is among the witnesses to be heard. The fact that Mr. Bigelow's entire stay on the Isthmus was but little over a day, and the further fact that his information was largely derived from two men who have, or think they have, personal grievances against the Canal authorities, have been widely regarded by the press of the country as conclusive evidence of the total lack of any attempt at serious investigation on his part, especially as both facts are kept out of sight very carefully in his article. It is now perfectly obvious that, as we intimated last week was probably the case, Mr. Bigelow studiously avoided making any inquiry from responsible authorities at Colon (the only point he visited), and was interested only in describ-

ing existing defects there without regard to the question whether they were being remedied or what was being done else-Secretary Taft unequivocally denies the charges that appointments are controlled by political influence, that negroes have been brought from the West Indies under a promise of \$1.50 gold a day to receive only half that sum, that incompetent white foremen are being substituted for competent negroes: shows that many other apparently specific allegations of incompetence and mismanagement are based on a misunderstanding or partial statement of facts; and characterizes as too contemptible for answer the charge that the members of the Advisory Board of Engineers avoided on their visit the line of the Canal because they feared yellow fever. The astounding assertion that the Canal Commission had brought women of bad character to the Isthmus was, in a second statement from Mr. Taft, shown to be totally baseless. The Commission's agent, Mr. Settoon, reports that in selecting 283 out of 1,500 women who wished to go from Martinique to the Isthmus, every one accepted was required to identify herself as wife, daughter, or sister of an employee already on the Isthmus, and her claims carefully verified by reference to the list of laborers who had been sent from Martinique to the Canal Zone. Mr. Settoon adds that hostile criticism on this matter was foreseen, and every conceivable precaution taken to forestall it. That such an abominable accusation should be made without a particle of supporting evidence is enough to characterize a critic as outrageously reckless and unworthy of credence.

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The Agitation Against Corrupt Practices

The effect of the insurance investigation is shown in the bills and resolutions already introduced into the two legislative chambers of New York State. These measures may be divided into two classes: those which concern the business of insurance; and those which concern the use of money for political purposes. Those bills which are designed solely to modify the insurance laws are at best defective,

for the Legislature has not yet had a chance to consider the findings of the Investigating Committee. The other measures, however, having nothing to do with a technical matter, such as insurance is, cannot be regarded as prematurely introduced. One such bill provides that every political committee shall have a treasurer, and keep accounts of the money it receives and expends; that it shall file such accounts with the State: that no corporation shall contribute for the success or defeat of any candidate or proposition; that upon petition to certain courts a summary investigation shall be instituted; that if a candidate be found guilty of corrupt practices he shall, if successful in the election, forfeit his office, and, whether successful or not, shall be disqualified from holding any public office or position of trust for five years; and that, if the candidate be one for a legislative position, the decision shall be forwarded to the legislative body, and shall be prima facie evidence of the facts. Another such bill provides in greater detail for the prevention of corporations from contributing, directly or indirectly, to any political organization or candidate; it provides that any corporation violating this mandate against making such contributions shall forfeit its charter; that any officer, stockholder, or agent who aids or advises the violation of this mandate shall be subject to imprisonment and fine and to disqualification from employment by any corporation for five years; but that any such person testifying to such violation shall be exempt from penalty. It seems almost certain that public sentiment in . the State will effectively demand of the Legislature at its present session a practicable and radical corrupt practices act.

A Move for Municipal Freedom

The United Cities Conference was the name assumed by the delegates who met in Chicago last week at the call of the Municipal Voters' League of that city to consider the relation of National and municipal politics. The invitations were limited to the non-partisan organizations that take a direct part in municipal elections. Among the

organizations represented were the Citizens' Union of New York, the City Party of Philadelphia, the Citizens' Municipal Party of Cincinnati, and the Voters' Leagues in cities like Denver, Minneapolis, and Buffalo. Sixteen cities were represented at the Conference by delegates. Some differences of opinion developed over such subjects as the initiative, the referendum, and the recall, but upon the matter which the gathering was called to discuss there was practical unanimity. The resolutions adopted declare that "the intrusion of National politics in municipal government brings with it issues absolutely foreign to the proper functions and reasonable aspirations of the National parties, and others which are alien to the interests of the municipalities, thereby tending to degrade the National parties and seriously injure city government." The specific recommendations, adopted by unanimous vote, are:

1. That cities should be granted the largest possible measure of home rule, subject only to such general statutory safeguards and restrictions as may be necessary to protect the general interests of the State as distinguished from the local interests of the municipality.

2. That the party column on the ballot should be abolished; that the names of candidates for a single office should be printed on the ballot under the designation of that office, and that it should be made impossible to vote a straight party ticket by a single

mark or cross.

3. That municipal nominations and elections should be completely separated from State and National nominations and elections, and should occur at different times, and that nominations for all municipal offices be made by petition or by an efficient method of direct primaries.

4. That the number of elective municipal officers should be reduced as far as practicable, always preserving the right to elect members of the municipal legislative body

or city council.

5. That the merit principle should be applied to all departments of city administration under practical and efficient civil service laws.

In the reports from the cities represented and in the discussion that preceded the adoption of the resolutions all the speakers agreed that the two greatest obstacles to permanent municipal betterment were the intrusion into municipal politics of National partisanship and the malign influence of special interests, chief of which are the public service corporations. Mayor Jones, of Minneapolis, told the Conference that much improvement had been wrought in Minnesota politics by the use there for several years past of one of the features recommended in the resolutions, namely, an arrangement of the ballot under which it is made impossible to vote a straight party ticket by a single mark or cross.

A Legal Adviser to a Judge

Judge Grosscup, of the Federal Court, Chicago, has taken a rather extraordinary step in appointing John Maynard Harlan as his special legal adviser

in connection with the receivership of the Union Traction Company of Chicago. Mr. Harlan was the Republican candidate for Mayor a year ago against Judge Dunne, and for years has been actively identified with public affairs in Chicago. He was at one time an Alderman, and as such gave considerable attention to the street railway question, being chairman of a committee appointed to report on the subject. Judge Grosscup, in appointing Mr. Harlan, said:

From the beginning of the Union Traction receivership I have recognized that the receivership represented in reality five interests-the interests of the bondholders, the interests of the original underlying com-panies, the interests of the North and West Side companies, the interests of the Union Traction Company, and the interests of the public—and that the interests of each of these were in some respect in conflict with the interests of each of the others.

As Judge Grosscup pointed out, the pendency of negotiations between the companies and the city for a settlement of the outstanding differences has created a conflict. The Transportation Committee of the Council represents the public, "but it represents the public at arm's length to the companies;" the representatives of the companies represent the companies, but "at arm's length to the city;" and between them the court must act as an impartial arbiter bound alike to do justice to both, but without a legal adviser. Upon reflection, Judge Grosscup declared it seemed that it were well to have at this time such an adviser, and that Mr. Harlan was, in his judgment, in a most favorable position to fill

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that place: "He is a public-spirited citizen; he is an excellent lawyer. citizen and as lawyer he has given the subject considerable consideration. He has stood for a settlement that would be just and which will give to the people of Chicago the quickest good service, and would also in the quickest practicable time give to them the opportunity of actual municipal ownership. It is understood, of course, that Mr. Harlan's service as such adviser will not in any way limit or restrain his freedom of opinion and action regarding the extension of ordinances as they should be submitted by the Council to the vote of the people." In commenting on this appointment Mayor Dunne said: "It seems to me to be unique in judicial history that a Federal judge should desire a legal ad-While Mr. Harlan is amply equipped through knowledge of the traction question in Chicago to act as adviser, yet it is a novel precedent to set in the courts to have a judge select men to tell him what the law is. I have absolutely no objection to Mr. Harlan, who. is an able lawyer and who has studied civic conditions. He will give good advice; but I cannot understand why Judge Grosscup needed a special legal adviser." We believe that this action is without precedent; but it appears to The Outlook to be an excellent precedent to be followed in other cases. Why should not a judge who has special duties of a complicated nature to perform in addition to his regular work avail himself of especially competent aid in performing them?

That the negroes The Economic Future of the South are of the Negro facing a future of grave uncertainty is the only conclusion which can be drawn from a discussion which took place at the recent annual meeting of the Economic Association at Baltimore. This uncertainty is not due to the causes which have brought misfortune upon the colored race in the past so much as to the possibility of the introduction of competition, from which the negroes in the past have largely been For three hours a crowded audience, dotted here and there by a dark

face, gave close attention to this subject as it was presented by Dr. Du Bois, of Atlanta University, Mr. Alfred H. Stone, of Mississippi, and others. Comparisons were drawn between the work of different classes of negroes, and also between the negroes and those white immigrants who, having turned southward, are competing with them in raising Especially telling were the figcotton. ures showing the greater industry, thrift, and stability of Italian workers as compared with the blacks. Although the economic future of the colored people is hung with dark clouds, Dr. Du Bois saw light for his race in such work as has been carried on in Lowndes County, There, where land has been sold to colored people, over seventy men have emerged from an ignorant and shiftless population to a position of independence. Such a success, which has been attained elsewhere as well, shows what may be accomplished in rural communities if colored men are guided by wiser heads than their own. Mr. Stone, who is a young and enthusiastic cotton-planter of Mississippi, and a level-headed student not only of Southern history, but also of the present labor conditions in the South, is a believer in the possibility of a stable economic condition among the colored people. He employs only colored laborers, and he believes that, if properly trained and guided, they can hold their own in competition with white immigrants. His facts and figures, however, show how intimate must be the union between moral and economic salvation. "Unstable as water, thou shalt not excel," he quotes as the summing up of his observation of the negro race. It is true that a large proportion of the colored people are succeeding better than the white man knows, because they are serving those of their own color; yet the millions who lag behind, and who are in danger of being overcome by the incoming tide of foreigners, owe their unhappy condition not so much to their inferiority to the white man as to their inferiority to the most moral, industrious, and stable of their own race. If their economic condition is to be improved, there must be first developed

in them those qualities which command success among any people, but lacking which there is no promise for a bright, industrious future.

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The elections for the British The British Parliament, which are in **Elections** full tide this week, opened very dramatically last Saturday at Lancaster, which has been for many years the home of free-trade principles. Balfour, the former Prime Minister, and the leader of the Unionist party, ran as Conservative candidate from the east division of Manchester, where his former majority was 2,453. To the great surprise of England and to the consternation of the Conservatives, he was defeated by a comparatively uninfluential Liberal and free-trader, Mr. T. G. Horridge, by a majority of 1,980. London at first refused to believe the news from Manchester, where Mr. Balfour's great personal popularity seemed to insure the safety of his seat; but it has been shown more than once that London, like Washington, is the last place in the country in which to detect currents of public opinion. In another division of Manchester Mr. Winston Spencer Churchill turned a Conservative majority at the last election of 1,471 into a Liberal majority of 1,241. The five Manchester seats in Parliament, which have been held by an aggregate Unionist majority of 7,321, now represent an aggregate Liberal majority of 11,111. It has long been a tradition in the middle counties that as Lancaster goes so goes England; but it remains to be seen whether that prediction will now hold true. The Liberals are jubilant; the Conservatives are in consternation and do not know what to expect. There are, however, 670 seats to be filled in the new Parliament which will meet at Westminster on February 15. Last Saturday sixty-six of these seats were filled by the election of thirty-nine Liberals, fourteen Unionists, six Labor candidates, and seven Nationalists, the Liberals making a gain of twentytwo seats in thirty-nine constituencies. The Liberals have a majority in the House of Commons of about a hundred to overcome, and the situation would

have been hopeless if what is called a political landslide had not taken place. If the indications of popular feeling afforded by the early elections are to be trusted, the Liberals in the next House will have a good working majority over both Conservatives and Nationalists, and will go into power after a victory even more overwhelming than that which was gained by Mr. Gladstone in 1880. It is quite clear that the Conservative endeavor to make the election turn on the Home Rule question has disastrously failed; the English people are voting this week on the question of free trade against protection.

On Sunday and Monday The Moroccan of this week, at Algeciras, Conference Spain, a point directly across the bay from Gibraltar, there arrived many of the principal delegates to the international Moroccan Confer-The Spaniards and Moors who make up the population packed the quays to witness the debarkation of those who came by sea, especially of Mohammed el Torres, the Moroccan Minister of Foreign Affairs, who was accompanied by a party of no less than sixty persons, all garbed in Alowing white robes and wearing white and red turbans. Owing to the presence of many squadrons in Gibraltar Bay, the town of Gibraltar was also another center of activity. American bluejackets were conspicuous in the streets, where they fraternized with the British sailors. Rear-Admiral Sigsbee and the captains of the American squadrons have already been the recipients of many courtesies, among them a dinner given by Admiral Sir Edward Chichester, the commandant of the naval establishment. The American representatives at the Moroccan Conference are Mr. White, our Ambassador at Rome, and Mr. Gummeré, our Minister at Tangier. The nations chiefly interested are France and Germany, M. Revoil, formerly Governor-General of Algiers, being at the head of the French, and Count von Tattenbach-Askhold, lately special German Commissioner to Morocco, at the head of the German delegation. The importance of Morocco to France lies largely in its propinquity.

The fact that there is a long boundary line between Algiers, a French possession, and Morocco, naturally gives to France under any circumstances a special interest in whatever takes place across the frontier. It has been difficult to maintain peaceful commercial intercourse between the two countries; for, to this end, it is absolutely necessary that the caravan routes be kept open, and the various tribes in the mountains of Morocco are perpetually blocking these routes and even invading Algiers.

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For many years competent The Future observers have argued that of Morocco Morocco could not continue much longer to exist in a state of The civilization which has barbarism. transformed Algiers and Tunis from barbarism to law and order and to material prosperity is the nearest of all civilizations to give to Morocco like benefits. Hence, the interest which France takes in protecting her Algerian territory from predatory raids by Moroccan tribes, and in keeping trade routes open, is doubly justified in the eyes of the world when one considers how France has transformed that part of North Africa in which she has been working. time ago France entered into an agreement with England by which, in return for certain favors, England definitely acknowledged the propriety of France's special influence in Morocco. Later, Spain did the same. Although the German Government was well aware of the agreements, it made no protests for many months, when suddenly the German Emperor took advantage of a Mediterranean journey to touch at Tangier, and there publicly to question the right of any nation to exercise special influence in Morocco. A long series of negotiations between France and Germany then followed, of which the Algeciras Conference is now the culmination. The position of France and of all the nations represented at the Conference is that the commercial and political integrity of Morocco shall be upheld. Any difference of opinion arises largely from the questions of an international police and an international disposition of the tax

collections. On these points of dispute the American representatives will not vote, unless and until they have received special instructions from home. They will be powerless to commit this country to any policy with regard to disputed questions; their presence can be justified only as an effort to secure by moral influence a friendly settlement of differences.

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The strained relations be-

France and tween President Castro, of Venezuela Venezuela, and the French Government last week reached a serious crisis, and although the Venezuelan chargé d'affaires at Paris did not receive his passports as was expected, still in every other respect diplomatic relations between the two countries have been discontinued. The despatches from Paris assert that there is no intention on the part of the French Government to make a naval demonstration in Venezuelan waters, but that France is fully determined to have its demands considered seriously and formally. There is no sign whatever of friction between France and the United States with regard to the former country's relations to Venezuela, and it is certain that whatever France may do in this matter will be submitted to our Government for approval before final action. It will be remembered that the demands of France are based upon an award of \$685,000 to French claimants and credit-France abstained from the international blockade of Venezuelan ports in which England, Germany, and Italy joined. The French claims, amounting to nearly \$8,000,000, were submitted to the adjudication of an umpire appointed by President Roosevelt. The reduction of the \$8,000,000 of claims to \$685,000 was considered so favorable to Venezuela that every common-sense motive seemed to prompt an early and friendly settlement by President Castro. But, following his usual course of delay, obstruction, and international contumacy, Castro has ignored his duty in this respect, and has pushed the friendly feelings which France had for his country to their limit and beyond what patience and forbearance require. attempt last year to annul the concession

of the French Cable Company added to the unpleasantness of the relations between the two countries, and for some time France has not had a Minister at Caracas, but has put its interests in the hands of M. Taigny, whose authority as chargé d'affaires Castro has positively refused to recognize, asserting that M. Taigny was personally unacceptable to him. The whole affair is characteristic of the irascible and arbitrary temper of Castro, but it is probable that when he is pushed to a positive decision as to a definite rupture with France he will accept the inevitable ungracefully, as he has done before in similar cases. Another report of interest from Caracas is that the United States, through its Minister, Mr. Russell, has chosen in the asphalt complications a single case for the determination of American rights namely, the Critchfield claim, which involves no charge on the part of Venezuela that the company concerned had abetted the revolution, as is alleged of the New York and Bermudez Asphalt Company. It is said that the Critchfield Company invested a large sum in a railway and in the asphalt business under an agreement that they were to be exempt from certain taxes, and that a year ago what amounted to a prohibitory tax was placed on the Company's business by President Castro, in violation of the agreement.

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As yet, there is of Russian Finance course no possibility for a large, long-time, low-interest loan to Russia, such as was requested early last autumn from the combined resources of Germany, France, England, and America. Nor is there possibility even for a smaller loan at four per cent. and at former quotations. Indeed, the Russian Government has done wonderfully well in obtaining any additional cash credits. It accomplished this result last week, not once, but twice. In Berlin the bankers, after long negotiation, finally consented to the renewal of the Russian Treasury bills, which mature in Germany next month. In Paris the bankers, after equally long negotiation (France already holds two billion dollars'

worth of Russian bonds), finally consented to advance a short-time loan of about \$50,000,000, at a net cost, so it is announced, of six per cent., to the State Bank of Russia, pending the time when the Government can contract a regular loan. Such credits placed by one State Bank at the disposal of another are not infrequent. With these successes the Russian Finance Minister's assurance in submitting his budget to the Council of the Empire last week must have been considerably strengthened. As he pointed out, the enormous deficit of 480,000,000 rubles (\$240,000,000) was due to the noninclusion of some of the Japanese war expense in the estimates of the previous report. The Minister frankly admitted that Russian finance had been rudely shaken both by the war and by the internal upheaval, but confidence would be restored, he believed, when the disorders ended. For expenses in connection with the Duma a credit of \$900,000 was assigned; a peculiarly interesting feature of the report was the statement that this would be the last budget to be submitted solely to the Council, as the Duma, or Parliament, would be hereafter empowered to co-operate in examining it. The fourth noteworthy event in what seems the most notable week for over a twelvemonth in Russian finance was the Government's authorization to the State Bank to issue another \$75,000,000 worth of notes.

Financial Betterment After action, reacand Political Reaction tion? Is that to be always the rule in Russia? At all events, the news of the Government's financial betterment last week created surprise, disheartenment, and even consternation, not only among Russian revolutionists, but even among many Moderate and Liberal reformers, who, equally ardent in the desire for constitutional government, would seek it by methods only of law and order. The opinion seems now general that only necessity will force autocracy's hand; that when there is no necessity a policy of reaction is to be feared. Count Witte, the financial genius who has triumphantly brought his country through other crises, is now, as

Premier, the present Finance Minister's chief, and not improbably dictated that Minister's policy. Now that the country has quieted down somewhat after the Moscow excesses, and revolutionary leaders are openly deprecating any further risings until the people are better organized, the Prime Minister evidently feels surer of his ground. In November the zemstvoists, the leaders of the district and provincial assemblies, were informed that the now historic Imperial manifesto of October 30 in no wise restricted the Duma's eventual functions. Many persons thereupon fancied that the manifesto implied the ultimate elaboration of a constitution by the nation's representatives; indeed, Count Witte himself was reported as saying, "If any one shall rise in the Duma and propose a constitution, I will support him." This report has not been contradicted, so far as we know. November was a stormy month for the new Russian Government and for Count Witte, the first Russian Prime Minister. The revolutionists had to be conciliated if possible, but, at all events, as the history of the following month showed, the Government's first duty was to maintain order. It would seem, however, that in January the revolutionists may be defied by an increasingly strong Government, if we may judge from an article in the "Novoe Vremya," which proclaims, on the Premier's behalf, not only that the manifesto in no case affects the autocracy's status, but that the Duma will be dissolved if it attempts to meddle with the Empire's fundamental laws. Furthermore, the same journal declares for Count Witte that he reckons on the Manchurian army to apply the final quietus to the revolt. The date of the army's return, it adds, will mark country's complete pacification. Count Witte has made an admirably courageous and deservedly successful stand against the combined forces and intrigues of the court, church, army, and bureaucratic circles. He has in great measure well fulfilled his duty, with the rough tools at his command, of preserving law and order throughout the Empire. He is too astute a statesman, we believe, to punish one revolution by provoking another. But the cause for that

other would certainly be found in any withdrawal, and perhaps even in a threat to withdraw, any part of the Emperor's grants in his October manifesto—the Russian Magna Charta.

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Copies of the "North The Chincse China Daily News" and Awakening the "South China Daily Journal" containing comment on recent disorders in China have now reached this country, and offer the opportunity to Americans of considering more fully the Chinese side of the various questions at issue. Concerning the affair at the Mixed Court, which has jurisdiction over the foreign settlement at Shanghai, involving the imprisonment of some Chinese in the municipal jail instead of the Chinese prison, a letter in the "South China Daily Journal " says:

It is natural for the foreign resident to ask why the Chinese community should create such hubbub over what seems to the English press an affair of minor significance... The Chinese are angry because the British Assessor, ignoring the Mixed Court regulations, ... insisted on executing rules proposed by the Consuls-General, which rules have never been sanctioned by the Chinese Government.

In the "North China Daily News" a "foreign resident" (who, we have since learned, was the only foreigner openly to espouse the Chinese cause) declares that Chinese opinion, official and mercantile, considers that this alleged denial of justice was distinctly not in accordance with the treaty rights of the Chinese in Shanghai, an opinion upheld by the Taotai or Governor in a recent speech to the heads of various Chinese guilds:

I must apologize to you all for not having managed foreign affairs in the past with sufficient firmness, thus resulting in the disgraceful trampling on our rights that was witnessed at the Mixed Court. Be assured that I will exert my utmost to erase the shame inflicted on the Chinese Government and the people by the action of the British Assessor and the municipal police.

Deep-seated hostility is again manifest in China towards foreigners. It was first shown against Americans on account of the unjust application of our Exclusion Act. So far from the boycott

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of American goods being ended, it continues seriously to affect American trade in the Yangtse and Canton regions. Chinese newspapers now advocate the boycott of Indian opium because of the act of the British Assessor at Shanghai. Another result of the present movement is seen in the official discouragement of concession-hunting by foreigners. The aggressive spirit of the Chinese has been increased by the successful maneuvers of the Chinese Northern Army, and by the return from Japan of many Chinese jingo students. Hence the proposed withdrawal of the remaining international troops from China has been meeting with increasing opposition from the Powers.

Dr. George Ernest Mor-China for the rison, the accomplished Chinese correspondent of the London "Times" in China, and one of the representatives of the "Times" at Portsmouth, addresses in his letters not only the readers of that paper who are British subjects, but a world-audience. His letters always find appreciation among those who care for the intimate knowledge which may be expected from one who has repeatedly crossed China on foot and horseback during the past dozen years. He has now returned to China from England. He finds evidences of a remarkable change—nothing else or less than the awakening of a genuinely national Chinese spirit. First among the causes of this awakening is Japan's victory over Russia. Indeed, it is difficult for any of us to overestimate the moral effect of the defeat of the great land power of the West by the rising sea power of the East. A second cause is found in the reaffirmation and strengthening of the Anglo-Japanese alliance, guaranteeing the integrity of Chinese territory, come what may. A third reason, in Dr. Morrison's opinion, is to be found in "the impolitic action of the United States, which, failing to perceive that the recent boycott was merely one manifestation of a general anti-foreign policy, has adopted an attitude of conciliation which Asiatics naturally misconstrue" (we suppose Dr. Morrison would add, "as a confession of weakness"); but there is more to be said on this point at another time. A fourth-reason for the greater resistance to for-eign aggression is seen in the presence again in China of large numbers of half-educated students, who have returned from Tokyo with the somewhat vainglorious idea that China is capable forth-with of following Japan's example in dealing with the rest of the world. Dr. Morrison's final reason for the change in national spirit is found in the withdrawal of the British-China squadron and the reduction of foreign garrisons in the metropolitan province of Chili.



As the causes for the change The Results of the Chinese towards for-· eigners are five in number, so the practical results are also fivefold. First, the provincial authorities, with the aid of Japanese instructors, have made a great effort to bring Chinese military forces into a state of efficiency. Secondly, there is the determination to grant no further railway or commercial concessions to foreigners, and, so far as possible (as in the case of the Canton-Hankau Railway) to revoke existing concessions, this being sometimes accompanied by rather chaotic proposals for undertaking railway and mining enterprises under the auspices of the provincial officials and gentry, most of these people, according to Dr. Morrison, being of a corrupt type. A further result of the growing. restlessness may be seen in the circulation of a mischievous anti-foreign literature, similar to that with which the boycott movement was organized last May. A fourth result is to be found in the persistent agitation by the native press and in public meetings for the fuller assertion of China's sovereign rights against foreign aggression; this includes, of course, the abolition of foreigners' extraterritorial privileges, and, as illustration, Dr. Morrison points out the Shanghai Mixed Court incident (referred to in a preceding paragraph), incident which would be only locally important were it not one of the manifestations of a general policy. Finally, the Treaty Revision Commissioners, "at no time disposed towards

facilitating commercial relations," are now "openly obstructing all further development of commercial relations" between China and the rest of the world. Dr. Morrison warns England and the other commercial Powers that united action must promptly be taken to point out to the central Government at Peking and to the provincial viceroys the inevitable consequences of their encouragement of present tendencies. It is true that, since Japan's triumph over Russia, and since the guarantee of Chinese integrity by the Anglo-Japanese Treaty, the ancient spirit of evasion, delay, and passive obstruction, characteristic of some Oriental dealings, has in a marked degree given place to a franker, bolder, and more aggressive spirit of deliberate and organized resistance to foreign influ-It is natural that this should be so, and we should welcome any robust display of normal nationalism.

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Recent information which The Famine has reached us about the in Japan famine in the northern provinces of Japan shows that the calamity is the greatest that has happened to that section of the country for the last sixty years. So appalling are the conditions that the committee chosen by the foreign community of Sendai declare that out of a population of 899,279 at least 280,000 people are in extreme distress, "with no possibility of saving life without aid." Three provinces are involved in the distress—those of Miyagi, Fukushima, and Iwate. The immediate cause of the famine is the failure of the rice crop; and how complete this failure has been is shown by the fact that in-Miyagi alone the yield of rice this year is less than twelve per cent. of the normal amount. One of the newspapers in this province says: "The sentence of death has been passed on the people of this province;" and the statements of the committee are so worded as to show that there is little exaggeration in this pitiful declaration. In Fukushima some 300,000 people are already in distress, and in Iwate, the least afflicted of the three provinces, it is said to be certain that 100,000 people cannot live without

speedy and continued aid. Throughout the famine-stricken territory many thousands of men, women, and children have been reduced to eating the bark of trees, shrubs, and roots. In a far less devastating and deplorable famine which took place in Japan a few years ago aid was extended cordially and generously by many foreigners living in Japan, and it is not too much to expect that the present crisis will call out similar help. The facts we have quoted are all taken from an appeal issued, not by Japanese, but by foreign residents in the afflicted provinces who are in sympathy with the people and with the authorities. American member of the foreign committee of relief is Mr. J. H. De Forest, of Sendai, Japan, and any contributions sent to him directly or to any of the foreign papers published in Japan will be promptly and carefully administered. should be added that the Japanese Government has opened public works for the employment of the poor, and has issued provincial bonds to meet the emergency, while generous gifts have been made by the Japanese themselves all through the Empire. There remains, however, a very wide margin of suffering to which the generosity of sympathetic people the world over may well be applied.

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Perhaps the strangest and The Dewey most picturesque craft that en Route ever sailed the seas since the beginning of navigation is now breasting the billows of the Atlantic on its long voyage from the United States nearly half-way round the globe to Manila. is the gigantic floating dry-dock Dewey, which started on its voyage of 10,500 miles a fortnight ago to America's possessions in the Orient, and will make, if it meets the expectations of its builders, only about one hundred miles a day. A week or more ago it had reached the Bermudas and is now slowly making its way across the Atlantic to the Straits of Gibraltar, going by way of the Mediterranean and the Suez Canal. It is expected to reach the Philippines in about three and a half months from the time of starting, if everything goes as planned. A few facts and figures about this strange craft will reveal its magnitude and give an idea about the greatest towing enterprise ever undertaken. The Dewey is an immense box of steel 500 feet long, 134 feet wide, and 42 feet above the sea. Its bottom rests upon great square tanks eighteen feet deep, and its side walls, including the parts above and below water, are sixty-four feet high. When its tanks are pumped out, the great machine, the most stupendous ever constructed for any navy, not only raises itself above the waves, but is capable of lifting high and dry above the waters not only the heaviest of our great war-ships, but also the heaviest yet planned for any navy in the world, for it has a lifting capacity of twenty thousand tons. By means of its construction it is not only able to lower its floor to scoop up the mightiest battle-ship and lift it above the sea, but it also is able to dock itself. Here. however, its powers end. It has not been possible to devise a rudder vast enough to steer such a craft, and hence it has to be towed. Three great naval colliers, the Glacier, Brutus, and Cæsar, each equipped with a wireless telegraph plant by means of which they can communicate with each other and the crew of the Dewey itself, have it in tow, and the tow-line is a mile and a half long. being made of manila hawsers twisted together and terminating in steel cables. The great length of the tow-line was made necessary to meet the heave of the sea, especially during a West Indian hurricane or an East Indian monsoon, while the pneumatic cushions by which the cables are attached to the convoys break the force of sudden strains. enterprise of constructing such a vast machine and towing it to the Philippines is a great one, and involves a large expense, the dock itself costing a million and a quarter dollars, while the expense of towing it will add greatly to its ultimate When it arrives safely at Manila. bowever, the United States will be placed upon an equality with Japan and Great Britain as respects docking facilities. In times of peace the dry-docks at Shanghai and Hongkong are, of course, open to American ships; in time of war these would be neutralized, and thus, in case of a war between the United States

and any other power, its navy in the Orient would be placed at a great disadvantage.

Principal Fairbairn's
Lectures
The third series of the Deems lectures (founded by the late Dr. Charles F. Deems) has just been

late Dr. Charles F. Deems) has just been given under the auspices of the New York University, by Dr. A. M. Fairbairn, of Mansfield College, Oxford, to large audiences, mainly of clergymen, upon "The Religion of Jesus Christ." may be regarded as a continuation of the work on "The Philosophy of the Christian Religion," reviewed at length in The Outlook of September 20, 1902, and was largely devoted to literary criticism of the primitive documents in which the historical ground of the religion is It was unfortunate, said Dr. Fairbairn, that an anti-Christian animus largely colored the beginnings of New Testament criticism, yet criticism properly applied and understood was a thoroughly conservative force. It shows, he said, that most of the documents, and all of the most important, date within a period of eighty years from the death of Jesus, while the oldest of them, from the pen of Paul, is not later than twenty years after that event. "How did so extraordinary an evolution of thought take place within so short a period?" Literary criticism alone lays a sure foundation for historical criticism. Pauline Epistles, earliest of the primitive documents, exhibit the same evangelical tradition that was subsequently embodied in the historical Gospels. "The Synoptic Gospels and the Acts use the language which the Pauline Epistles had naturalized; we could not have the former without the latter." On the other hand, it was demonstrable that the former had not been modified by the latter. The ground here taken is substantially the same as in "The Philosophy of Religion," and is sufficiently con-The discussion, necessarily close, was punctuated with antithesis and spiced with epigram in Dr. Fairbairn's characteristic style, with constant enlivenment in pointed remarks by the way, as in objecting to painting the Ten Commandments on the wall of Christian

churches-just what the emancipated Hebrew serfs needed, but Christians need more than such negatives. portrait drawn of St. Paul finely exemplified the legitimate use of historical imagination. Dr. Fairbairn has a happy way of refreshing the close attention he requires with personal reminiscence and anecdote; e.g., Tholuck, visiting Scotland and discovering that the kippered herring which regaled him meant preserved herring, amazed and amused the Scots by praying that Thomas Chalmers might long be "kippered to the Church of Scotland." If at times Dr. Fairbairn seems to dogmatize, he tells us, "My pupils have taught me how to handle the New Testament," and declares that at the heart of dogmatism is a lurking skepticism. For lack of time large portions of the manuscript had to be left unread. It is probable that the whole will in course of time go to form another massive work. The concluding lecture, which reaches the heart of the subject, is entitled "The Religion and its Formative Ideas."

William Rainey Harper

It is given to few men to achieve so much in so brief a space as William Rainey Harper achieved in a lifetime of less than half a century. Born in 1856. graduated at fourteen, receiving a doctor's degree from Yale University at nineteen, Professor of Hebrew at twentythree, President of Chicago University at thirty-five, he died at the age of forty-nine, having in his fourteen years of administration put that University in the front ranks of the universities. A scholar whose learning in his special department gave him the respect of scholars. a teacher whose capacity to arouse enthusiasm was such that he was said to have made Hebrew at Yale as popular as football, an extraordinary reader of men, so that in an unprecedentedly brief time he gathered about him a brilliant and powerful faculty, an executive to whose sagacious energy Chicago University is a splendid monument, an administrator from whose instinctive observation and unfailing memory no detail escaped perception and recording, we believe that his greatest and most permanent influence is due to an idealism with which he was credited only by those who had watched his work most closely and studied him most intimately. It was this idealism that enabled him to create a new type of university.

The distinctive characteristic of the English university is culture. Itself the product of a splendid aristocracy, it in turn produces the world's finest aristo-Its product is the English gentle-The distinctive characteristic of the German university is scholarship. Growing up in an atmosphere of erudition, it in turn produces the erudite student. Its product is the German scholar. These two types of university, coming across the ocean, have here been nat-The older college, formed on uralized. the model of the English university, and primarily classical and literary, produced the gentleman—an American gentleman. Its aim was culture. The newer college, formed on the model of the German university, and primarily technical even in its classical and literary work, produces the scholar-an American scholar. Its aim has been scholarship. The difference between the old and the new has been a difference not merely in curriculum and method, but in unconscious aim and spirit. President Harper in Chicago University has given the world a new type, because a type animated by a different spirit and proposing to itself a different aim. If we may define the spirit of the English university by the word culture and that of the German university by the word scholarship, we may define that of the new type that President Harper has given to the world by the word service.

If all readers were careful, which they are not, it would hardly be necessary to say that the difference which we here note is relative, not absolute, a difference not of essence but of emphasis. The older college of the English type produces scholars. The newer college of the German type produces gentlemen; and doubt less the Chicago University has produced both scholars and gentlemen. But the

unconscious emphasis of the first has been on quiet culture, of the second on zestful investigation, of the third on preparation for an active American life. The scholarship which the first has regarded as a means and measure of self-development, and the second as an end in itself, the third has regarded as an equipment for service.

This spirit of service is here too sharply differentiated from that of other and older institutions of learning, for accuracy of definition is never possible in the spiritual realm; but it is the emphasis which Chicago University has put upon this spirit in its organization and administration that has given to that University its peculiar history and its distinctive features. An institution to equip men for service belonged not in an academic town; rather in a great commercial metropolis, and in such a metropolis in the middle West. location was fitly chosen. Equipment for service appealed to men to whom mere culture and mere scholarship made no appeal, and so brought to Mr. Harper the financial partners whose generous co-operation has given the University its endowment; and never, we suppose, in academic history has so large an endowment been given in so brief a time. Equipment for service led to the organization of a course of study continuous throughout the year, with liberty to pupils to come and go, taking their instruction in fragments as best they could. ment for service inspired it to develop a university extension scheme and to form affiliations with sister and smaller institutions, so extending its organic influence into other communities and through other States. This spirit of equipment for service has inspired it with a more than intellectual devotion, has imparted to it an atmosphere of absolute intellectual freedom, has bestowed upon it high ethical standards, pre-eminently so on all sociological topics, and has preserved it from the perils which otherwise might endanger an institution organized in a commercial city and directed to practical ends in a commercial community. last, but not least, this spirit of equipment for service has been caught by other and older institutions, from which the new institution has inherited traditions of culture and of scholarship, and to which it has given in exchange a spirit of direct and immediate serviceableness.

Dr. Harper was a greater man than his generation realized. Doubtless he had the defects of his qualities; but the qualities will be remembered long after the defects are forgotten. To the future he will appear great, not merely for his scholarship, his teaching enthusiasm, his mastery of detail, his indomitable energy; he will be recognized as one who felt. America's need of a new type of university, not to supplant but to supplement other types, and as one who, with the vision to see, had also the power to realize. The future, which he has himself helped to educate, will see that he was the founder, not of a commercial college nor of a technical school, but of an American university. It will see that he was an educational seer and an educational pioneer. And some appreciating friend will build for him the one monument he would desire above all others, by putting in the center of the University campus the college cathedral which it was his ambition to erect there, to symbolize and to nourish that spiritual life which he sought to make the inspiration and the glory of the University, as equipment for service was its dominating purpose.

Such a soul cannot die; death has no dominion over it. Alfred Tennyson has written its biography:

"Life piled on life Were all too little."

Jonathan Edwards has interpreted its spirit: "To live with all my might while I do live." When death sent a message before to say, "I am coming," he altered not one whit his life. He neither defied death as an enemy that he hated, nor welcomed it joyously as a friend that summoned him to rest from his labors. He counted death as an insignificant incident, and with unabated devotion to his fellows and his God he continued his service to the end. Then, when death opened the door, he walked calmly through, from life to life.

The influence of his last days gave a sacred radiance to the funeral services. on Sunday afternoon at the University. They were not a requiem for the dead,

but a commemoration of the living. The fitly chosen words of interpretation and of appreciation spoken by three of his intimate friends were characterized by a simplicity, sincerity, and vision which made those present realize the spirit of the risen leader and forget his broken and tenantless house, and inspired them with hopeful aspiration and strong resolve to live their lives in service as unselfish and in faith as strong as his.

Captious Opposition

It is always a misfortune when there is not a well-organized and watchful opposition to an administration or a dominant party. It has been the misfortune of the Republican party and of the country that for years it has fought a divided party, without consistent leadership in Congress along lines of principle, but simply captious and irritating. A real opposition must be based on general policy; it is always short-sighted to endeavor to harass and embarrass an administration which cannot be successfully opposed along broad lines. The measures with which President Roosevelt is identified are of great importance, and ought to be subjected to the most searching criticism. Such questions as the building of the Canal, the regulation of railway rates, the administration of affairs in the Philippines, the relation of the United States to the South American Governments, afford ample ground for wide divergences of opinion. is plenty of material for an intelligent, statesmanlike opposition to the policy of the Administration and criticism of that policy; but there is no room in an intelligent, capable body of men for an attempt to defeat the measures which represent the policy of the President and to break his popularity by harassing, irritating, and insincere criticism and action. There is evidence that this is the attitude of a considerable body of men in the United States Senate; if so, the sooner the country understands the situation the better. Mr. Roosevelt is not infallible; any measures which he urges on Congress are properly within the scope of the most searching criticism and the sharpest antagonism; but to attempt to break his authority by a combination of the politicians of both parties is not a procedure which will command the respect of the country, or which can be safely proceeded in.

The Senate especially is in no position to take this attitude toward the President, for the country is quite aware of the steady encroachment of the Senate on the other departments of the Government during the past fifteen years. It has seen the declining energy and power of the House of Representatives as a result of those encroachments. It has more than once witnessed the attempt of the Senate to exercise the functions of the Executive. It is gradually coming to understand the persistent policy of the Senate over a long period of years which has practically made it a dictating body in the matter of appointments instead of a confirming body. Any attempt to delay the making of the Panama Canal will not be regarded by the country with any degree of patience. It is a great public need. The people of the United States are behind it. The President's method of dealing with a problem which is very complicated and difficult ought to be examined and questioned, but any captious attempt to delay or defeat the Canal because of jealousy of the President's popularity and the desire to humiliate him will certainly react disastrously on the men of either party who indorse or connive in such a policy. It will be not only unpatriotic, but it will be in the last degree shortsighted. And it must be added in all frankness that the United States Senate, with its recent record and its present membership, is not in a position to break the influence and the authority of the President of the United States. integrity, truthfulness, and courage are just now, in a critical period in our moral history, a possession of immense value to the country. Nothing could be more short-sighted than a persistent attempt to undermine his influence as a man and to diminish his authority as a President. Let his policies be subjected to the sharpest criticism and his measures met by the boldest opposition, but the country will not tolerate any intrigue

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or connivance on the part of a group of politicians to break the force of a personality whose movements they cannot control for their own ends, and who has gone to his present position and secured his present popularity because he seems to the people of the country so unlike, in spirit, character, and method, most of the men who are opposing him.

Half a Loaf

The Consular bill, recently outlined in The Outlook, has been favorably reported by the Senate Committee on Foreign Relations. But in what shape?

The measure, as reported, provides for a grading of consuls-general and consuls. The bill makes seven classes of consulsgeneral, at salaries ranging from \$12,000 for London and Paris down to \$3,000 for the lowest grade; it makes ten classes of consuls, at salaries ranging from \$8,000 at Liverpool to \$2,000 for consulates of the lowest grade. Under such a system men would be appointed as consuls of a particular class instead of as consuls to a particular place. At present some of our consuls are not suited to the places in which their consulates are located, but they are suited to other places; again, some consuls are capable of better work than is required in their. present positions; finally, it has been almost impossible to get good men to serve in certain posts of danger, as in the fever-ridden tropical ports, for instance, yet those are the very places where the highest order of talent may be necessary, for they are often centers of revolution. Under the service by classes we have a right to expect that the Government will (1) secure good material for these "bad" places, and will in any event (2) assign consuls to stations where they will be of greatest benefit, just as army and navy officers are assigned.

Though Secretary Root has declared that "the importance of an inspection service hardly needs demonstration," we venture to reiterate that under the present system the State Department is quite unable in very many instances to ascertain whether a consul is doing his duty faithfully and efficiently. In the reported bill, therefore, as in the original, it is a satisfaction to find provision made that "each consular office shall be inspected at least once in two years." duty five inspectors are to be appointed by the President from members of the consular force; they are to be known as consuls-general-at-large, and are to receive salaries of \$5,000 each. They are to inspect consulates just as National banks are inspected by bank examiners, and to be put in charge of consulates which are going wrong just as bank examiners are put in charge of banks which go wrong.

As reorganization of the consular service on the lines of classification and inspection is essential, for whatever there is of committee approval of the original measure let us be truly thankful. if this is the cheering part, the rest is disappointing and disheartening. cording to the bill as presented to the committee, original appointments were to be made only to the lowest grades and upon examination, the examination to be conducted by a board of three persons, one to be an examiner designated by the Civil Service Commission, one the Chief of the Consular Bureau, and the third an officer in the State Department chosen by the President. Whenever a vacancy should occur in the lowest two classes of consuls, the Secretary of State was to require the board to examine such applicants as the President should designate. After the President had designated the applicants, the board, as soon as possible, was to hold an examination and certify to the Secretary of State the names of the applicants who had passed. All Senators cling more or less closely to their prerogatives of patronage. Hence the provision for examination was struck out. Incredible as it may seem to some, the Senators have spurned the application of the merit system in appointments. Not only do they want appointments made according to the present spoils system, but apparently they would discard promotion as well, for they have also struck out the original bill's provision authorizing the President to designate men to fill vacancies as consul-general

or consul above class No. 6 from the class next below. Now, these features of examination and promotion are even more vital to consular reform than are the features of classification and inspection. Chiefly because we have, as a rule. sent as consuls to South America, for instance, not persons examined as to character, ability, and experience, but mere spoilsmen—those unfamiliar with languages and with peculiar commercial and political conditions—the exploitation of South America's possibilities in trade and transportation has been almost entirely pre-empted by English and German capital. It naturally follows, then, that whatever South America needs in imports is mostly supplied by those two Powers, England and Germany, which have been developing her resources.

Some weeks ago the New York Board of Trade and Transportation proposed to organize a National consular reform convention. This proposal might well be carried out to show Congressmen what Boards of Trade and Chambers of Commerce think. But the consular service benefits not only these organizations; it ultimately benefits every American citizen. It is of direct import to the Californian wood-cutter, for example, that his forests should furnish the wood for railway cars in Argentina and not the resources of that Power which controls Argentinian transportation. It is of direct importance to all our citizens that our exports shall be increased and that our interests abroad, whether of promotion or protection, shall be intelligently watched. To do this we must increase our consular efficiency by some such reasonable and conservative measure as that presented to the committee; civil service reformers would have gladly seen it more radical.

Of course, if the consular bill passes in its present shape, President Roosevelt can carry out the provisions of the original bill by Executive Order, but that will do nothing permanently to improve the service. Mr. Roosevelt's successor will be free to make appointments in the bad old way. To prevent this, citizens generally should make their Congressmen understand that the people will not rest content until the full measure of

reform called for by the original bill has been secured from Congress. Half a loaf should be welcomed as better than no bread, it is true. But when one should and can get more, why be pacified with half a loaf?

The Spectator

The Spectator has always longed to be a hero. Not a real hero, be it understood, but a hero in a book. It is not the hero's looks, nor his inexhaustible savoir-faire, nor even his luck with women, that rouses envy; it is his knack. The subtlety of his every-day methods puts the Spectator's utmost finesse to shame. Why, there was a hero once who could throw into a flutter of his finger-tips what costs most men labored speech. No need for him to say, "James, me coat!" With a slight gesture he could summon anything, from a policeman to iced drinks. "I made almost imperceptible gesture of remonstrance," he writes in a letter, "to vouchsafe apologetically, 'If it affords you any comfort, yes!" Remonstrance, apology, comfort—all in a wave of the hand! The Spectator believes that, if he took it into his head, that hero could indicate by a slight gesture that he wanted one to take the cube root, square it, and multiply by one hundred and forty-nine. Note what a variety of things he contrives to command by the same signal. "I signed to Margaret," the hero records at different places in the book, "and she

at once { left the room." blew out the candles." fetched pen and ink."

Now, when the Spectator signs to Margaret, she just says, "Henry, dear, what is the matter? You know you are not good-looking enough to make faces!" As for slight gestures, he tried them, all kinds, at breakfast the other morning, his modest object being toast. Had the hero put forth a tenth of that muscular exertion, he would have got fall de foie gras, or grilled bones at the very least. But nobody offered the Spectator a thing, though they all stopped breakfast-

ing and regarded him with pained surprise. The Spectator had to invent a joke on the spot to cover his confusion.

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It must be that people devote a good deal of time to observing the hero, for he never appears to experience the slightest difficulty in conveying intelligence by a look. When he opens his morning paper, every one is instantly aware from his face that King Edward has been assassinated. Now, whatever may be his expressiveness of feature—and the Spectator does not question that it is phenomenal—he could not do this unless some one were attending. When his look conveys to his sweetheart the fact that he has a rope-ladder in his waistcoat pocket, does not at least half the credit belong to the lady?

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The Spectator points this out to his spouse when she complains that he is blunt. "Were you more keenly alive to changes in my countenance, my dear," he suggests mildly, "there would be no need of bluntness." The Spectator faithfully tried the hero's delicate speech-without-words during his courtship. For more than one evening he sat by Her side, to outward seeming tongue-tied, but all the while throwing into his burning glances thoughts that lay too deep for tears. And she? she was embroidering at the time, and occasionally making disjointed observations, and the Spectator thought he saw a stifled yawn swelling her throat. Against such crass insensibility as this what chance have subtle methods?

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That hero has the eye of an eagle. He can see more on a dark night than the Spectator can in broad daylight. There was a moon, to be sure, that time he caught the flash of a stolen diamond at a hundred paces; but it will be remembered that the night was thick and the rain heavy when he detected Claribel escaping over the garden wall in the scullery-maid's bonnet and shawl. And then he sees so much more than meets the eye. The Spectator is inclined to think that the hero can tell from one

glance into the brown eyes of a dog the whole history of its master's past life. The Spectator can usually tell himself when Bruno has been stealing chops; but then Bruno is singularly bad at hiding his sins. But he has never assisted his master, or anybody else, to run down an evil-doer, and strangers' dogs do that sort of thing for the hero every little while. When the Spectator has anything serious to conceal, he proposes to converse with the mind-reading hero only by telephone. And even then his voice may betray him; for the hero's ears are as quick as his eyes. If he has once met you, there is no hoodwinking He knows your voice and your him. step, and the step of your horse, and the step of your sister's cat. More than that, he knows the creak of your boots when they are on another man's feet.

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There's one thing that puzzles the Spectator. How can a man like this, a man who, when shown a cake of soap, knows instantly that it was last used to lave the hands of Mary Andersonhow, I say, can such a man fall into the egregious blunders he does? Perhaps he feels bound to give readers a good run for their money. But when the Spectator hears Sherlock Holmes saying, after the hundredth demonstration that his friend Dr. Watson is the very king-pin of incompetents, "My dear Watson, I hope you can come with me to investigate this case. It means a great deal to me, having some one on whom I can rely "-why, then he wonders.

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It may be that for these gifts of nature the hero deserves no credit. But there are directions in which he displays pure skill. Consider how he can turn a conversation. The company is speaking of starfish, perhaps, and the starfish is for him an awkward subject just then, or he has deep reasons for wishing to shift to wireless telegraphy. Does he crash rudely in, as the Spectator would, with, "Apropos of nothing at all—?" Mark his methods. He modulates that conversation with as much science as a musician leading a motif through a series of keys. Starfish, crawling things; crawling

things, fright; fright, telegrams; telegrams, wireless—and there you are. Nothing could be neater. But the Spectator notes that no one interrupts the hero with freezing looks and, "As we were saying—" Could the hero even turn Margaret when she is bent on a picture hat?

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It is little short of marvelous the success the hero has in screwing facts out of people. When he wants to know anything, he just strolls across the street and engages somebody's coachman in conversation, and it all comes out. Spectator has tried this sort of thing himself, with indifferent results. Engaging people in conversation seems for him to have two sides. The people engaged don't, figuratively speaking, "give down" as they ought. Once when he tried to talk with a washerwoman about her mistress, she suddenly set her reddened arms akimbo and drawled expressively, "Aw, say now, ain't you the gawlly article?" Nobody ever treats the hero to language like that I

The hero displays an enviable ability to get along and be cheerful under difficulties. Catastrophes that would break another man pass over him without destroying either his courage or his health. He can go off to the heart of British Guiana without a cent beyond his passage money, and live there in absolute secrecy for three years or more, and not once need to call upon his bankers. Usually he starts out with a tooth-brush and the clothes he stands in, but, no matter what he goes through, those clothes are always good enough to propose to the woman he loves in, when he gets back. The Spectator wishes he knew the hero's tailor.

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Of the Spectator people demand that he shall not bore them with repetitiousness any more than is needful. All his small cherished habits are stigmatized as nervous tricks, of which he ought to break himself. No such burden is laid on the hero. He is permitted to employ the Homeric method—the polyphlosbeosing sea, once polyphlosbeosing, always

polyphlosbeosing. If the hero twirls his mustache on the first page, you recognize him in future by the twirl; it is his trade-mark. If he begins by smoking cigarettes, he does nothing but light them, and wave them about, and flick off ash, and reach for fresh ones, to the end of the chapter. This is a rôle the Spectator is not permitted to play. If, for instance, he should take to "tapping with one nervous forefinger" on all the tables in his own and other people's houses, as the hero does, he wouldn't have a friend in the world.

•

But, then, the hero is a privileged character. People will let him tell them in prolix detail about things they must have known before he was born. The Spectator suspects this is not good for him, and he is always glad when the heroine gives the egoist a dose of his own medicine. "George," she cooes, "I don't suppose you've thought of it from that day to this, but once you saved me from a blazing building. Three steps at a time you dashed up the stair and bore me fainting in your arms—" Conscious of having set her the example, the hero cannot resent this sort of thing. stands it in silence. A rare silence, be it said. For when the mood of loquacity is on him there is nothing the hero won't Even the family skeletons are dragged from their closets and paraded in the public eye. "My father was a political shyster," says he, with engaging frankness, "and my mother was at one time a professional shoplifter." No one appears to think any the worse of him for these disclosures. It makes the Spectator wonder whether he could afford to make public the most devious ramifications of his own ancestral tree. Lacking the hero's artful way of putting things, he doubts the prudence of such a step.

There is one more thing that must be mentioned, one more art of the hero's, which the Spectator has tried most vigorously to acquire. It would be so effective when one wanted to express indomitable will. How does the hero "square his jaw"?

AN IMPORTANT FRANKLIN DISCOVERY

BY MARY CAROLINE CRAWFORD

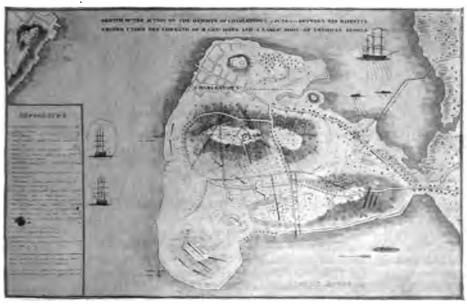
THE bicentennial anniversary of the birth of Benjamin Franklin renders of special interest a very valuable collection of Franklin manuscripts—including original writings heretofore unknown, household accounts, court invitations, and samples of work done at Passy on the printing-press Franklin had there set up for the entertainment of his grandson, Benjamin Franklin Bache—which, by a curious accident, has recently come into the possession of the University of Pennsylvania.

Benjamin Franklin Bache, it would appear, had carefully cherished these manuscripts. For it was through George Fox, his executor, that they have been preserved all these years. George Fox left them to his children, and one of these, Mary, when clearing out a garret, came upon several barrels full of old papers which she proposed to send to a paper-mill. Her neighbors, however,

interfered. Remembering that Fox was connected with the Franklin estate, they urged her to go through the papers before disposing of them as so much waste. This she did, with the result that manuscripts of exceeding value have been unearthed.

The letters in this collection, as well as many pamphlets and other documents, appear to have been part of the material brought back by Franklin upon his return from France in 1785; but the collection also contains letters, pamphlets, and papers belonging to both earlier and-later periods, and a carefully cherished map of Bunker Hill which must peculiarly interest students of American history and of Franklin's character.

Inasmuch as it seemed particularly fitting for the University of Pennsylvania to possess some memorial, that should be valuable historically, of him who was distinctly its founder, an effort was made,

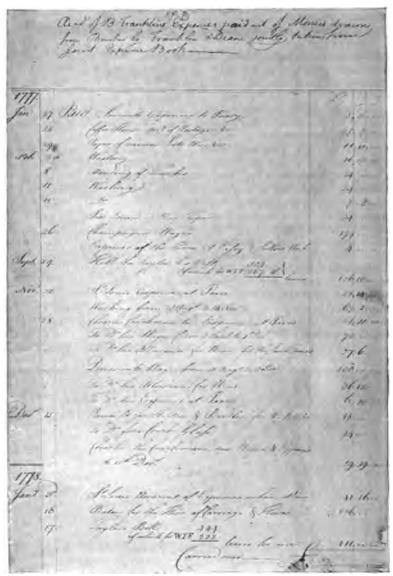


MAP OF THE BATTLE OF BUNKER HILL Owned and long preserved by Franklin

when it was ascertained through Dr. S. Weir Mitchell that the collection could be purchased, to raise among friends the to historical students. amount of money necessary to its acqui-

rant the opinion that there is here considerable material of decided importance

An essay in Franklin's writing on



A PAGE FROM FRANKLIN'S HOUSEHOLD ACCOUNT WHILE AT PASSY

sition. This was successfully accomplished, and the mass of material was duly deposited in the University library.

Though no exhaustive examination of it has been made by the present writer, it has been looked over enough to war-

"The State of British Plantations in America," and Franklin's private expense account at Passy from January, 1783, to March, 1784, are of extraordinary interest. Some of the items in this record move one to smiles, notably "for washing from 25 August to 14 November, £67.5." Under date November 20, 1788, we find that Franklin "paid duties on 50 bottles of rum, £75." Another item is of £6 for sealing-wax which Franklin and John Adams used together.

Special interest attaches, of course, to specimens of work done on the printingpress set up by Franklin at Passy. An ode is one such specimen. Likewise interesting is the passport blank issued by Franklin, representing the United States in France, invitations sent out by the Doctor and received by him, and other things of the same kind. As was the fashion of the time, all these invitations were in writing, with the exception of those issued by Franklin himself, which were printed blanks in bold-faced type in the center of a large, cheaplooking sheet. In form as well they are curious, as witness:

Mrs. Adams' respectfull compliments to Dr. Franklin, is much obliged to him for the oil he was so kind as to send her, and is very sorry that his indisposition deprived her of the honoir of his company to dinner. Mrs. Adams takes the liberty of recommending a sedan chair by which the inconvenience of arising from a carriage might be avoided. Auteuil. December 3rd, 1784.

This offers certainly a quaint example of the stately courtesy which Abigail Smith, the daughter of a Weymouth, Massachusetts, parson, took on when she became the lady representative in France of the new Republic.

"Mr. Jackson," another card runs, "has the pleasure to send Dr. Franklyn a piece of elastich gum with a thousand good wishes and compliments."

Still another age-yellowed note presents "Miss Ralph's best respects. She with pleasure informs Dr. Franklin that her pappa, as the Doctor said yesterday, was out of danger, but he remains very low indeed; she is very sorry that she had not the pleasure of seeing Dr. Franklin, on Tuesday, but she having set up all night was obliged to go to bed in the morning, she desires her compliments to Mrs. Stepehenson Dec. 31, 1761."

A reminiscence of the Craven Street days is the following: "Mr. William Neale presents his compliments to Mr.

Benjn. Franklin and Mrs. Stevenson and will do himself the pleasure of sending his carriage to convey them to Richmond on Monday next. St. Mary's Hill, 27 June, 1765. The carriage will be at Craven street at any hour they shall appoint." Just here it is interesting to note that this Mrs. Stevenson (in whose household Franklin dwelt while in London) believed always in the nobility of the man. One letter from her in the collection under discussion tells her old friend all about her poor people in a way which shows clearly that Franklin had been a kind and practical helper in her ministrations to others. Her gratitude for this appears, too, when she, an old woman, in the face of approaching death, turns to him as her guide and consoler, "the best man she had ever known." She had wintered and summered him, as she says, in the Craven Street days, and "could not be deceived about his real character." It is worth while to recall this when Franklin is decried as a worldly-wise man. That he was many-sided is undeniable; but one side of him certainly was benevolence and wisdom.

Apparently he was looked on as a living encyclopædia by his correspondents. From France, from Germany, from Italy, came letters asking advice. Robespierre, then a young lawyer in Arras, sends to Franklin his brief of a law case in which he supported the efficacy of the lightning-rod, and asked for Franklin's opinion of its merit. How tremendously this discovery had stirred the people of Franklin's time is particularly well brought out in this letter. He who was to become famous through connection with the Commune was admitted to the bar in 1781; soon afterward he argued the question of the legality of lightning-rods, and published a report (without his name) called "Argument on Appeal from the Judgment of the Sheriffs of St. Omer." (The sheriffs, it appears, had ordered the destruction of a lightning-rod erected on his house.) This report was translated into both English and German, and a copy sent to Franklin, who no doubt annotated it himself before he returned it.

Here is a translation of the Robes-

pierre letter accompanying the report. It is now in the original French in the University of Pennsylvania collection:

Sir: A judgment rendered by the echevins of St. Omer, prohibiting the use of lightning rods, has afforded me the opportunity of pleading before the council of Artois the cause of a sublime discovery for which humankind is indebted to you. The desire to aid in uprooting the prejudices opposed to its progress in our province, led me to have printed the argument which I made in this matter.

I venture to hope, sir, that you will deign to receive kindly a copy of this work, the object of which was to induce my fellow citizens to accept one of your benefactions. Happy to have been able to be of service to my region in determining its highest magistrates to receive this important discovery, happier still if I can add to this advantage the honor of securing the patronage of a man whose least merit it is to be the most illustrious savant of the world, I have the honor to be with respect, sir, Your very humble and very obedient,

DE ROBESPIERRE,
Advocate to the Council of Artois, Arras, 1 October,
1783.

With still another distinguished man, no less a personage than Edmund Burke, Franklin is shown by these papers to have had an important correspondence about this time. In a very manly and beautiful letter dated "Charles street, Oct. 15, 1781," Burke begs Franklin's intercession, "not as the ambassador of America, but as Dr. Franklin, my friend, and the lover of his species," to the end that General Burgoyne be not returned to captivity in America.

"I have lately been informed with great certainty and with no less surprise," Burke writes, "that the Congress have made an application for the return of my friend, Gen. Burgoyne, to captivity in America, at a time when the exchange of almost all the rest of the convention officers has been completed. It is true that this requisition has been for the present withdrawn. But then it may be renewed at every instant."

That it was not renewed we may count, perhaps, Franklin's sign of reciprocation for the sincere esteem in which Burke evidently held him.

Turgot corresponds with Franklin about smoke prevention in these manuscripts, and others submit schemes on every imaginable subject—beg the Doctor to suggest topics for literary and scientific discussion, ask for offices for themselves and for their children, or inquire about friends and relations who have gone to America. Franklin, it would appear, preserved everything; frequently, too, he made characteristic indorsements of his replies to letters; he interpreted as well, by writing between the lines, Robert Morris's cipher; and on all public documents he made marginal notes that are exceedingly interesting to read to-day.

With Robert Morris and Robert R. Livingston there was constant correspondence, both personal and official, and even Franklin's great patience was frequently tried beyond silence, if we may judge from the indorsement, "Money, Money," written on a resolve of Congress

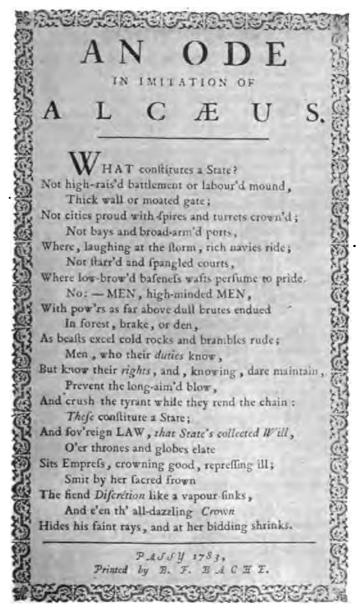
concerning expenditures.

The manuscript "Memorial of the State of the British Plantations" shows that Franklin had thought over the possibility of a separation from England as early as 1731, but in the fevered times of 1749 he would not utter a word, even in Germany, that would be considered treasonable. Franklin's copy of the draft of the first Constitution of Pennsylvania, with the indorsement, "to be sent to Dr. Franklin by the first post," is another interesting relic contained in this collection. In all, there are over five hundred pieces of manuscript, ranging from Franklin's own draft of the essay just mentioned down to his latest correspondence.

The letter of Ingenhous, Secretary of Catherine II., and physician to Marie Theresa, shows one of Franklin's means of influencing public opinion on the Continent. No subject which concerned anybody seemed to be foreign to his interest and his intellectual grasp. request of the German pastor Knoepfl for an American Lutheran church brings out prettily the friendly sentiment of German teachers and scholars for the second fatherland. The letters of English friends show what a strong current of sympathy there was among thoughtful people for the struggling colonies. The intercepted letter from Sir Henry Clinton shows the warnings that the British Government received from Americans. Numerous copies of letters sent by

Franklin are also here, as are the manuscript minutes of a court martial held on board of Paul Jones's ship, Bon Homme Richard—an investigation by

age of Addison, an age when style in composition was a subject of very careful thought, and "a perfect essay, a key to literary immortality." These manu-



ODE PRINTED ON THE PRESS SET UP AT PASSY BY FRANKLIN FOR HIS GRANDSON

which, it is interesting to note, the man whose bones have lately been brought to America was completely exonerated. Franklin grew up, of course, in the

scripts especially show the immense care which this literary man of the eighteenth century bestowed on all that left his hand.

THE CHURCH AND SOCIAL REFORM WORKERS

BY W. D. P. BLISS

THE American Institute of Social Service has been investigating the Church connections of the men and women engaged in constructive social reform work in the United States. Returns have been received and analyzed from over one thousand such persons. Of these, 401 were workers in associated charities, 339 were in settlements, 272 were connected with various National social reform organizations. All portions of the country were represented about in proportion to their activity in such reforms. Of the total number, 417 were men, 495 were women, the excess of women being in the associated charities and settlements. Among the other reform societies men were in the majority.

What is the result? Much has been said about the lack of interest and of participation on the part of the churches and even of church people in social reform, and yet here we have the result that out of 878 social reform workers reporting upon this point no less than 753 are returned as communicants in some church. Even if the 134 who did not report on this point be all counted as non-communicants, it still makes 753 out of 1,012, or 74 per cent. Surely, measured by this standard, church people, who are only about 25 per cent. of the community, are contributing far more than their share to social reform work.

This is so contrary to ideas much bruited in certain quarters that it becomes of interest to see how the returns were secured and whether they may be regarded as fairly reliable and representative.

The method was by sending blanks to the secretaries of all the associated charities in the United States, to the head workers in the settlements, and to the presidents or secretaries of National reform organizations. There was no picking or choosing; blanks were sent to all whose addresses could be secured. Each person to whom a blank was sent was requested to fill it out for individuals known personally to him or her as social reform workers. They were asked not to report the names of the individuals. so as to avoid seeming to pry into personalities or to be seeking information in regard to individuals. It was thought, too, that in this way more returns could be obtained. As a guarantee, however, of good faith, each one sending in a report was asked to sign his or her name to the statement that the returns did represent the facts as to workers in social reform personally known to the sender of the facts. To obviate reduplication, each was asked to report for individuals so intimately connected with the society or organization in question as not to be likely to be reported by any one else. One thousand and twelve such returns were made. It would seem, therefore, that here we have a considerable body of information at least fairly both reliable and typical.

It is indeed conceivable that persons friendly to the Church might be a little more likely to fill out such reports than others. Doubtless in the returns there are some errors and some reduplication, yet, making every allowance, the result seems to have been carefully obtained and to be entitled to considerable confidence.

What perhaps made the result even more surprising is the returns from the different classes of workers. Of those reporting on this point, the percentage of communicants among the associated charities rises to 92 per cent.; with the settlements it is 88 per cent.; among other reform organizations it falls to 71 per cent.

We have here, doubtless, indication of a tendency on the part of church people to prefer the more conservative methods of reform; yet even here we have the remarkable showing that 71

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per cent. of the workers in the National reform societies who reported on this point were communicants, and 61 per cent. of the total number, counting all not reporting on this point as non-communicants.

What does this finding mean? It will be further elucidated as we consider further figures, but it may be said at once that it does not mean that there is therefore no basis for criticism of the Church. There is in the returns no slightest hint or indication of activity in social reform on the part of the churches themselves. was not the subject under investigation. Blanks were not sent to any institutional church, nor to any distinctively church organizations. It was taken for granted that workers in such societies would be affiliated with the church. If anything, the presence of such a large proportion of church people in societies distinctly extra-ecclesia would indicate that the Church herself was not doing such work. at least not sufficiently to furnish an adequate outlet for earnestness and We think no one can know effort. church and social conditions in the United States without believing that such is the case. At least in these returns the churches as institutions do not figure.

But what the returns do indicate is that a large and probably increasing number of, presumably, the younger and more earnest and active members of the churches are entering the social reform ranks. The larger number are doing so, certainly, in conservative ways. The difference between 92 per cent. of communicants in the associated charities and 71 per cent. among National reform societies is not a small one. Church people still prefer what the ardent social reformer would call "charity "in place of "justice." Nevertheless, it shows which way the wind is blowing. Complaint is raised in many quarters of the decreasing number of candidates for the sacred ministry; may it not be that in the large number of church men and women found in these social efforts there is one cause for this scarcity? The ministries of man they regard as truly sacred, as truly divine, as the ministries of religion. It is certainly evident that if the churches would retain their hold upon the earnest young men and women of our day, they themselves must enter the social field.

It is also clearly evidenced by the returns that religion and Christianity and the creed are not dying. It is a time of change, but the changes are modal and not of faith. Still, to-day, the majority of the men and women who are striving to make the world better—at least in the United States—are members of the Christian Church and believers in the Christian faith. Rather do we see to-day Christianity blossoming into a new life and the creed putting forth new credentials in the eyes of a practical world.

This becomes even more manifest as we note the denominational preferences of the social reform workers. churches that do social reform work are. naturally, the churches social reformers choose. Here the Protestant Episcopal Church is well in the lead. Of the social reform workers reported as communicants, the largest number, 163, or 21 per cent., are in the Protestant Episcopal Church. The Presbyterian and Congregational Churches come next, each with 132 communicants, or 16 per cent., although the fact that the latter of these two communions is much the smaller makes its 16 per cent, the more credit-The Methodist Church furnishes 111, or 14 per cent. The Baptists are 46, or 6 per cent. Unitarians and Universalists together number 48, or 6 per The Roman Catholic Church furnishes 40, or 5 per cent. Various other churches supply 83, or 10 per cent.

If we take the proportion of communicants in each religious communion to the total number of communicants in the United States, and compare this with the number of communicants the same communions furnish to social reform, we shall find that the Roman Catholic Church should produce 33 per cent. of the reform communicants, and does produce 5 per cent.; the Methodist Church (of all kinds) should produce 20 per cent., and does produce 14 per cent.; the Baptist Church should produce 17 per cent., and does produce 6 per cent.; the Presbyterian Church (North and South) should

produce 5 per cent., and does produce 16 per cent.; the Congregational Church should produce 2 per cent., and does produce 16 per cent.; the Protestant Episcopal Church should produce also 2 per cent., and does produce 21 per cent.; Unitarians and Universalists together should produce 0.4 per cent., and do produce 6 per cent.; other churches which should produce some 18 per cent. do produce 10 per cent.

These figures, however, must not be read without remembering that they are not in all respects equally fair to each The returns, it must be communion. remembered, are for purely extra-ecclesia work, and it is quite possible that the communicants of a given Church may not enter such activities exactly because so much on this line is being done within church limits. The Church of Rome, for example, more than any other, limits its activities to purely denominational institutions. In these returns the sister of charity and the lay brother have not been counted. By the same measure the Protestant Episcopal Church would stand even more to the front, since this communion, more than any other, has developed the institutional church and the church reform society, both of which are here ruled out. Other churches, too, have activities that here are not taken into large account. The Methodist churches figure largely in certain forms of prohibitory temperance work; the Presbyterian Church has recently made a new and commendable departure in a Labor Department of her Home Missions. Nevertheless, when all is said, these returns do furnish a rough and somewhat striking gauge of the extent to which the various churches are contributing to the social work for human betterment.

These communicants, too, are active communicants. Returns as to church attendance on the part of such workers show this. The average social reform worker, according to these returns, attends church 3.7 times per month. This, however, means little, because it lumps 814 church members who go to church on an average 4.3 times per month, and 120 non-church members who average

only .3 of 1 per cent., or 4 times per year. It is more important to know that there are 93 non-church members who do not go to church at all, and 37 nominal church members (many of them Unitarians or Universalists) who do not go at all, so that 130, or 12 per cent. of the whole number, are thoroughly unchurched. The remainder, however, seem unexpectedly regular at church, as the whole average attendance is 3.7 times per month. This, too, is throwing out 25 returns from individuals reporting an attendance on church of from 16 to 28 times per month, indicating that they represent practically, if not technically, church activities. Clearly the 814 church members engaged in social reform work have not left the church behind them. The Congregationalists report an average of 4.8 per month; Presbyterians, 4.7; Protestant Episcopalians, 4.5; Methodists, 4.4; scattered, 4.2; Roman Catholics, 3.5; Unitarians and Universalists, 2.8. It appears that among the church members in social reform the average attendance of the men is higher than that of the women by 4.4 to 4.1. Among earnest men, where the man is a church member, he is probably more faithful to his church than the earnest woman. The average attendance of church members on the associated charities is 4.2; in the settlements it is 4.4; in other reforms it is 3.9 per month.

Another set of returns shows the dominant early religious influences of the reform workers. Of the 980 reporting on this point, only 22 report no dominant early religious influence; 108 report the influence simply as Protestant, without naming any denomination; 872 report a denominational early influence. Comparing this with their present religious affiliations, we get some indication of the denominational changes that are taking place among this class of workers. The Baptist and Presbyterian Churches have neither gained nor lost. The Baptist Church was the early religious influence of 6 per cent. of those reporting this point, and is to-day the Church of 6 per cent. of the communicants reporting. The Presbyterian Church originally had and still to-day has 16 per cent, of those

reporting these points. The Roman Catholic Church, the Methodist, Unitarian, and Universalist, and the "scattered" Churches seem to have lost. The Roman Catholic Church, with originally 7 per cent., has now 5 per cent. of those reporting the points; the Methodist Church, with originally 15 per cent., has now 14 per cent. The Unitarian and Universalist Churches, with originally 7 per cent., have now 6 per cent.; while the *scattered " Churches, with originally 16 per cent., have now 10 per cent. The Protestant Episcopal Church and the Congregational Church have gained. The latter originally had 15 per cent. and now has 16 per cent.; the Protestant Episcopal Church, having originally also 15 per cent., now has 21 per cent. of those reporting.

So go the denominational changes, indicating, with what has gone before, that to-day it is not, on the whole, the churches most characterized by revivalistic methods, not the churches working on old personal lines, be these Roman Catholic or Liberal, that are reaching the earnest social workers. Personal religion means to-day the devotion of the person to the common effort. Still, as of old, the field is the world, and still, on the whole, it is Christian men and women, and, for the most, communicants in the Church, who are doing the world's work.

A JEWISH GIRL'S STRUGGLE TO RISE IN RUSSIA

[Told by a Zemstvo Official in Southern Russia and Written by Ernest Poole]

KNOCK at the open door of my office. I swung round in my chair impatiently, for I was absorbed in a Zemstvo problem. My glance was caught and held. The problem sank slowly from my mind.

In the doorway, hesitating, stood a slender girl with anxious, shining eyes and soft black hair that curled from under her old fur cap and nestled down to her shoulders. She wore a shabby school uniform—a loose brown belted dress which fell to her ankles. Her right arm was crooked up round a huge gray pack of school-books. The wrist and hand round the pack looked thin and white, but their clasp was strong. She did not lean sideways under the weight of the books, but stood tense. bending slightly forward. Only in the pallor of her narrow, olive face, in the drawn lines about her lips, in her heavy eyelids, you could read the truth anxiety, hunger, sleepless nights. Her big, resolute black eyes were scanning my face with such intense and eager hope that I felt suddenly searched through and through. I rose quickly.

"What can I do for you?"

"I want work." Her voice was very

low. Her eyes kept watching mine. "I'm a Jewess. I'm seventeen, and I've reached the last class in the Gymnasium. The Government hates Jews; they try always to weed us out of the schools at every examination. They tried hard with me, but even the Christian lady-teachers could find no fault. Every year they kept dropping other Jewish girls, but I always struggled through. So now in a few months I can finish.

"But now I can find no more work to get me money, and if I don't pay for the lectures to-morrow they'll expel me from And that isn't all. the Gymnasium. Jews aren't allowed to live in the town unless they belong to the Gymnasium or the University. So I'll be expelled from the town too, and sent into some ugly, lonely, dead little village way out on the steppe. I don't want to be! I want to stay here! I want to learn! I want to be a-" She broke off, looking down hard at the floor, her lips pressed tight. The arm round the books trembled. "I want work."

"Please take courage. We will do all we can. Leave your address here, and—"

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"Leave my address?" She looked up in a flash of anger. "How many times do they say that all over the world? Leave my address! I tell you I must have work to-day!"

I began to walk up and down, racking my brain for some way to help her. I got an idea. Long ago, in a vacation month, I had worked hard collecting statistics among peasant villages. It was not Government work, but I decided now to let her compile these statistics for me. I turned and told her.

Her school-books crashed to the floor. She looked up, her lips half parted in an uncertain smile.

"Is this work for me—all—for me?"

"Yes. But it is very difficult. I'm

not yet sure you can do it."

"If you will only give me a chance!"
Her hand touched mine; her fingers were cold. "Just tell me all about it, and if I know that I can't do it, then I'll tell you, I promise I will! But if I think I can do it, then don't doubt me, don't change your mind, let me try!"

She drew closer and closer, her eyes never leaving mine, straining not to miss one jot of my meaning.

" Well?"

"I'm—I'm almost sure!" she cried. She kept staring at me, thinking intently. Suddenly she laughed—very low, but her eyes gleamed such keen enjoyment that I laughed too.

"How funny I must look!" she cried.

"Staring right at you like this! But wait." The smile vanished. "Just a minute more! Let me ask some questions." Her questions were swift and intelligent. As I answered one after the other, her face grew more and more triumphant.

"Yes!" she cried at last. "Now I understand it. You must let me try! You must!"

I still hesitated. She had so suddenly changed; the tragic figure of a moment before had become such a joyous young girl. "Don't forget," I warned her, "that the slightest mistake in your calculations may make all the work useless."

"Don't trouble! I tell you I understand. Yes! Yes!"

I watched her a moment longer. Then

I went to my desk and took out the mass of papers. She seized them joyously, she gathered all her scattered schoolbooks on the floor, and, kneeling down, tied my papers and her books together in swift jerks. Then she jumped up. I paid her half the money in advance.

She thanked me over and over again, her head bowed down, speaking unsteadily; then she turned and walked quickly out, holding the heavy pack before her in both arms.

Two months later, when my rush of work was over and my afternoons were free, I suddenly remembered my statistics. At once I grew anxious, for she had promised to complete the work in a month, and already two months had gone by. I had forgotten her address. I began to curse my softness in paying her ahead.

I went to the Gymnasium and inquired for a Jewess in the eighth class.

"What do you care about Jew girls?" asked the little lady teacher, sharply.

"This girl is doing work for me."

"H'm. Hope you didn't pay her ahead!"

"I did. The girl was poor."

"Oh, yes, all these Jews are poor! We have only one left—thank goodness—and she's not the one you want."

At last, from the janitor, I found the girl's address.

She lived in the poorest suburb. I could persuade no cabman to drive me out, for in that neglected quarter the roads were sloughs of mud with holes deep enough to smash any carriage. I got a market wagon and started that afternoon. For two hours we jolted and splashed and banged through the cold rain; every few minutes we had to jump out and pry the wheels up from the mudholes. At last we reached the house.

The colorless, ramshackle tenement looked doubly dreary in the darkening drizzle. The gaping, broken windows dripped cheerlessly. Only in one upper window a bright lamp was burning.

I climbed the steep stairs and knocked on the door. It was shoved open; from the low room came a puff of air so stifling hot that I drew back.

"What—what now?" A low voice

stammered. I turned. In the doorway a candle flickered, shaking up and down. It was held by an old man who wore a ragged gray gown and a red plush cap. From beneath the cap his coarse white locks of hair flowed down. In the yellow circle of light his long, bony face was full of shadows. A hooked nose, gray bushy brows, and deep-set, tired, frightened eyes. "What's now?" he stammered.

I asked for the school-girl Rachel.

"But what do you want with her?" He held the shaking candle close to my face.

"She was compiling statistics for me."

"Oh! You are Mr. B——!"

As he spoke my name, suddenly behind him rose a relieved hum of Yiddish voices, and in the dark room I saw shadows moving. Then out of the hum came a low, weak voice speaking in Russian.

"Oh, ask him to come in quickly."

A Jewish boy of fifteen came out. He wore a student's gray uniform; his dark, thin face was strong and intelligent, and his frank eyes at once reminded me of Rachel.

"My sister would like to talk with you." I followed him into the low, hot room and then round a screen. This place behind the screen was the bedroom for the family. Two large beds filled almost every foot of space. On one bed lay three wee children. And between their faces, from a deep hollow in the pillows, looked a face white, weak, but smiling happily. It was Rachel.

The three youngsters were breathing hard. It was plain they had been having a romp in the bed before I entered. Now they stared up solemnly, and I could not help smiling at those three unblinking stares. Rachel, too, turned her face toward them, and her eyes twinkled. She spoke caressingly in Yiddish to the children, and at her words they chuckled, though her voice was only a painful whisper.

"How on earth did you find me?" she asked.

I told her how I had gone to the school.

"That lady teacher," she smiled.
"Poor thing—she looked so sorry when

I came in that last day and paid my bill. I never saw her face look thinner. Then I began your work. I was at it hard every night, but just after I finished, two weeks ago, I got very sick. I think it is typhus."

"What does the doctor call it?"

The face turned weakly on the pillow and the eyes looked straight up at me,

laughing.

"You are so funny. You talk just as if Jews were the same as Christians. Just think of going to a doctor and saying: 'Sir! A Jewish girl with no money is sick five miles away in the mud.'" She closed her eyes. "Can't you see that doctor's face? Can't you hear him stamp and shout? Why, he would be the most shocked old Christian gentleman in Russia.

"So I've just been wondering how I could get well. You see, I'm not lonely. I have three very wonderful doctors here." She pinched the ear of one of the boys, who had been solemnly untwining a long, shining curl of her hair and stretching it out along the pillow. "But I can tell you I'm glad you've come. was getting frightened about your work. My father says I even sat up in my dreams and talked like an idiot. You see, my mind was so bad I couldn't remember your address. But how glad I am that you've come and made everything all right! The work is all done. If anything is wrong, of course I will fix Mother—please bring the work from mv desk."

I did not feel like examining it. I kept watching her face.

"Won't you let me send you a doctor?"

"No, thank you. I know I shall get well, anyway. Only—only if it's true that the money you gave me before was not all you wished to give, then can you give me the rest very soon?"

"Yes, certainly! I still owe you thirty rubles more [fifteen dollars]. I'll give it to you now."

"Thirty—rubles! Oh! But wait—perhaps the work is not done right."

"Then you can correct it when you get well."

She sank back into the pillows and closed her eyes. "Now I am happy. I

didn't think there was so much money left. I can save all that for my medical school."

"Thirty rubles? Medical school? What do you mean?"

"The medical school! That's what I have always worked for." She opened her big eyes, and they shone so brightly that for a moment all the weakness and disease seemed conquered. "I'm going to Petersburg! That's why I was so anxious to finish my school—to go to Petersburg to the big university for doctors. Ah, you think thirty rubles is nothing! But I'm sure it will start me." She eagerly rose on her elbow; her slender face flushed red. "You see, I have three girl friends there in the medical school, and one of them began with only twenty-four rubles. And I with thirty-why-why-" The flush suddenly left her cheeks, she sighed deeply and sank back unconscious.

At once the three doctors crawled up from the foot of the bed; they sat on the pillows and looked down at Rachel's closed eyes—chuckling with delight. Now and then they exchanged excited whispers in Yiddish. The youngest put his chubby fingers on her eyelids as though trying to look in behind, but the eldest sternly jerked the fingers away. Then they watched her face again.

"They are always with her," her brother whispered behind me. see, Rachel is so fond of these babies, she's so afraid they'll leave her alone, that she tells them not to be frightened by her fainting spells, because in such spells she flies off to fairyland. That's why they chuckle now. They wonder what part of fairyland she's in. When she comes to she will tell them. may think it's a bad thing to leave them with her always in the bed. But really they do her a lot of good; she's getting better every day."

Suddenly the eldest doctor, in a burst of glee and expectancy, did a fine somersault and struck the foot of the bed with a bang.

"No, no!" sobbed the mother, a white, stout old woman with a blue handker-chief over her head. "She will not get well. She fools you by always smiling, but under her smile are terrible things!

Often she cries and cries with her head on my knees. These last five years she had to fight every day and late every night to get money enough to go to school."

"Woe! woe!" groaned the thin old father. "When will this curse leave us?" He spoke huskily in slow, broken phrases. I began somehow to loathe him.

"This curse on the Jews—it jumps on our backs—on our backs when we are born—it hangs there always—hangs, hangs—till it drags us into the ground."

"How long have you lived here?"

"Better ask how many—how many places have we lived in?" His old head wearily nodded. "Hunt, hunt, hunt for a place to be safe and earn a living. Till five years ago we lived in villages, for there it is cheaper—yes, and safer too—but five years back our girl got so eager to learn that we came to this town. Here I have worked in the coal house. I worked hard. Look at my hands—no soft hands. All day I shovel the coal. My wife goes out scrubbing floors. We do all we can, but all we can do is to get food. We can't help our girl in her school. She must make all the fight herself. We cannot help, for besides food and rent and clothes we must pay more money-much more-to the police."

He drew closer, and I shrank in disgust, for he looked like a beaten slave. He put his hot, trembling hand to my ear and whispered:

"Money to let us live in the town. It is against the Russian law for Jews to live here unless they are students. Now, my old Rebecca and I—how can we be students? So we must bribe the police. More and more we must bribe. Else they will drive us far out on the steppe to a village."

"And my boy, too!" cried old Rebecca.
"The one that was here, the big boys always torment him in school; they jump on him from behind and grease his lips with pig's fat; they shout 'Jew! Jew! But he fights them off and tries to go on."

"And why are they all so cross—so cross with our boy?" cried the father. "Because they are stupid, all stupid, teachers too! And my boy is the first in

all their classes. Here, look—you can see his reports."

"And now," said the mother, "he is always eager to learn the violin, but they will not even let him go in the door of the music school."

Just then the driver of my wagon shouted up that he would wait no longer, so I gave the thirty rubles to the old man and went away.

At midnight in my room I spread out Rachel's work. I was delighted at first by the neatness of her figures. Then, as I examined closer, I was more and more amazed at the precision of all the tables. She had even exceeded my directions in places; she had improved the system I had suggested. I found not a single mistake, though I kept on reading till nearly daybreak.

To my mind came a picture of her face as I had seen it last—white, unconscious, but still half smiling, as though in a radiant dream:—"I am going to Petersburg."

Four years later, traveling on Zemstvo business, I stopped one night in a dull, lonely little town, and, my day's work over, I strolled to the town playhouse. There, over the weatherbeaten doors, a huge poster announced the performance of one of the old Russian tragedies. I bought a ticket and went in.

I looked about in amazement. Instead of the sprinkling of bored spectators you expect in such a place, I saw the narrow little house packed with eager faces.

The curtain rose slowly, creaking. The play began with all the pomp and ceremony, stiff gestures and stares, set speeches, loud voices, scant trees, and castles and armies—in short, all the clumsy levers that start off an old classic tragedy in a small provincial playhouse.

Then the heroine appeared.

Then the audience hardly breathed. The place was alive and thrilled with the voice of this woman; a voice now low and sad and sweet, now deep, impassioned, ringing; a dark, glowing face, with radiant eyes. And the audience, so long starved in the lonely, sordid town, was suddenly transformed. You could see them forget the dead street

outside, the petty homes, the yawns, cross words, and pious hypocrisies. They became real human beings who stared at this glorious woman on the stage, and wondered and thrilled and almost awakened.

Why was such a woman here? Wondering, and still under the spell of her acting long after the play was over, I strolled about the playhouse garden. At every table men and women sat over their tea and cigarettes, excitedly talking. Slowly the excitement died, the spell passed off, and the people went away—back to their old life as though nothing had happened.

All were gone. Only at one table a girl sat talking to a young, dark-faced boy. Half unconsciously, I kept glancing at her. An old blue cape was wrapped around her slight shoulders. She leaned across the small table, talking low. After a time she glanced up. I started.

The genius of an hour before! Here she was only a pale, dark girl, bright-eyed and feverish after the long strain of acting; her hair was in disheveled curls, her long, delicate fingers kept clasping the tea glass or playing with the boy's hands; now and then she laughed unsteadily; once she drew a deep, sudden breath of weariness.

The dark-eyed boy watched her anxiously, and every few minutes, when she shook with coughing, he leaned over and drew the cape tighter. I could hear his voice—steady, low, and soothing. His eyes never left hers,

But she could not relax.

Suddenly her eyes twinkled, and in that moment her face was familiar. She slowly rose as I came forward.

"You—are—" I stopped short.
"The Gymnasium girl!" she cried.
We talked long and excitedly.

"I tried and tried," she told me, "to go to that school in Petersburg. But you know their rules for Jews. First, we must pass the same examinations as the Christians, and then, from the Jews who have passed, they pick out only one in ten. I passed so high I won the gold medal. But even then I was refused admission. I can tell you I never slept at all that night.

"In the morning I had to think about earning money quickly. You see, my three little doctors were all beginning in school, and of course they needed help. And to work for them was just what I needed. It kept me from thinking."

"But how lucky!" I exclaimed. "How lucky, after all, that you missed the medical school! What a splendid career

you have!"

"Oh, how little you know of us Jews!" She smiled sadly. "Don't you know I'm forbidden to play in any but these lonely little theaters? I tried-I tried my best, and my friends all tried; they sent petitions to the Minister of Theaters again and again. But he always refused. How we used to wait and hope after each petition was sent! You see, once in a long, long time he does admit a Jew to the city theaters. But he is surrounded always by artists who spend all their time in intrigues and schemings for advancement. They are all afraid of any new artist. I understood at last that it was useless to ask him.

"For what can you do?" Her eyes grew feverish and her low voice grew passionate. "Just think of my brother the one who sat here a moment ago. Oh, the power he has if he could only have a chance! You remember in the Gymnasium he was at the head of his class. Well, he kept that place all through, and worked besides to support himself, and so at last he reached the University. But there he was refused. Why? Why?" She leaned far forward and her slender right hand gripped the edge of the table till the blue veins stood "Why? Because the University allows just three per cent. of its students to be Jews; this three per cent. was already filled, and so he simply struggled along with his violin, and now he travels with me. This waste! Oh, this terrible waste! When will it stop?"

She shook in a violent fit of coughing. At once her brother hurried back and wrapped the cape tighter round her shoulders; he spoke soothingly in Yiddish. As soon as she could stop coughing she glanced up into his anxious eyes with a quick, gay reply which made him laugh at once. Then she rose and bade me good-by, and walked away. She walked slowly. Her brother kept his arm tight round her.

I was busy the next two days in neighboring hamlets, but on the second evening I came again to the playhouse. It was empty. I learned that the Jewess and her troupe had been expelled from the town because Jews had no right to live there. The town people were most indignant and excited; dozens of petitions were sent to the police. But all in vain.

One evening six months later, back in my own town, I was walking home just before midnight. I walked fast, for the cold rain had been falling since morn-The trees were all dripping rivulets down on the dead autumn leaves The rain was changing to sleet. Even the breeze was heavy and lifeless. I shivered. In the distance, down the wide, muddy street, a few little taper lights began to flicker. They flickered larger, nearer, and became funeral lanterns carried by three women and some children. In front walked four men slowly, bearing a rough board coffin between them.

A peasant was passing, and stopped beside me under the tree. He was a huge old fellow, dressed in a long, stiff sheepskin coat, which rattled. Under his fur cap his wide sandy beard dripped with moisture. His small eyes peered out curiously.

"Who's dead?" I asked.

"Oh, it's a Jew funeral. You know, my barin, that old Jew who used to shovel coal by the railroad. Well, it's his daughter, the oldest one."

"Look here!" I seized his arm. "How do you know this is true? How do you know this is a Jewish funeral?"

"Oh, that's easy. Because these devils always carry their dead at midnight."

"What do you mean?" I was talking at random. I could not think clearly.

"Oh. barin!" The old man looked up, with a slow, shrewd grin. "Is it vodka you've been drinking, or what's the matter? Surely you know how these Jewish devils fear the bells of Holy Church in daylight. When the bells begin to ring in daylight, then, I can tell you, these Iews drop a dead body quick and run."

"Lies! lies! forever lies! When we've tormented these Jews to death, can't we even let them bury their dead in peace?"

"Oh, my good barin," the peasant grumbled. "Don't pinch my arm so tight. . . . Ah, here they come. . . . What can I do about it? Anyway, what difference does it make? If a body is not allowed to lie in holy ground, then it is damned no matter how fine the burial. Look there, you can see the old man's face already. His girl came home two weeks ago very thin and always coughing. So now comes the finish."

The little procession was passing close. In the yellow, flickering circles of light

you could see the faces of the three women and the little "doctors." All stared straight ahead. Only the children kept crying drearily—sleepless, dazed, frightened. The four men splashed slowly along through the mud; three of them looked down, carefully picking their steps; the fourth, a slender, darkfaced boy, gazed at the box so close that he stumbled. Suddenly the deep, rich tones of the church bell boomed the hour. At those slow, sepulchral tones the little children stopped crying and shivered.

The old peasant crossed himself reverently. "Christ save us!" he whispered.

A UNIVERSITY LABOR UNION

BY A. FITZGERALD IRVINE

CR fifteen or twenty years the Yale University Christian Association has carried on mission work at two points in the city of New Haven. One of these enterprises is in the region peopled largely by Roman Catholics. The other is in a Jewish center. The latter is a Sunday-school; the former is a mission.

The character of the Sunday evening meeting at the mission has been of such a nature for many years as generally to exclude the self-respecting artisans of the community. The audience for the last decade has been composed of the "bum" class. A dirty, sometimes drunken, always shiftless aggregation could be found there every Sunday evening of the coilege year. The policy of the mission was not so much the salvation of the "hoboes" as the social target practice of the students. Many efforts were made to move the point of emphasis, but not until within a year or so has much improvement been made. Those who endeavored to enlarge the scope of the work were met with the announcement that the primary aim was the "practice" of the students. that is changed now. The rounders are given a wide berth, and a new constituency enters as a result. The first result of the new régime is a fine men's club

under the leadership of Professor Emery. But, even with the enlargement of the mission idea, many undergraduates felt the need of something still larger. There is probably not a city of the size of New Haven in the United States where so little effort is exerted to reach the wage-earner.

The Yale Corporation and the Yale Faculty are well represented as bank directors and as leaders of corporations. The majority of them are allied in one way or another with capital.

It was urged that official Yale might in some way be identified with the toiling millions. A group of undergraduates met and studied the situation. They made a special study of the labor union, with the result that it was proposed to start one among themselves. Representative constitutions were procured and studied. Some of the underlying principles of the union movement were discussed at length and agreed upon as the basis of an organization.

The following sentences from the declaration of principles are characteristic:

We believe it inconsistent and unworthy that a wage-worker should take the benefits that accrue to his craft as a direct result of organization and at the same time hold himself aloof from the responsibilities and from his share of the expenses of that organization. We believe that union men, whenever possible, should demand the union label as a guarantee that the goods were manufactured under conditions fair to labor.

We believe that eight hours should constitute a day's work.

In the preamble we find this statement:

We do not look upon the labor union as an ultimate conception of labor, but we believe that whatever progress has been made in the lot of the laborer has been due wholly to the organization of the wage-workers.

It concludes with this paragraph:

Believing, therefore, in the cause of labor, and desiring to add according to our ability to the support of the union movement, we pledge ourselves to study it intelligently and to support it loyally.

The official name of the union is: "The University Federal Labor Union." The seal consists of the Yale seal surrounded by the name of the union. The membership is small. The members are selected as they are in the other college

societies. About a third of the members will go out with each graduating class. The work outlined for the union is the study at first hand of the movement, by actual contact. This will be accomplished by honorary memberships in the New Haven local unions. The members will write on labor themes for their degrees. They will invite prominent labor men from various parts of the country to deliver addresses. They will arrange inter-class debates on the subject and keep it before the student body.

Just what the attitude of the University leaders toward this extraordinary departure will be no one knows, but certain it is that there will be no opposition. Among the things planned for the present college term is a select labor library. R. C. Morse, Jr., the captain of the "Varsity" crew, is the president

of the new organization.

THE RELIGIOUS BELIEFS OF STUDENTS'

BY HENRY THOMAS COLESTOCK, PH.D.

Professor of History in Bucknell University, Lewisburg, Pennsylvania

O those who are facing the problem of reconstructing their religious opinions and beliefs I have one or two suggestions to offer.

You will be tempted to solve some of your religious perplexities by dismissing them. This is a dangerous attitude to encourage. For when once you have begun to solve your religious problems by evading them, you are taking the first steps toward religious indifference—a deadening condition to all future growth in the spiritual life. Shun indifference as you would shun the plague. Therefore, do not begin to solve your religious difficulties by refusing to think on them.

It is well that the unawakened can rest in their inherited religious beliefs and opinions. They fit, they satisfy. The soul is at rest. It does not question. Such persons conserve progress, but do not make progress. From one

¹ Substance of an address delivered in Bucknell Chapel, Sunday afternoon, May 28, 1905.

point of view they are to be envied. But upon the student is laid, whether he wills it or not, the responsibility of his opportunities and of his training. Upon him devolves the task of thinking, not for his less favored associates; his is the task to think before them. The thought that stirs his heart to-day will stir other hearts to-morrow; or it may be a year or a century must pass before the student's thought becomes the common property of community life.

But is not this the method of all progress?—the few become stirred, possessed by certain fundamental conceptions of life, of duty, of God, of destiny; they have caught a vision of things beyond their day and generation, and for this vision not infrequently they have to pay the dearest sacrifices human beings are ever called upon to make. But the joy of the vision makes the sacrifice seem small. Fortunate compensation!

By to-morrow or next century the new

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idea becomes common property, and everybody believes it and gladly accepts it without question. Added light has come to all. The way by which it came has been forgotten. Why, we have always believed that I men carelessly say, little knowing the fierce struggle for its life through which that idea had to pass in its infancy.

For another reason of greater personal importance it is dangerous for you to evade thinking on religious topics. When the former belief begins to lose its earlier power of possessing us, we may be certain that it has served its purpose. It is losing its power over us because away down deep, unconsciously to ourselves it may be, another explanation of faith is beginning to form, and to push off the older, not unlike the way in which the autumn leaf is displaced.

Now, if, through any misunderstanding of the process that is going on in one's inner life, this loosening of beliefs is attributed to decay rather than to growth, and the individual seeks to arrest it, he is doing himself irreparable injury by suppressing the choicest fruitage of human culture.

If the inherited belief is losing its grip on our lives, the call has gone forth to develop a new one which will hold us with vital power. For it is not the beliefs we possess, but those that possess us, that transform our lives.

"Yes, but my thinking on religious questions has a tendency to lead to the acceptance of conclusions not held by my religious associates—the members of my church. The only way I can hold some of the doctrines of my church is by not thinking on them. Would you have me disturb my church relations? Should I remain a member of a church if I cannot accept its teachings?"

The answer to your question depends entirely upon the individual's point of view. If doctrine or explanations of faith be the fundamental element in the life of a church, you should believe what your church teaches, or find a church home where this is possible. Many persons hold that doctrine is the fundamental element, and change in their case is imperative.

But if explanations of faith be not the

central element; if faith itself is the basis of religious fellowship and its explanations are more or less personal matters bound to differ because of any one of a dozen reasons, especially with those who have been awakened to think for themselves, then differences in religious opinions need not disturb your church relations.

Indeed, denominational lines mean very little at the present time. When the clergy did all the thinking and solved all the problems, the line of cleavage between religious bodies was definite, well defined, easily discernible. The large part of the minister's function then was to establish his people firmly in sound doctrine—that of his own church. to-day the clergyman is only one of many who think on the problems of the religious life. In few churches is he followed implicitly as in former times. Some persons in nearly every congregation test the minister's message by the deliverances of their own mental processes. No longer is the message delivered from the pulpit accepted as proceeding from a final authority. More and more every man is becoming his own interpreter of his religious faith.

You should not hesitate, therefore, to think on the problems of the religious Be assured that the leaven of the newer thought is stirring within other hearts besides your own. Sooner or later you will discover them. By degrees the contagion spreads; the type of your church doctrine will be transformed. In your old age you will doubtless be a center of conservatism—the younger generation then pressing on into the next stage of progress. essential thing now is to understand your present relation to this general movement of reconstructing the religious opinions of the church. Upon you as a student is laid a responsibility; will you accept it or evade it? Will you accelerate or impede what seems to some of us to be a movement worthy of your most enthusiastic co-operation?

I have urged you to think on the problems of the religious life. Another suggestion I would have you keep in mind. In your consideration of these vital topics your idea of God will give color to all of your conclusions. The suggestion is this: In all your thoughts of God test your conception of him by what you know of Jesus Christ. For nothing is true of God which is not in accord with the spirit of Christ.

That God is like Jesus Christ sounds like a commonplace observation; in reality it is just the opposite; it is highly revolutionary. For the popular theology of to-day is based on the conception that God is unlike Jesus Christ; that God's attitude towards sinful humanity is one thing, while that of Christ is another. I cannot go into details, but a little reflection will enable you to understand what I mean.

In reconstructing your conception of God in view of the character and spirit of Christ, you will be doing consciously what many other persons are doing without realizing the nature of their act. Undoubtedly the great breaking away from the inherited beliefs of a former age, manifested in all religious bodies more or less, is due in large part to the very process I have indicated—looking at God through the character of Christ.

But have not religious teachers always looked at God in this way? I can only answer that the great systems of religious thought built up in previous periods of the history of the Church do not present any evidence of such an attitude. Indeed, these systems are monumental testimonies of the lack of such a process

of interpreting the attributes of deity. The explanation is not difficult. Each system of theology has been vitally influenced by the political theories of the times in which it took form. For the first time since the beginning of the development of systems of doctrine, the Christian Church is emancipated from the dominating power of authority. Religious freedom is one of the latest products of human progress. It is a goodly plant to look upon. While we must wait patiently for the harvest, the blossoms are refreshing and exhilarating to those who are able to interpret their promise.

Freedom to think on religious problems was necessary before a movement like the present could take form peaceably. A few centuries ago a movement similar to the one that is on now drenched all Europe in a Thirty Years' War. Do we value sufficiently the heritage into which we have come? One thing is certain: we cannot prize too highly our freedom to think on the most sacred questions of life and to embrace the conclusions reached.

Refuse, therefore, to bow before the authority of any system worked out in a previous age. With all humility, think upon the religious problems of life for yourself, and in your thinking keep in mind that in the character of Jesus Christ is the world's completest representation of God.

THE JOYOUS ROAD

BY PRISCILLA LEONARD

When we are happy—"Leave us, Lord," we cry,
"This one sweet hour, this one dear love or friend!"
When joy is shattered with a sudden end,
"Thy will be done!" our trembling accents sigh,
As though God's will were loss and agony,
As though His love had only griefs to send;
And in this prison-thought our souls are penned
Till we forget to look into God's sky
Where the warm sun and glorious stars are set,
Or see the happy flowering of His spring,
Or in the eyes we love His message given
Of love, hope, strength,—God's will, which men forget,
Working toward joys of which He is the King,
Half thwarted here, but wholly sure in heaven.

BLUFF KING HAL

BY H. ADDINGTON BRUCE

HAT manner of man was King Harry, Defender of the Faith, Liberator from the bonds of Rome? Many and diverse have been the answers to this question, keen the contention it has aroused. He has been pilloried as a monster of iniquity, the protagonist of merciless tyranny, brutality, and lust—the devil incarnate. Scholars of other mind have held him up to admiration as one of the truly great and noble figures of history, a genius of statecraft, who clearly discerned not merely the wishes but the needs of the English people, and with unfaltering enthusiasm and unparalleled ability proceeded to give form to the nebulous ideas and aspirations of his fellow-countrymen and to weld the nation into a stable. mighty, and independent entity. Others, again, argue that he was not the master, but the man-puppet of intriguers, who, by pandering to his grosser self, molded him to their will. On only one point do the hero-worshipers and the iconoclasts seem agreed—that he left a vivid impress upon the history of his country. until recent years at least, there has been no middle course between execration and adulation. Even the vast fund of information rendered available by modern research, and particularly through the compilation of the "Letters and Papers of the Reign of Henry VIII.," published under the direction of the Master of the Rolls, has only inadequately served to stimulate historians to probe more deeply beneath the surface, and, discarding the prejudices born less of national than of ecclesiastical allegiance, to endeavor to depict King Harry as he really was and to appraise justly the part played by him in the development of England. The mystery of Mary Stuart still pales beside the mystery of Henry Tudor.

Now, however, there are signs that a solution is approaching. Such a sign is

the appearance of Mr. Pollard's "Henry VIII.," which, originally issued in a sumptuous and costly edition, has been reissued in a less expensive and more convenient form and with revisions and additions that greatly increase its value. Mr. Pollard has no illusions respecting the weaknesses and defects of Henry's character, but neither would he withhold a generous meed of praise for that which he deems truly admirable. In some respects-prompted, perhaps, by unconscious enthusiasm for the after effects of the Reformation—he gives undue rein to the imaginative quality which he possesses to a high degree, and which invests his work with a rare charm. it would be unfair to rank him with Henry's apologists. If the picture he presents be not wholly satisfactory, its shortcomings are in no way due to bias for or against its subject. They are rooted in his interpretation of what he correctly finds to be the key to Henry's policy and career—the temper of the people over whom he ruled as well as reigned. Admitting the force of the argument that Henry's success was largely, if not solely, due to the fact that, despot though he was, he kept in touch with and hearkened to the voice of public opinion, the query immediately rises, If Henry is to be explained by reference to the nation, how stood it with the nation? In his reply to this query Mr. Pollard, it seems to me, has fallen into an error of far-reaching consequences, inevitably involving him in inconsistencies. He begins by pointing out that "the problems of Henry VIII.'s reign can indeed only be solved by realizing the misrule of the preceding century, the failure of parliamentary government, and the strength of the popular demand for a firm and masterful hand," and that "in reality, love of freedom has not always been, nor will it always remain, the predominant note in the English mind. At times the English people have pursued it through battle

^{*}King Henry VIII. By Albert Frederick Pollard. Longmans, Green & Co., New York. \$2.60, net.

and murder with grim determination, but other times have seen other ideals. On occasion the demand has been for strong government irrespective of its methods, and good government has been preferred to self-government." But he proceeds to argue that "generally English ideals have been strictly subordinated to a passion for material prosperity," and that Henry "owed his strength to the skill with which he appealed to the weaknesses of a people whose prevailing characteristics were a passion for material prosperity and an absolute indifference to human suffering." The difficulty with this generalization is not simply that it is faulty, but that even were it sound it would explain little. For it is scarcely more than one way of saying that the Englishman of Tudor times, like the Englishman and every man of all times, responded to economic motives. As a matter of fact, it is easy to show that the Englishman of Henry's day was neither profoundly callous, as compared with his Continental fellows, nor peculiarly active in the pursuit of wealth. His distinctive traits were, rather, discontent, unrest, and depression. The nation was, as it were, neurasthenic. The Lancastrian wars had taken the heart out of the people, had—as Mr. Pollard suggests—disgusted them with the mediæval Parliament, had prepared them for the advent of a monarch who should be king in very fact. In the seventh Henry they found such a king, and the discovery did much to smooth his successor's path. by no means follows that they welcomed the Tudor absolutism because they were inspired by a predominating desire to set about the task of amassing wealth. They welcomed it because they were tired out, because their will was wearied and they realized the necessity for a guiding as well as a restraining hand.

It is obvious that if the key which unlocks the mystery of Henry VIII. is his watchful alertness to public opinion, public opinion cannot have been chiefly directed by a "passion for material prosperity." Henry's policy certainly does not indicate any compelling intention to give his land peace and plenty. He did not, to be sure, saddle it with expensive

wars, and the tax-gatherer was perhaps not so much in evidence as in previous reigns. But neither did he go out of his own very selfish way to make it rich. Had he done so, it is possible we should have heard less of Spain in the New World, though, it may be parenthetically remarked, the very fact that Spain enjoyed such primacy in discovery and exploration is eloquent testimony to the inertia of the Englishman of the days of bluff King Hal. That there was great distress throughout his reign is a matter of common knowledge. The dissolution of the monasteries, the inclosure evils which attended the transition from husbandry to grazing, the fall in the demand for labor, the debasement of the coinage —all combined to create, particularly in the agricultural sections, a situation of grinding want. Yet the King pursued his chosen road, secure in the hearts of his subjects. There were mutterings. there was even rebellion, but the King's ministers, not the King himself, were the objects of the people's wrath. A nation with a "passion for material prosperity" might conceivably have endured Henry for a few years; but it would never have supported him as it did support him throughout the stress of the breach with Rome.

It is true that Henry in part maintained himself by appealing to the weaknesses of his people. But he appealed also to their qualities, and not least to that innate love of freedom which, Mr. Pollard to the contrary notwithstanding, was an animating principle in the breast of even the war-worn Englishman of the early Tudor period. Curiously enough, Mr. Pollard strains every effort to prove that Henry's Parliament, through which he imposed his will on England, was an independent Parliament. That it was in fact one of the most subservient Parliaments in English history does not affect the truth that its master rested his policy on the love of freedom latent in the weary nation. It might not be free of him-it did not wish to be free of him-but it did wish to be free of outside interference, and more particularly of the interference of Rome. The English Reformation, as Mr. Pollard makes evident, was in the beginning a machine-

made revolution. That it became a living force in the nation was only very indirectly Henry's doing. If it was any individual's doing, it was his daughter Mary's. Before Henry died he had almost roused his fellow-countrymen from their lassitude. Mary—a bigot, but in many ways more deserving of sympathy than her father—galvanized England into renewed energy, and with the kindling of the martyrs' fagots lit a beacon that was to make of her sister's reign the most glorious in English annals—the reign that marked the dawning of a day that is not yet done.

To the tired nation—tired, but still cherishing its old-time traditions and already benefited by the New Despotism and the New Learning—came King Henry VIII., in April, 1509. Young, virile, handsome, of magnificent physique, open and genial of manner, gifted with many accomplishments—Mr. Pollard assures us that at least one anthem of his composition is to-day a favorite in English cathedrals—it is small wonder that his accession was hailed by an outburst of enthusiasm. His first act—the execution of the tools of his father's extortion—served only to increase the general rejoicing, while his marriage to Katherine of Aragon carried with it none of the forebodings that a Spanish match held for the Englishman of later times. Beloved by his people, endowed with a vigorous constitution, an indomitable will, limitless ambition, and a magnetic personality, Henry could confidently look forward to a long and prosperous reign that should redound to England's glory and his own—especially his own. Even in the beginning, even in those early years when, in unhappy Katherine's phrase, there was "continual feasting," selfishness marked Henry's every act. Mr. Pollard's judgment is severe but just: "He sought the greatness of England, and he spared no toil in the quest; but his labors were spent for no ethical purpose. His aims were selfish; his realm must be strong, because he must be great. He had the strength of a lion, and like a lion he used it." sublime egotist, Henry is the egotist par excellence in unscrupulousness, dissimulation, and clarity of vision. This last

fact must be kept firmly in mind if we would understand him.

It has been universally recognized that a great source of his power lay in the wisdom with which he chose his ministers, the use he made of them, and the wakeful eye he held upon them. It is not so commonly perceived that if Wolsey, Cromwell, and the luckless rest who served his purpose all too well could never deceive him, he never deceived hi:nself. His apologists have urged, in the matter of the divorce and many another deed of perfidy, that he was really actuated, as he professed to be, by an altruistic patriotism and the promptings of a sensitive conscience. Henry, sneers Arthur Innes with good reason, had "an unparalleled power of reconciling the dictates of desire and conscience." But Mr. Innes elsewhere ranges himself with those who affirm that the King's avowals were genuine in that they were the result of successful self-deception. This view is tenable only on the hypothesis that Henry was of unsound mind. Otherwise, how explain the ugly fact that his conscience never troubled him a whit in the mercilessness with which he pursued all who crossed his path, and the shameless ingratitude visited on those to whom he owed most? "My beloved queen," protested this man of conscience at the trial held for no other purpose than to dissolve the marriage, "I desire nothing so much as that our union be held valid despite the 'perpetual scruple' that has kept me silent so long." And the day after the beloved queen, the single figure whose reputation has come out of this tragedy unscathed, had breathed her last, the man of conscience could testify to the value of his protestations by appearing at a ball clad in yellow from head to Figure again the man of conscience bringing another queen to the block and the next day preparing to wed once more—all for the sake of England. Unthinkable! In truth, there is no alternative between believing that bluff King Hal was not altogether sane, or that he was the most conspicuous example in the history of England of an utterly conscienceless, self-willed, selfish, and absolute monarch, whose success is to be

explained partly by his possession of almost preternatural powers of discernment and partly by the age in which he lived.

In any event, there is no denying that at precisely the period he flourished, Henry, with all his faults, was a blessing to England. "It is probable," Mr. Pollard reminds us, "that Henry's personal influence and personal action averted greater evils than those they provoked. Without him, the storm of the Reformation would still have burst over England: without him, it might have been far more terrible. Every drop of blood shed under Henry VIII. might have been a river under a feebler king. Instead of a stray execution here and there, conducted always with a scrupulous regard for legal forms, wars of religion might have desolated the land and swept away thousands of lives. London saw many a hideous sight in Henry's reign, but it had no cause to envy the Catholic capitals which witnessed the sack of Rome and the massacre of St. Bartholomew's; for all Henry's iniquities, multiplied manifold, would not equal the volume of murder and sacrilege wrought at Rome in May, 1527, or at Paris in August, 1572. From

such orgies of violence and crime England was saved by the strong right arm and the iron will of her Tudor king." In a far more vital sense did Henry and Henry's ministers, Wolsey and Cromwell, to whom Mr. Pollard scarcely does justice—influence the course of events in England. However ignoble the rôle he played in the conflict between Catholicism and Protestantism, the intensity with which Henry pressed the cause he had espoused, and the fact that that cause—in so far, at any rate, as it meant the triumph of the laity over the clergy represented the will of the people, combined to fan into activity the long smoldering but not wholly quenched embers of nationality. Wolsey's policy of the aggrandizement of England and of England's king operated to the same end, as did Cromwell's Machiavellian course. Henry, Wolsey, Cromwell-all three, however unwittingly, set in motion forces that, gaining impetus through the rigors of subsequent despotisms which failed to realize that the Tudors had put an end to the old order of things, ultimately made of the insignificant England of pre-Tudor times the mighty British Empire of to-day.

THE PROPHET OF NAZARETH

OR the Christ of the creeds Professor Schmidt, the accomplished Semitic scholar of whom Cornell University may be justly proud, substitutes in this volume the Christ of the critics. While a radical critic, he is a deeply religious critic. He contemplates the Christ of the creeds with reverence, and with gratitude to the great thinkers who limned his portrait. He is also, as not many of his school are, in sympathy with the Christian missionary spirit. But he affirms that "the old conception, with all its splendor, is no longer glorious because of the surpassing glory of the new." He finds that the Christology of the creeds, though based upon study of the Scriptures in the light of Christian experience, has become no longer tena-

¹ The Prophet of Nazareth. By Nathaniel Schmidt. The Macmillan Company, New York. \$2.50.

ble. What the explorer's spade has done in recovering a buried civilization from beneath the soil of Babylonia has been done by the delving of scholars beneath the text of the Gospels. said that this in its present form is the product of the second century. Embedded in it may be seen the primitive tradition, on which have been superimposed the misunderstandings, the reflections, the speculations, and the inventions of a subsequent time. To recover the original source for a positive knowledge the surest way is to go back of our Greek text to the Aramaic language of Jesus and his Galilean disciples. The specially significant instance of this process is in the oft-recurring phrase, "Son of man," of whose original meaning Professor Schmidt, as in his article in the "Encyclopædia Biblica," was the first interpreter.

On this point his judgment must be reckoned with as that of a philological expert of the first rank. His verdict is that it is "impossible" to maintain the original of that phrase to have been a Messianic title, or that Jesus ever claimed Messiahship. In the Aramaic original the phrase so translated meant simply man, and Jesus used it in speaking in a general or ideal view of the duties, rights, privileges, and powers of humanity. Of course there are passages of the Gospels which, as they stand, cannot well be so interpreted, but for various reasons they are set aside as modifications or misunderstandings of the original. This, then, is the gateway through which Professor Schmidt enters upon a reconstruction of the record, which he conducts with a masterly and easy grasp of all its details and of the critical discussions concerning He shows in this a keen historic sense that seems at times to yield too easily to subjective influences; e.g., the story of the Samaritan woman is "clearly" an allegory of "the Samaritan people that has abandoned its five Assyrian gods, but not attained to the temple-less worship of God in spirit and in truth." Even stranger is the contention that Jesus objected to public prayer as such. Thus iconoclastic is Professor Schmidt's reconstruction, but not less evident is his reverence for the matchless personality which he beholds after chipping off all that seems to him an incrustation. "It cannot be defined; names and titles utterly fail to do justice to it. . . . To have come once under his spell is to be his forever." Here certainly the modern iconoclast and the Galilean disciple are And so to the modern world in its struggle with baffling problems, scientific, economic, moral, Professor Schmidt presents Jesus as the all-sufficient, incomparable leader whom it needs. "The secret of the quickening touch he has ever communicated" "is the thoroughness with which Jesus realized in himself the ethical content of a filial attitude toward God."

True as this is of Jesus himself, it is not the whole truth which those who behold him need. Its defectiveness is suggested by a fact on which Professor Schmidt lays proper emphasis: "It is this need of moral strength to realize a high ideal that constitutes the deepest problem of the age." For moral leadership sublime thought must take form in sublime action; the qualities of the hero must be added to those of the teacherthe heroism that braves and bears all evil for righteousness' sake. The crossbearing life of Jesus, apart from its consummation in his death, could never have imparted those inspirations which endue human weakness with invincible strength. Without the Cross of Jesus and its irresistible appeal, his claim to leadership will not touch what is deepest in human hearts. James Martineau, as unsparing a critic of creed and tradition as Professor Schmidt, clearly discerned this:

"O King of Earth, the Cross ascend!
O'er climes and ages 'tis thy throne."
From Martineau's expression of it Professor Schmidt would probably not dissent. But it finds no clear expression in his portrait of the Prophet of Nazareth. And so, warmly colored with religious feeling as this is, it lacks, at least for the mass of men, the consummate invigorating trait which makes Jesus the Christ, the Leader anointed with the heavenly spirit of self-sacrifice.

Comment on Current Books

Australian life has Australian Life much that is picturin Town and Country esque in itself and novel to American readers. The author, E. C. Buley, describes entertainingly and vivaciously, but with insight, its characteristic institutions and customs—the great sheep farms and cattle ranges, the mines, the Never-Never Land, that fascinating but almost unknown region that comprises half of Australia, the prosperous, enterprising cities, the "swagmen"-farm laborers who travel through the country seeking work wherever they can find it and living a unique life of freedom and irresponsibility—the desert lands with their incongruous trains of camels imported from the East, the Australian himself, a bohemian with great individual courage, energy, and resource. (G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. \$1.20.)

Those who have read The Boy's Life "The Boy Problem," by of Christ the author of this book-Dr. William Byron Forbush, minister of the Madison Avenue Reformed Church in New York—will admit that he possesses a special qualification for such a work as this. His aim is like that of St. Mark, to tell what Jesus did, and "to show the manly, heroic, chivalric, intensely real, and vigorously active qualities of Jesus in a way to appeal to boys." This is a new thing and not an easy thing to do, even by one who has Dr. Forbush's keen sympathy with boys, but it is remarkably well done. (The Funk & Wagnalls Company, New York. \$1.25, net.)

Letters not from children but to Children's children make up this compila-Letters tion by Elizabeth Colson and Anna Gansevoort Chittenden. The idea is a capital one, and the reader rejoices at the tenderness and kindly humor so abundantly in evidence. One is tempted to give the entire list of authors, but a few must serve: Phillips Brooks is fitly put first, for he had no equal in this class of epistle-writing; Oliver Wendell Holmes, Whittier, Lincoln, Benjamin Franklin, and Hans Andersen furnish but one letter each; Longfellow, Lewis Carroll, Dickens, Edwin Booth, Thomas Hood, Sir Walter Scott, and Sydney Smith are among the most delightful of the twentyfive or more authors represented. Altogether a delightful little volume, and one well worth making. (Hinds, Noble & Eldredge, New York. \$1.)

Wise counsels abound in this Counsels volume-counsels inspired by and Ideals high ideals and wide experience. The real man whom they present is no more like the individual whose words were so travestied by the press on a recent occasion as to threaten the dictionary-makers with a new word, "oslerize," than the caricature of the political cartoonist is like its original. The multitude of extracts culled from Dr. Osler's writings and addresses by his friend, Mr. C. N. B. Camac, of New York, and arranged under twenty general heads, is made serviceable for reference by a good index, as well as by marginal titles. To dip into these pages anywhere is to meet with a thoughtful, strong, and sagacious man. (Houghton, Mifflin & Co., Boston. \$1.25, net.)

Americans have reason to The Life of remember the younger Sir Sir Henry Vane Henry Vane, Governor of Massachusetts, at an anxious moment in its early history, and one of the founders of Rhode Island. But it was in England that the best work of this mystic and radical was done. An influential member of the famous Long Parliament, he was prominent throughout the Civil War and the years preceding the Restoration; so active, indeed, that, though not among the regicides, he was marked for vengeance by Charles II., and ultimately brought to the scaffold. It would be a mistake, however, to regard him as a great statesman, and in insisting that he was one of England's foremost nation-builders Dr. William W. Ireland falls into an error that completely distorts the picture he presents. His point of view throughout is that of an ardent hero-worshiper. He also writes as an uncompromising advocate of the Parliamentary party, his leanings leading him to do less than justice, not merely to the Carolean rulers and their advisers—Laud, Strafford, and the rest-but to Cromwell, to whom Sir Henry Vane was decidedly a thorn in the flesh. His purpose, he tells us, is "to make the facts cry out," and to his aid he summons a liberal use of invective. But if his conclusions must largely be rejected, his book is nevertheless substantially helpful in some respects. It has a certain corrective value, and—albeit in a rambling way—brings together from many scattered sources a quantity of interesting data shedding new light on the period. (Eyeleigh Nash, London.)

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With Tommy Tompkins in Korea

A simple description of domestic life in Korea as told by a missionary who is "Tommy Tompkins's" mother, Dr.!Lillian Underwood. Korea is a country both singular and picturesque, and Korean native customs as seen by an American woman living among the people afford ample material for an entertaining narrative. Sometimes the didactic and religious purpose is put a little too prominently to the front, and a little condensation would have improved the book from the literary stand-

point. (The F. H. Revell Company, New

York. \$1.25, net.)

The Work of Preaching

Theological Seminary, are, as the title-page intimates, for a professional class. But they are free from scholasticism, and sensitive to the demands of the present time, which is viewed as at once a harder and a better time for the preacher than any time before, and

demanding better preachers. How to preach, and also how not to preach, is shown, with fullness of direction and caution; but the two things most insisted on are the true theory of preaching and the study of its illustrations in great preachers. The sermon is regarded as not manufactured, but born-a message from God born of the Spirit in the heart, a Gospel message for salvation; but these terms are broadly construed as applicable to all that is included in "the making of man," yet holding the spiritual aim supreme. For practical delineation of the ideal the great lights of the modern pulpit are freely introduced-above all, Phillips Brooks, and Henry Ward Beecher, "the Shakespeare of the pulpit." Though a professor of sociology as well as of homiletics, Dr. Hoyt abstains from special advice upon the peculiarly difficult problem of properly relating the two in applying the Gospel to "the puzzling questions of a complex age." If the general counsel given on how to preach is followed, such advice will be less needed. (The Macmillan Company, New York. \$1.50.)

Letters to The Outlook

INSURANCE OFFICERS

In the interest of the policy-holders and the cause of good insurance it may not be amiss at this time to make some brief but emphatic suggestions concerning the actions of the trustees and directors of some of our insurance companies in the selection of the officers who are to guide the affairs of their respective institutions. I am convinced that in the choice of a president, in addition to executive or managerial ability, two requirements, each of prime importance, should be kept in mind. These are, first, that he be thoroughly versed, in theory and in practice, in the broad fundamental principles underlying the science of life insurance-in other words, that he be an actuary in the larger sense of that term; second, that he be equally fitted by theory and practice to deal intelligently with the problems arising in the world of finance. I purposely place this requirement last, for, unfortunately, in the minds of many it seems to be the single desideratum.

The reasons for the above requirements are not far to seek. Business concerns look for their managers and executive heads among those who through years of apprenticeship have made themselves familiar with the various phases, technical and otherwise, of the business under consideration. I think it would be unwise to deviate from this rule in

so technical and complicated a profession as that of life insurance. Years of study and practice are required to become familiar with the principles of insurance, and to keep pace with the rapid evolution and growth in the application of these principles to our social and economic needs; it is absurd to suppose that this function can be exercised with maximum efficiency by one whose previous training has been that of the banker or railroad man, no matter how proficient or successful he may have been in his own line of work. The insurance executive should know enough about the technicalities of insurance to pass intelligently on the larger problems presented by his company, without depending absolutely or to any considerable extent on the advice of subordinate officers. He should not, like Mr. McCurdy, be obliged to leave everything to his actuary. He should be enough of an actuary himself to know whether the mortality table adopted by his company is proper, whether the interest assumptions are safe, whether the dividends are being accumulated or distributed according to sound actuarial principles, whether the premiums are on a proper basis and loaded according to principles of equity, whether the securities of the company are properly valued in its assets from year to year. He should be able to suggest policy forms to meet the conditions of healthy competition, to pass on broad questions of agency management, to distinguish between wise and foolish insurance economy—all matters requiring years of insurance experience. This is what he is paid for, and no company can afford to have at its head a man whose attainments are not professional, in an insurance sense, to this extent at least. The president of an insurance company should be as well fitted to lay down the broad principles to be followed in his actuarial as any other department; indeed, this consideration is especially important, for on the wise guidance of the affairs of this department depends the stability of the company. The financial operations are, or should be, of so conservatively restricted a character as to require the cautious, prudent judgment of the man farthest removed from the sphere and influences of the speculative field.

In the recent attempts to select a president of the Mutual Life we have heard, among others, the names of Claffin, Eckels, Truesdale, Morgan, Fish, Grout, Peabody, put forward as possible candidates; to my mind they are all impossible candidates if the best interests of insurance and the policy-holders are consulted. Not one of these gentlemen, gifted though he may be in his particular profession, is fitted by experience, practice, or theory for the complex duties of this office

Where, then, shall the proper candidate be found? Most naturally among insurance men with practical experience. It would not be difficult to find men of undoubted integrity and the highest ability now active in this field of work willing to serve in the executive capacity for a fraction of the compensation now accorded some incumbents of this position.

The ideal type of insurance executive is embodied in the modern actuary, broadly versed in the principles of finance and acquainted with every detail of the insurance business. It is not uncommon in English companies to find the general manager and executive head an actuary of first rank, and the tendency on the Continent is decidedly towards professional training and the requirement of scientific and technical attainments in the superior officers of a life company.

In conclusion, I have made my point if I have made it clear that the head of an insurance company should be sought for in the insurance profession, and that he be theoretically and practically equipped in the technical principles of insurance as well as the general practice of finance. Public faith in the principles of insurance has not been disturbed in the least, and great names are not

needed to restore confidence; we have had enough of dummies and figureheads, and the quickest way to inaugurate the expected reforms is to place men of integrity and real efficiency in command.

JAMES W. GLOVER.

THE SUPERVISING TEACHER

In recent issues of The Outlook I have noticed articles on education in the Philippines. One of these articles made special reference to the supervising teacher, but it entirely omitted one very important phase of his work—the difficulties he has to encounter.

In some respects the greatest difficulty lies in the fact that the supervising teacher is sent to his district with no authority whatever. In fact, he receives no clear instructions about his work, and is not sure just what he is supposed to do. There is no compulsory educational law, yet he is expected to have one-third of the school population in the public schools. The reports that the people are so enthusiastic over education that the pupils have to be turned away are fiction rather than fact. I have yet to see or hear of any school (and I have heard of a good many) where a good attendance is kept without the aid of the municipal police. These police are, of course, under the orders of the "presidente," so education, to a certain extent, is in his hands. However, he is not supposed to use them for such a purpose, but, thanks to the happy-go-lucky way of enforcing the laws in the provinces, the teacher, if the "presidente' is of any usewhich sometimes happens—can get a fairly good sized school. If, on the other hand, the "presidente" cares more for political pull than for educational push-which is often the case—the school, in spite of the strenuous efforts of the teacher, is apt to have a checkered career. Furthermore, although one-third of the school population is wanted, there are not enough books and other school supplies for half that number. A teacher may not receive enough pencils during the entire year to furnish his pupils once, and he receives the other supplies in proportion. It is often necessary to start a new school of one hundred to two hundred pupils with a chart, a blackboard—which is sometimes omitted—and a dozen pieces of crayon. Add to this collection a teacher who knows but little English or anything else, and the outfit is complete. And yet a teacher is supposed to have several such schools and teach the pupils in three years as much as an American child will learn, in his own language, in four years. But even supposing there were enough supplies and

good teachers, there is not enough money to pay them with. I know of a town of twenty thousand inhabitants (this is no exception) in which the treasurer is unable to pay the salaries of five teachers. Some "barrios" (villages) promise to pay the salaries of their teachers, but that is about as far as many of them get in that direction.

The lack of authority on the part of the supervising teacher, of supplies for the pupils if they come, and of money to pay the native teachers, who are not very good, of course, is a great detriment to the department and a great hindrance for the supervisor. The schemes he devises to surmount these difficulties are too numerous to mention. But with all this the department is not doing so much as reports would have one believe.

The "liberal salaries" that the teachers receive do not stand a close examination. A supervising teacher has charge of from five hundred to three thousand pupils, scattered over a vast territory. With these he has difficulties far greater than a superintendent over an equal number in the States, to say nothing of his environment, yet he does not receive as much salary. In fact, although his work is never finished, he does not, as a rule, receive as large a salary as many stenographers of common-school education, who work but five or six hours per day, and with no responsibility whatever. When the department kindly informs the Filipino teachers, in order to make them feel contented with their small salaries—but as much as they earn—that their superiors receive twice as much here as they could get in the United States, it shows how ignorant the insular officials are of their hard-working subordi-

The entrance of the Educational Department into the Civil Service was hailed as a great advantage for all concerned. If such be the case, the advantage is hard to find. I have not yet heard a division superintendent or a supervising teacher say a word in its favor, but many have been strong in their denunciation of the plan. At present, if an experienced teacher, and probably a college graduate, wants a raise in salary, he must pass an examination to show that he knows enough to teach a primary school. Under the present system a teacher may work ten or fifteen hours a day, being out in all kinds of weather for weeks at a time; but if, through over-exertion, he is not able to attend to his duties part of a day, his salary is deducted for the time lost. He may make arrangements for spending the long vacation, and at the eleventh hour he may receive the welcome news that he must work a few weeks extra! He is supposed to receive transportation reimbursement for visiting schools, but it is so much trouble to get it, and he has to wait so long, that he is utterly disgusted.

I have simply tried to mention a few of the unnecessary difficulties that a supervising teacher has to meet. It seems to me that the natural hindrances of the country are sufficient without extra ones being placed upon him. To a certain extent it must be laid to our American way of wanting to do everything in a minute and not counting the cost. In spite of all this, the supervising teacher is respected and has done a great deal, but he is respected on account of his own personal worth, and he has done a great deal because of his own downright American grit and tact.

Philippine Islands.

A WORD IN BEHALF OF THEOLOGY

Why is it that in these serene irenic days no one can say a good word for kindness and brotherliness and the good deed without a side slash, more or less savage, at theology? Is it because theology has frowned upon mercy and charity and good works? Or have we just discovered, at the end of the ages, that theology has all along been the secret and unsuspected enemy that has kept the world from being good? It is just possible that in all this indiscriminate attack upon theology we may be striking at a friend of the good deed instead of a foe, or at least that what we mean to condemn is not theology in itself, but a bad kind of theology.

It is no very serious matter when ignorant and unbalanced men attack theology, but when such a large-minded, efficient friend of the good deed as Jacob Riis, in his recent article in The Outlook on "Neighbors," graciously but pointedly suggests that in order to be neighbors theology must be retired and dispensed with, the other side of the case calls for recognition. The writer has the privilege and pleasure of conducting classes in theology daily. Some of the young men who are preparing for the ministry enter the classes somewhat reluctantly, with a predisposition against theology, fostered, strangely enough, by some of our ablest religious journals. And yet this deadening and dividing study has actually led us into a very true and a very beautiful spiritual and intellectual neighborliness. We deal with dogmas (those horrid bugbears) daily. One of these dogmas, that upon which we dwell most, is the dogma of the Divine Fatherhood, another is the divine humanity of Jesus Christ, another is the suffering of Infinite Love for men. another is that of the Immortality of the soul. Freely, frankly, sincerely, we discuss these dogmas. Upon the theories concerning

them we do not agree, but the great dogmas themselves arouse us, strengthen us, draw us together, create ideals, fit us for intelligent and high-hearted service of men. Why is this?

A man arose once in a prayer-meeting—a soldier and a man of affairs, who had united with the Church late in life, but with a great sense of the joy and goodliness of the Christian life-and, with no little earnestness and warmth, stated that for him, at least, theology had not the slightest value; he wanted none of it. "It was enough for him," he continued, " to know that God is love, that Jesus Christ is our Saviour, that sin is forgiven, that there is an eternal life hereafter." ology, every word of it! For, the moment faith and experience are translated into intellectual affirmations, theology begins. And we can no more dispense with it than with any natural and legitimate expression of inward feeling and thought.

It is high time to discriminate in this field, or harm and loss to Christianity will certainly ensue. There is a theological dogmatism, a theological systemism, a theological absolutism, against which the protest cannot be too general or too emphatic. But there is a theology that is sane, stirring, uplifting, humanizing, that knows its place and its time, that exists to minister and not to be ministered unto. And to find that theology, and put it to usury in behalf of the neighborly spirit and the good deed, cannot be too urgent a pursuit.

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Berkeley, California.

FILIPINO CHARACTER

In Mr. Brownell's very interesting articles on the Philippines, contained in recent issues of The Outlook and "Public Opinion," the statement is made that the Filipino language has no words for "independence" and "gratitude." This is an error. Kalayaan means independence; pagsasarili means self-government or republic; and the idea of gratitude is conveyed by the phrase utang na loob—literally, debt of the heart. The words tungkol and tupad have meanings closely allied to the latter. The fact that the Bible and as many as a dozen daily papers are printed in Filipino is sufficient proof that the language has adequate power of expression

A study of the psychology of his speech would help us materially to understand the Filipino's mental attitude. The vigor of the language lies not in the roots but in the particles. The former may seem to be inadequate, but when modified by the latter they

become capable of expressing every shade of meaning.

In general, the genius of the Filipino language gives preference to indirect, negative, and periphrastic statements over direct and positive ones. The Filipino says, "Walang di inagaw"—There is nothing not stolen; where we would say, Everything is stolen. Likewise, to a negative interrogation, the Filipino, like the Japanese, will usually answer affirmatively to convey a negative meaning, where we would answer negatively.

The Filipino is apt to convey his mental habit into the little Spanish or English which he may learn, and the resulting confusion leads to misunderstandings and false charges of prevarication. I have found the Filipino to be both truthful and grateful.

DAVID J. DOHERTY, M.D.

A JOYOUS THANK-OFFERING

Reference has been made in former years in The Outlook to the interesting work of School No. 4 (Rivington Street), New York City. Last year the children of two classes so enjoyed making a Thanksgiving offering to an Old Ladies' Home in the neighborhood that this year all the children in the school over 2,100 Jews-were told that they might, if they wished, each bring one thinga potato, an apple-anything. It was expected that thirty or forty baskets might be filled. Instead, the response was so hearty that officers and teachers were overwhelmed with three hundred basketfuls-potatoes, onions, cabbages, apples, oranges, bananas, packages of crackers, cereals, tea, coffee, sugar, salt-all sorts of eatables. Teachers and children worked hard to distribute it all, but it proved impossible and a van was secured. The owner of this refused to accept any pay for his services, saying he had attended that school when a boy and would show them that he too could be "benevolent." The distribution was made not only to the Old Ladies' Home, but also to the Daughters of Jacob, the Hospital of St. Francis (Catholic), a Methodist Orphan Asylum, and the Salvation Army.

To any one who knows the extreme poverty of those in this quarter of our city, so joyous an offering, permeated with the spirit of self-sacrifice and crowned with the perfect tolerance that gives according to need, irrespective of sect or religion, is not only beautiful, it is an inspiration to "do likewise." All honor is due those loyal, self-sacrificing principals and teachers whose example creates and fosters the atmosphere which makes such things possible.

M. E. J.

Brooklyn, New York.

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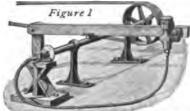
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The Outlook

Volume 82

Saturday, January 27, 1906

Number 4

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THE OUTLOOK is a Weekly Newspaper and an Illustrated Monthly Magazine in one. It is published every Saturday—fifty-two issues a year. The fourth issue in each month is an Illustrated Magazine Number, containing about twice as many pages as the regular weekly issue, and many pictures.

PRICE.—The subscription price is Three Dollars a year, payable in advance. Ten cents a copy.

POSTAGE IS PREPAID by the publishers for all subscriptions in the United States, Hawaiian Islands, Philippine Islands, Guam, Porto Rico, Tutuila (Samoa), Shanghai, Canal Zone, Cuba, Canada, and Mexico. For all other countries in the Postal Union add \$1.56 for postage.

CHANGE OF ADDRESS.—When a change of address is ordered, both the new and the old address must be given. The notice should be sent one week before the change is to take effect.

DISCONTINUANCES.—If a subscriber wishes his copy of The Outlook discontinued at the expiration of his subscription, notice to that effect should be sent. Otherwise it is assumed that a continuance of the subscription is desired.

HOW TO REMIT.—Remittances should be sent by Draft on New York, Express-Order, or Money-Order, payable to order of The Outlook Company. Cash should be sent in Registered Letter.

LETTERS should be addressed:

THE OUTLOOK COMPANY

Chicago Office, 1436 Marquette Building

287 Fourth Avenue, New York

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The Outlook

SATURDAY, JANUARY 27, 1906

The Election in France

M. Fallières, President of the French Senate, was elected President of the French Republic by the National Assembly on Wednesday of last week on the first ballot; 846 votes were cast, of which M. Fallières received 449 and M. Doumer 371, and there were 28 scattered votes. The Assembly, consisting of the Deputies and the Senators, met in the Congress Hall of the Palace of Versailles at one o'clock; and although the proceedings were long, owing to the fact that the members of the Assembly voted in alphabetical order, there appears to have been very little doubt about the result from the beginning. When the announcement was finally made, it was received with a great outburst of enthusiasm. The President-elect returned to Paris from Versailles escorted by a guard of honor, and was received with the greatest friendliness at the city limits and during his passage to the Elysée Palace, where he was met by President Loubet. There have been nine Presidential elections since the establishment of the Third Republic, but only two Presidents, Grévy and Loubet, have finished their term of office. The election of M. Fallières means the continuity of the policy of moderation in home affairs and conciliation in foreign affairs which has stamped the administration of President Loubet from the beginning. The President and the President-elect are old and warm friends, and their attitude toward current politics is substantially harmonious. M. Fallières is a Republican of pronounced though not radical tendencies, a resolute opponent of revolutionary Socialism. He is also a devout Catholic, but a believer in a free Church in a free State. During the exciting discussion of Church and State affairs which has been going on in

France, the new President's course has

been marked by consistent support of the movement looking to the separation of Church and State, and by consistent moderation in dealing with the Church. He has on more than one occasion shown the kind of courage which is essential to the head of a great State, and while he is in sympathy with the liberalizing movement which is rapidly making France thoroughly republican, he is not afraid to oppose the popular will or to advocate an unpopular measure.

Clément Armand Fallières has The New very much the same kind of President background as President Lou-They are both sons of the people, children of the soil. Fallières was born sixty-four years ago, in the old province of Gascony, the grandson of a blacksmith and the son of a peasant, like President Loubet. He went to Paris at an early age, passed his examination for the bar, returned to Agen, his native place, and soon secured a first position as a lawyer. He was elected Mayor, returned to Paris as deputy, became Assistant Secretary of the Interior under Jules Ferry, and later was a member of several Cabinets, finally succeeding President Loubet as President of the Senate. Like his predecessor, the new President has kept the simple tastes of his birth and breeding, and represents a kind of integrity by no means too common among French public His private life has been free from even the suspicion of any kind of scandal. He is devoted to his family, and, like M. Loubet, loves his fireside, his books, and music. Coming to the great position of President of the Republic in the prime of life, with thirty years of parliamentary experience behind him, intimately acquainted with the ins and outs of French politics, having per-

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sonal relations with the great majority of public men, a man of sound judgment, good health, stainless morals, and moderate temper, there is every reason to believe that the administration of M. Fallières will mean the steady progression of the French people away from the discords, differences, and uncertainties of the past toward unity, harmony, and the habits of free government. It is fortunate for France that it is likely to have a continuity of policy in the hands of two Presidents so free from entanglement with any of the factions, and of substantial rather than brilliant abilities: for France needs nothing so much as time for quiet growth in republican ways, thought, and habits of action.

•

In inaugurating the movement for the Moroccan Conat Algeciras ference at Algeciras, France and Germany agreed to consider (1) organization, by international accord. of the police, except on the Algerian frontier; (2) surveillance and repression of contraband arms, except along the Algerian frontier; (3) financial reforms, including the creation of a State bank with the privilege of issuing currency; (4) study of the customs and new means of raising revenues. Two questions arise: Why are Americans to assist in settling these matters? How can they assist except by voting for one side or the other, in which event they are sure to offend a nation with which the American Government is on frlendly terms? Last week, in the United States Senate, two prominent Senators, Mr. Bacon, of Georgia, and Mr. Hale, of Maine, expressed the wish that the President had not accepted the invitation to the Moroccan Conference. their remarks one might gather that the appearance of our representatives at such a congress, or indeed at any congress of European Powers, was something unprecedented in diplomacy—at least a violent departure from Washington's counsels against "entangling alliances." Our right to be at a Moroccan conference is one hundred and nineteen years old. In 1787 we contracted a treaty with Morocco. In 1836 we contracted another. In 1880 America was one of the twelve civilized Powers which united at Madrid in establishing the right of external protection to life and property in Morocco. The treaty agreed upon was ratified by the United States Senate and is still in force. It is said with truth that our interests in Morocco are commercial and not political; but extraterritorial jurisdiction directly affects commercial interests, and, in the present Conference, so do the propositions for establishing an international police, a State bank, new currency, customs, and taxes.

Though the oppo-American Intluence nents in the Conference are France and Germany, no conflict should arise if they confine themselves to the points raised by their respective programmes. If they exceed these, danger may possibly result. Should our delegates be called upon to vote in a way to aggrieve either France or Germany, the Secretary of State can instruct them to withdraw from the Conference; but no such event is anticipated. In any event, if a treaty is agreed to, the American delegates will subscribe to it ad referendum, leaving the question of the approval of their act to the subsequent consideration of the Department of State, and, if the Department's approval should be given, leaving the resulting treaty to be passed on by the American Senate before its final rati-Our delegates, being more disfication. interested than are any others, are peculiarly qualified to prevent either Power from any action not included in the programme. In the opinion of State Department officials, the complete dissociation of our delegates from any policy, act, or expression which in the remotest degree would tend to thwart or delay a harmonious arrangement between the treaty nations and Morocco should, in the case of any unfortunate situation, add force to the absolute fairness of their advice, and thereby in this negative but none the less influential manner make for the complete harmony and accord of the Conference. The delegates will be in constant touch with the Department by cable, and whatever decisions they may reach will be subject to the approval

of the Department. At Portsmouth President Roosevelt and the Administration exercised a beneficent influence in shaping the result. It is to be hoped that at Algeciras the American delegates may exercise a similarly beneficent influence. No other spirit or attitude would justify their presence at the Conference or represent the purpose of the American people.

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The strained diplomatic re-

France and lations between France and Venezuela Venezuela, reported in The Outlook's last issue, were brought to a definite and serious crisis by President Castro's ill-considered and insulting treatment of M. Taigny. The former French chargé d'affaires had gone on board a French steamer at La Guayra, and was refused permission to return on shore on the allegation that he had boarded the vessel without an official This he was accustomed to do. and his diplomatic position had made it entirely proper. The action of the Venezuelan authorities was arbitrary and insulting both to M. Taigny and his Government; and the excuse that M. Taigny had ceased to be an official representative of France is without force because of the invariable international practice of according diplomats protection and courteous treatment until they have actually left the country with which they have broken off relations. France immediately retaliated by notifying the Venezuelan chargé d'affaires at Paris, M. Maubourguet, that he must leave French territory, and his passports were forthwith sent to him, which is the official method of actually expelling a foreign representative. Beyond this, France will require from Venezuela a formal apology for its action, and is to make a naval demonstration and an exhibition of force in Venezuelan waters and ports by means of the squadron of three ships now in that vicinity, and of others which have been sent across the Atlantic to The entire French press join them. agree in characterizing President Castro's action as intolerable and in demanding unmistakable and substantial reparation. and American sentiment sustains this

position. The influential "Temps" declares significantly that France will choose a method of proceeding which will not hurt any one's interest and at the same time will "bring to his senses this strange dictator who in the end will be brought to account by Venezuela itself." Back of the immediate cause of offense lies France's determination to secure a settlement of the matters in dispute already described in The Outlook; namely, the non-payment of awards to French creditors and the hostile action toward the French Cable Company. The assertion that the French Cable Company had favored the insurgents and had refused to pay taxes are positively denied by French officials. It is understood that France has given full assurances and explanations to our own Government about its action in Venezuela. Washington advices indicate that the appointment of our Minister at Caracas to act for France in necessary matters during the cessation of diplomatic relations between France and Venezuela has not been received favorably by President Castro, although such a procedure is the invariable practice in international situations like that existing at present; it is even intimated that despatches from our Government to Mr. Russell have been intercepted by the Venezuelan Government. If this is true, the United States will undoubtedly demand an explanation and will deal with the whole situation as an interested party. That President. Castro is quite capable of acting in an unreasonable, petty, and spiteful way has been demonstrated more than once.

6

Last week the Russian Law and Order Government continued in Russia its work of restoring law and order. In St. Petersburg it arrested the members of the latest Workmen's Council, as it had arrested the members of its predecessors. Undismayed, a new Workmen's Council was promptly elected by the Socialists and revolutionaries, This Council immediately issued an address to workmen throughout Russia, threatening with death all who did not obey its commands. In the provinces, acting on the Government's instructions,

the military commanders proceeded unsparingly against the revolutionists. On the other hand, the Government summarily retired nineteen generals, all members of the Council of War, representatives of the bureaucracy and opposed to the Witte plan of reformed government. The Czar apparently regards it as essential that the Russian army should be in sympathy with the plan now decided upon by himself and his advisers. His action is a direct blow at the hitherto powerful Council of War itself. Those working for a more liberal government have received further encouragement by the sudden rush last week to register for the elections to the Duma, or Parliament, the advisory body proclaimed six months ago. period of registration, which expired at the end of last week, has been extended a fortnight. The unexpected rush was due to a final awakening by Socialists and revolutionists to the necessity of having representation in the Duma, after having put themselves on record as favoring boycotting the Duma and continuing the armed revolt. They are now concentrating their attention on getting a full registration from the labor, professional, and Socialist organizations throughout the country.

(6)

The Russian revolution-Russian ary party is composed Political Parties of Social Democrats and Anarchists; the Moderate or Liberal party last week split into two well-defined forces, Constitutional Monarchists and Constitutional Democrats. The latter represent the advanced liberal opinions of the zemstvoists—the members of the district and provincial councils. Constitutional Democrats have now exhibited sufficient political strength to induce the Social Democrats to enter upon a campaign of registration, the latter party hoping to win enough electors to hold the balance of power and force an alliance and a division of seats with the Constitutional Democrats. Thus the Moderate and Revolutionary parties may find some common standing ground of method, if not of principle. There might be an advantage in this both to

Constitutional Democrats and to Social Democrats, but the greater advantage would lie with the latter, for, under the present electoral plan, by which the workmen's representatives are to be merged in the general electoral commissions both in the provinces and in the cities, there would seem to be little chance anywhere for an absolute Socialist majority. The news of last week logically continues Russian political history from October 30, 1905, when the Czar published his manifesto granting elementary political rights and appointed Count Witte Prime Minister. Up to that date there had been, as there are now, three great general political divisions in Russia—reactionaries, moderates, revolutionists, with many subdivisions. Up to that date most of the news from Russia had concerned the doings of the reactionaries; from that date they were definitely dethroned, and most of the news from Russia has concerned the Moderates and Revolutionaries. One may at least hope that the reactionaries are permanently set aside, that autocracy and bureaucracy have definitely given place to moderation, reasonableness, a liberal, perhaps a constitutional government.

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The only interruption of the The Liberal steady movement towards Victory Liberalism in England as shown by the elections last week was the triumphant return of Mr. Chamberlain to his place in Parliament by an increased majority and the election of seven Unionists from Birmingham, that city, in striking contrast to Manchester and the rest of England, presenting a solid Conservative front. The Liberals interpreted Mr. Chamberlain's success as a tribute to his personal popularity and to his skill as an organizer of politi-For thirty years he has been cal forces. the foremost citizen of Birmingham. As member of the school committee, the Common Council, and as Mayor, he contributed greatly to the improvement of municipal methods, and his later career has strengthened his hold upon his fellow-citizens. Outside of Birmingham, one Liberal success has followed

close upon another; all the members of the Liberal Government have been returned, many by a very large majority, while seven members of the late Conservative Government have been beaten, including the ex-Prime Minister. week before last the vote was largely in the cities; last week it was largely in the rural districts; and, judged by the results. Liberal sentiment has captured the country as completely as it has captured the town. The Liberals had at the end of last week 228 seats, and had secured a majority above the combined Unionists, Irish Nationalists, and Labor-Some estimates place the probable total strength of the Liberals at nearly 400. The great majority which the Liberals are piling up is attracting even less attention than the extraordinary growth of the Labor vote. In the last Parliament this vote was represented by six members; in the new Parliament it is believed that it will be represented by not less than forty votes, divided into three groups, the largest made up of about twenty-two members, who are described as Independents; the second, including Mr. Burns, Mr. Broadhurst, and other well-known moderate labor men, who are likely to act with the Liberals; and the third, a small group, made up of extreme men of various types, mostly Socialistic. The new Parliament will contain an extraordinary number of men unused to its rules and customs. is estimated that the number of new members will exceed three hundred, a fact which is significant of the revolutionary results of the election, and significant of the very important changes which the Liberal and Labor factors predict.

The First American Ambassador to Japan as the first Japannese Ambassador to the United States has been followed by President Roosevelt's nomination of the Governor-General of the Philippines, Luke E. Wright, to be the first American Ambassador to Japan, and there is every reason to suppose that the nomination will be approved by the Senate. On another page will be found a portrait and personal sketch of

Viscount Aoki. Governor Wright's record and personal history have been familiar to American readers since his appointment to the important post he has held in our Eastern possessions. He has been in the Philippines for five years, having first gone out as a member of the second Philippine Commission; he was made Vice-Governor-Gen eral in the following year, when civil government was first established. that work he played an important part, and was, moreover, Acting Governor for some time during the necessary absence of Secretary Taft. The two men worked in perfect accord in putting the new Philippine Government into successful operation; and when two years ago Mr. Taft became Secretary of War, the ap pointment of Mr. Wright as Governor-General made it possible to carry on without a break and with perfect harmony the policy of our administration already firmly established by Mr. Taft. Governor Wright is by birth a Tennessean, was for several years Attorney-General of that State, and in 1896 was a supporter of Palmer and Buckner, the "Gold Democratic" candidates for President and Vice-President. Governor Wright will be succeeded temporarily in office at Manila by Judge Henry T. Ide, the Vice-Governor, who is now acting as Governor-General during General Wright's absence in this country. It is understood, however, that upon Judge Ide's retiral from office on June 1 next, in accordance with his resignation tendered some time ago, the appointment of Governor-General will be given to James F. Smith, who has served in the Philippines as Colonel and Brigadier-General of Volunteers, as Associate Justice of the Supreme Court, and as a member of the Philippine Commission, in which he filled the duties of Secretary of Public Instruction.

(6)

The Philippine Bill
Passes the House
So much has been said about the firmness and fighting force of the so-called "insurgents" in the House that it was to many a surprise that the Philippine Tariff Bill should be passed by an overwhelming majority.

The final vote was 258 to 71. Of the opposition, 59 votes were from Republican members, while the Democrats cast only 12 votes in opposition. Had the Democrats as a unit opposed the bill, it could not have passed. Thus, so far as the lower House of Congress is concerned, a measure which has its foundation in justice has been adopted with such general assent by the country at large as to indicate that the American people disapprove factious or interested opposition to a policy of making the Philippine Islands prosperous and a satisfactory place of residence for the people in whose behalf the United States exercises control. The bill has been outlined in The Outlook; its main effect is to reduce the tariff on sugar and tobacco coming into the United States from the Philippines from the present seventy-five per cent. of the Dingley duty to twenty-five per cent. thereof until 1909, when they are to come in free of duty altogether. Several attempts were made to modify the measure by amendment, but all of them failed, with the single exception of a concession by the majority in agreeing to include rice, together with sugar and tobacco, as articles on which absolute free trade is not to be applied until 1909. The bill has been introduced into the Senate, and the indications are that, while it may encounter strong opposition, it will ultimately pass. The great danger to be feared is that it will be so amended as to make its effect only partial and less beneficial than it should be.

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If the members of the The Panama Senate Committee on In-Investigation teroceanic Canals expected to get any first-hand information from Mr. Poultney Bigelow with regard to affairs on the Isthmus, they must have been sorely disappointed. His testimony consisted largely either of refusals to answer questions or of "impressions" gathered from unnamed persons. illustration may be taken from his broad assertion that many engineers of note declined to accept Government employment in the Canal Zone because of their disapproval of the methods adopted. Pressed to give names, he finally mentioned two, those of William Barclay Parsons (whose friendly and appreciative relations to the Panama work have been shown in his printed articles) and of Mr. John R. Freeman, of Boston, who instantly denied the statement under his own name. Mr. Bigelow's refusal to give other names on the ground that it would injure his informants' reputations led to his being placed under nominal arrest for contempt of the Committee, but it is not judged probable that proceedings or prosecution will be pressed against him. His melodramatic declaration, "You can put me on bread and water, or even condemn me to Colon, but you cannot make me disclose that which has been given me in confidence," will not, it is confidently hoped, be put to the test. As to his actual observation on the Isthmus, Mr. Bigelow said that he spent the greater part of two days there. Mr. Shonts says that it was twenty-eight hours and ten minutes, and that "in that time Mr. Bigelow accumulated a fund of exact knowledge sufficient to enable him to draw a general and sweeping indictment of the President, Secretary Taft, the Canal Commission, Governor Magoon, Chief Engineer Stevens, Colonel Gorgas, and everything that has been done on the Isthmus since the American Government came into possession of the Canal Zone." Before the Committee Mr. Bigelow said that he had spent most of his time in investigating sanitary conditions, and had found that laborers were landed in an oozy swamp of a pestilential character, and that their housing and sanitation were atrocious. The thoroughness of his investigation is illustrated by Mr. Shonts's quotation of Mr. Bigelow's statement that the volume of water in a recent rain was so great that it "backed the sewage up into cellars and ruined many houses "—the truth being, Mr. Shorts points out, that there is not a cellar in Panama, and never has been. The country at large seems to be of all but unanimous opinion that the circumstances of Mr. Bigelow's investigation make his testimony practically valueless, and that the verdict of the New York "Tribune," "laughed out of court," is substantially correct.——The Senate Committee has, it is reported, summoned as a witness Mr. Wallace, whose resignation was so severely criticised by Secretary Taft. It is announced that the Canal Commission will let out to responsible contractors comparatively short sections of the actual work, in the belief that in many cases the work can be done better and more expeditiously by contract than by the Government directly.

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For many years the Na-The National tional Board of Trade Board of Trade has been meeting in annual sessions in Washington. During that time it has discussed many subjects, and its recommendations to Congress have influenced legislation. Its influence stands for a concentrated expression of the opinions of its constituent associations—local Chambers of Commerce, Boards of Trade, and similar business Its meeting at Washington last bodies. week covered such topics as our merchant marine, inter-State commerce law, railway transportation, the consular service, postal affairs, Federal control of inter-State insurance, tariff and reciprocity, internal waterways, international arbitration, national and international currency, pure food laws, and national bankruptcy laws. From such a representative body an expression of opinion on the general subject of tariff revision is of peculiar pertinence. It gives us satisfaction to chronicle the fact that the resolution introduced by Mr. Eugene N. Foss, of Boston, well known as an outspoken advocate of tariff revision, was adopted. The resolution sets forth that, recognizing the principle of protection as the established policy of our country, the National Board of Trade advocates reciprocal concessions by means of a dual—or maximum and minimum—tariff as the most adequate and practical method of relieving the strained situation with which we are now confronted. Furthermore, the recommendation is made that the question of the schedules and items to be considered in any scheme of reciprocal concessions may preferably be suggested by a permanent tariff commission, to be created by Congress and appointed by the President, this Commission to consist of economic, industrial, and commercial experts. Finally, action was urged upon Congress at the earliest possible time, in harmony with the recommendations made at the recent National Reciprocity Convention. This is all very well, but we think it unfortunate that the National Board of Trade did not also put itself on record against that form of maximum and minimum tariff which, as embodied in the McCleary bill, now before Congress, is useful only for purposes of retaliation.



Municipal developments The Situation in in Philadelphia continue Philadelphia to attract general interest and to afford food for political philosophers. The domination of Durham, McNichol, and Penrose in the Republican organization has been terminated and a new leadership substituted for it through the agency of the Lincoln party, an organization formed during the recently concluded campaign to afford a single antimachine State and city ticket. The City party had only a local ticket. The Lincoln party column was used by nearly a hundred thousand voters, and was made the medium through which a large number of dissatisfied Republicans expressed their disapprobation with the "organization" Republicans. Since the election the Lincolnites have made a fight to secure control of the Republican machinery, and in this seem to have been successful, largely through the guidance of John M. Mack, a former political and business partner of Durham and Mc-Nichol. Mayor Weaver's attitude toward this reorganization of the Republican forces, or rather the new leadership, has been cautiously expressed in an interview. and it is generally believed that he voices the views of a large number of independent Republicans:

"What the independent Republicans of Philadelphia have been striving for," declared the Mayor, "was to regain the control of their party organization from the men who have for so long mismanaged the party and abused the powers they had usurped. If the Republican City Committee shall be rejuvenated by the election of clean, decent men, I think that will meet the approval of all

Republicans. For my part I shall be perfectly satisfied.

"It would seem to me, however, that a strong minority party would be necessary in order to insure the nomination of acceptable candidates by the dominant party in the years to come. It may be that a combination of some kind may be effected whereby the Lincoln party, City party, and Democratic party may be fused so as to hold the balance of power, and thus act as a check upon the Republican organization.

The City party has taken the position that in an exchange of bosses there is no accomplishment of any desired end, and therefore it declared that the Republican primaries held on January 11 were not "of the sort in which the victorious citizens of Philadelphia should in any measure co-operate." In a carefully prepared public statement the City party declared:

Recently the people have observed with regret political action on the part of office-holders, and those who aspired to ride into power through controlling them, exactly similar to the methods of the old discredited "Gang." That action of this kind has been without the consent of the Mayor, and at least some of his Directors, we sincerely believe, and we call upon them with confidence to prevent its continuance.

At the special election held on January 9 to fill vacancies in the legislative delegates, the Regulars and Independents divided honors.

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In the new Capitol building Pennsylvania at Harrisburg began on Legislation January 15 the extra session of the Pennsylvania Legislature. The supplemental call which Governor Pennypacker issued enables the Legislature to consider more subjects than were originally contemplated. It makes possible legislation on uniform primaries, State Civil Service Reform, corrupt practices at election, and a Greater Pittsburg bill. In addition to these subjects the special session is authorized to deal with the following questions:

The safeguarding of the State funds and the securing of greater interest on deposits.

Legislative reapportionment. Personal registration.

Repeal of the Philadelphia "ripper."

The building of county bridges.

The abolition of the fees of the Secretary of the Commonwealth and of the Insurance Commissioner.

John W. Hill, former engineer in charge of the filtration plants, has been acquitted under the instruction of the Court, the Commonwealth having failed to make out its case. The result was somewhat in the nature of a foregone conclusion, as the charge was a highly technical one, difficult of proof and comprehension. Moreover, there was a feeling that he was being tried for the crime of others. The trial served, however, to bring out many important facts in connection with erection of the filtration plants.

The rising tide of popular The Niagara sentiment in favor of the Campaign preservation of Niagara Falls for all the people, instead of converting it into electric power for the enrichment of a thousand stockholders, more or less, bids fair to become a flood. In October last the American Civic Association, at Cleveland, by resolutions telegraphed to President Roosevelt and to the Governor-General of Canada. called attention to the rights of the whole United States under the Ordinance of 1787, and urged the appointment of a joint international commission for the preservation of the great cataract. work of stimulating public interest has gone steadily forward ever since, until scores of organizations throughout the country, and thousands of people, are bringing their influence to bear upon the President, the Congress, and the New York State Legislature, for the action appropriate for accomplishing the result. The interest of The Outlook in this ob-

ject has been many times expressed, and

is emphasized again in this issue by the

publication of an important article by

Mr. Charles M. Dow, President of the

Commissioners of the State Reservation

at Niagara. We commend this article,

which reviews in order the encroach-

ments upon Niagara Falls, and also the

work which has been steadily carried

forward for a score of years to check

these encroachments. The conclusions

which Mr. Dow arrives at are clear and

specific. The most important of these

conclusions is the necessity for "joint

action of the Government of the United

States and the proper British authori-

Action under the initiative of the President of the United States, through diplomatic channels; action by the Congress of the United States in accordance with the recommendation of the President in his recent annual Message; action by the Legislature of the State of New York looking toward an amendment to the State Constitution—all these are matters of immediate and pressing importance. In order to bring to bear the sentiment of all the people for the accomplishment of these ends, personal letters, the circulation of petitions, action of influential local bodies, the fullest discussion in the printed page, each will contribute to the hoped-for result. We firmly believe that the time is ripe for such action as shall make forever secure the scenic beauty of this greatest of American cataracts.

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The decree has gone forth Football in from the Board of Overseers Disfavor of Harvard that football shall be stricken from the list of intercollegiate sports at that university until it is reformed to their satisfaction. The committee whose report the Overseers adopted considers "the game of football as at present played essentially bad in every respect," and calls the game an "apology for a rough-and-tumble fight." Brave as this action appears to be, it is, in fact, a rather humiliating confession. These college authorities by their action have admitted that they have the power to control athletics, but that they have refrained from exercising that power until at last one athletic game has become insufferable; thereupon, just at the time when college representatives are uniting in a promising effort for reconstruction, these authorities, in a tone of unqualified severity, adopt a measure of prohibition. No better illustration could be imagined of the irresponsible attitude which college authorities in America have too often taken toward the social ethics of the undergraduate body. In the meantime the old self-perpetuating Intercollegiate Rules Committee and the new representative Committee chosen by the New York Football Conference have amalgamated and are vigorously

and conscientiously proceeding to revise the game. Necessary, however, as a revision of the game is, a revision of the spirit in which all college games are too frequently played is absolutely fundamental. Dr. S. Weir Mitchell, the other day, at the University of Pennsylvania, deplored with gentle humor the bitter rivalry and worship of brute strength and muscular skill which football had created. He recalled "our disputes and enthusiasms over the new writers like Tennyson, Dickens, Thackeray," and the days when he really saw "men enthusiastic about Socrates." One does not need to see the past in that golden light which Dr. Mitchell has a genius for kindling in order to admit that the spirit in which college men regard their sport is still far from lofty. As Mr. Charles E. Hughes pointed out at a dinner of Brown University alumni, the commercial spirit in sport at college means the fostering of the commercial standards which create bosses and insurance scandals. Beside this fact the mere roughness and danger of a game are of moderate importance. "It is with chagrin," said Mr. Hughes, "that the alumni of a college read the financial reports of the Athletic Committee and see that it came out fifty thousand dollars or so ahead at the end of the season."

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Mr. Hughes's remark The Value of must be interpreted as College Athletics describing an ideal condition, for that same evening Yale men were cheering the statement that Mr. Camp, "the father of Yale football," had been quietly accumulating out of gate receipts a great surplus. This it has been declared will amount to \$130,000. These Yale men heard very favorable reports of the game as played by Yale teams. President Hadley told them: "Football is a major sport, like hunting or deep-sea fishing. . . . All too often we have had deaths from hunting or deaths from sailing, but during the thirty years we have played American Rugby football at Yale there has been no death, and, to the best of my knowledge, no grave case of permanent injury." gave them also sound advice: "To say

that a man means to play unfairly and then keep on playing with him is not the act of a gentleman, I am convinced that if every American college student and graduate would see that it was his duty as a gentleman to attribute honorable intentions to his opponent as long as he accepted him as an opponent, the worst causes of irritation would be At the Brown University avoided." dinner President Faunce also had this testimony to give on behalf of athleticstestimony which, so far from lessening any zeal for the reformation of football, ought to give to the work of such reformation a new importance and value:

As much as I deplore the injuries that result from football, I say that they are of little account compared with the enormous social benefits it has brought about. I believe the present rules must be changed, not, however, to make football as innocuous as dominoes or The harm lies, not in the roughauthors. ness and the danger of the game, but in the fraud and deceit that surround the contests as now conducted. The buying up of men, the deliberate breaking of the rules of the game—these are the real evils that eat out the heart of student character. I firmly believe that we ought to have one "rough" game in college—one game in which men come into personal conflict with one another. When people are now denouncing the game of football, the old drinking and carousing of a generation ago, the smashing of windowpanes and the destruction of property characteristic of that time, are forgotten. These things are unknown in college to-day, and it is a direct result of the rise of athletics, especially football.

This widespread and apparently undiminishing discussion of football is thoroughly wholesome, for it impresses upon people the fact that the question of college athletics, as President Faunce in this same speech said, "is not a question of physical benefit or damage"—except, if we may interrupt, incidentally; "it is a much larger, broader question; it is a question of social or of moral benefit or damage."

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Marshall Field An American merchant of the highest type, Marshall Field, of Chicago, who died last week in New York City, left behind him a business and personal reputation in which may be found both a commendable example and a salutary contrast. Large as were the interests he

controlled and great his opportunities for financial power, he abstained from speculation, from those gigantic schemes of foisting upon the public great blocks of inflated securities which have made the phrase "high finance" a byword, and from using trust funds for secret or personal ends. Beginning as a clerk in a general store, he rapidly pushed his way into mercantile enterprises and built up a commercial house of such magnitude that he is said at the last to have had more than five thousand The great persons on his pay-roll. Chicago fire of 1871 found Mr. Field's firm doing a business of \$8,000,000 a year, and, severe as was the blow, that business was in a few years doubled and quadrupled, until now it is said to be at least eight times that sum. To carry on, or direct even in the broadest way, such a business was the work of a man of splendid executive ability, firmness of purpose, and soundness of judgment. All this Mr. Field undoubtedly was, and apart from his mercantile affairs he was a power for good in the commercial and banking world. A Chicago banker is quoted as saying: "He has prevented more small failures and done more to keep the methods of trade in the West toned up to sound business principles than any other man." One of Mr. Field's last financial achievements was the proposal of a simple plan for averting the panic threatened by the impending failure of the Walsh banks. Others had striven in vain over the problem, when a few words from Mr. Field opened a clear and safe way out. Among the maxims upon which Marshall Field built up his commercial career were these: Never give a note; never buy a share of stock on margin; do not speculate; do not borrow; do not encumber a business with mortgages; do business on a cash basis. Personally Mr. Field was of calm temperament, quiet, unostentatious, and of simple habits. He was interested in public affairs, always supported honest city government, and advocated a broadminded public policy. Among his more notable benefactions were those to the University of Chicago and to the Field Columbian Museum, which he founded as a permanent memorial of the Chicago

World's Fair. Altogether Marshall Field was a most encouraging and stimulating illustration of the fact that wealth may be honorably and legitimately acquired without wrongdoing or sharp practice.

"The First American"

The ninety-seventh anniversary of the birth of Lincoln suggests the near approach of the full round of a century since "the first American" opened his eves in the rude frontier cabin in Kentucky. In a century rich in great men and in illustrious careers in every field of thought, knowledge, art, and practical endeavor, it is safe to say that no man has gone farther than Lincoln in securing and holding the kind of fame which is happily compounded of admiration for commanding ability and service and of affection for tenderness of heart, sweetness of nature, and beauty of spirit. For among the many strange mutations of condition and reputation connected with Lincoln there is none more extraordinary, when his circumstances and appearance are recalled, than the deepening perception of a certain rare beauty in the man's personality; a harmony between high ideals, speech, and conduct which, now that the mists of misconception and the black clouds of the passion of his time have passed, throws about his gaunt and uncouth figure a soft radiance. Aside from his heroic struggles with and victories over adverse conditions, and apart from the vindication of his ideas and policies as a statesman, there was something in Lincoln's nature which has evoked a feeling of tenderness. a depth of affection, which have gone out to no other President. The country not only reveres the memory of Lincoln: it loves the man.

As the years go by, the largeness of his vision—of so much greater reach than that of the public men with whom he worked or who worked with him—is matched by the greatness of his soul; and time has distilled from his worldwide reputation a finer and purer fame. Amid the pitiful meanness to which public men often stoop in the bitter and corroding jealousies of political life,

which baffle the plans and waste the strength of constructive statesmen, Lincoln's magnanimity, patience, forgetfulness of self, and saving grace and sanity of humor make him a man apart from the moral egotists, the harsh radicals, the pliant politicians of his period. The country thinks of him as of a great, tender human soul, solitary by temperament and by the conditions of his life. carrying the sorrows not of a section but of a whole people on his heart; called to rule over a divided household and never for a moment forgetting that it was still a family though dissevered, and bearing in all those bitter years neither hatred nor the spirit of strife. but a heart of compassion for those who opposed as for those who sustained the Government.

Now that the field of struggle lies clear in the light of memory, and the Blue and the Gray are honored alike in all the celebrations of courage and devotion, the spiritual prescience of Lincoln grows more distinct and commanding. Dying on the threshold of the new day, with the passions of an age of deep and radical misunderstandings still hot about him, he was the prophet of a future now happily become a living present. When, a few months ago, the President of the United States, standing at the base of the Lee monument in Richmond, said to the little group of veterans in faded Confederate uniforms, "Come up nearer," he was not only speaking for the whole North, but, forty years after Lincoln's death, he was using Lincoln's voice and fulfilling Lincoln's purpose.

The President of a section by force of a passing disintegration, Lincoln was always in feeling and spirit the Chief Magistrate of a Nation. In the light of later history not only does the beauty of his spirit reveal itself as one of the noblest possessions of the country, but the wisdom of his statesmanship becomes more clear. For it is love, not hate, which clarifies the vision, and a great generosity is a safer guide in public affairs than the most keen-sighted and calculating prudence. There were men of great ability about Lincoln, whose services and sacrifices cannot be overvalued, but he stands out separate and

apart from them all by virtue of a certain largeness which they lacked. Among men of sectional training and instinct and policy he was a man of National feeling and policy. Around his figure, now that the old passions are dead, the men who opposed him can gather with men who sustained as about a common leader, for he is neither of the North nor of the South, but of the country—" the first American."

Washington Gladden

The Outlook joins with his many friends in congratulating Dr. Washington Gladden upon his approaching seventieth birthday, on a life of service well rendered, and on National honor well earned. It is generally hazardous to print any estimate of a man while he is still living, but the transparency of Dr. Gladden's character and the simplicity and purity of his motives make such an estimate in his case without hazard.

The temperance movement in the second quarter of the nineteenth century, and the anti-slavery movement in the first decade of the second half of that century, turned the attention of men from a consideration of the other world to a consideration of this, from a study of theories about God to a study of what loyalty to him required of them in their lifetime—in brief, from the problems of abstract theology to those of practical ethics. Under this impulse theology was humanized. Religion came to be regarded as a normal development of all true manhood; the Bible as a transcript of human experiences; Jesus Christ as a man in whom the spirit of God supremely dwells; God himself, not as a mysterious being "without parts or passions," but as a Father with a sense of justice and of pity, interpreted by justice and pity in the souls of men. At the same time, and under the same influence, the Church became a more definitely philanthropic organization; the spirit of religion flowed out from the Church, which had been its too exclusive dwelling-place, into all life; politics began to recognize a "higher law;"

economics ceased to be the "dismal science;" sociology as a philosophy of human relationships and human progress was born; regeneration, conversion, atonement, sacrifice, all took on a new meaning, and became, so to speak, socialized; "election" became avowedly an election for service, not for personal salvation; and salvation came to include the reconstruction of human society into a kingdom of God on the earth.

No doubt this movement was accompanied, as such movements always are, with some grave defects. There were cases not a few in which the reaction against theology led to a superficial scorn of all profound thinking; theology, from being the grandest of human sciences, was relegated to the place abandoned by economics, and became the "dismal science;" chairs of systematic theology in theological seminaries took a second place; preachers became lecturers of moral reform; pulpits became lyceum platforms; churches became social clubs, animated by a mild and far from passionate philanthropy. Yet these sporadic instances need not deceive us as to the general trend of the times. Even outside so-called religious circles the humanitarian movement was reformatory and inspirational. Robert G. Ingersoll was the last of the assailants of institutional religion, and even his daring eloquence did not suffice to give him any real influence. The critics of orthodoxy had formed Thomas Paine clubs at the end of the eighteenth century; the same type of men formed societies of ethical culture at the end of the nineteenth. In lieu of wasting their energies in attacks upon the Church, they devoted them to competing with the churches in self-sacrificing service, and sometimes distanced churches in the heroism and the fruitfulness of their generous endeavors.

In this movement toward the humanizing of theology and religion Dr. Washington Gladden has been a leader. Editor, lecturer, author, preacher, he has always been a minister of the Christian life and a loyal servant of the Christian Church. He has taught a human theology, but still more has he preached a human religion. For his interest has

always bee' more in religion than in theology—that is, more in men than in systems. He has therefore used systems as instruments for the betterment of men; and not only systems, but no less the Church and the Bible. With Paul, he has believed that apostles and prophets and evangelists and pastors and teachers have all been given for no other purpose than to bring humanity unto a perfect manhood; and that the profit of the Bible lies in the fact that it furnishes men thoroughly unto all good works.

But if he has regarded all religious institutions as instrumental to life, he has also regarded all inspiration of life as derived from religion. He has not been a preacher of the Gospel and a moral reformer; he has been a preacher of a Gospel that is a moral reform. He has believed in a Christianity that is "glad tidings to the poor," and he has also believed that the only ultimate hope for the abolition of poverty, whether of mind or of body, is in the spiritual life to which that Gospel is a minister. mere glance at the titles of his books furnishes an illustration of these two truths, or rather of this twofold aspect of the one truth. His preaching has been "Plain Thoughts on the Art of Living;" Christianity with him is not a philosophy of life but a way of life—" The Christian Way;" he has not discarded the old nor dreaded the new, but taken with impartiality "Things New and Old" if they would serve his fellow-men; he has not feared to handle with courage "Burning Questions" lest he should be burnt; he has not discarded the Church because it is not the kingdom, nor has he confounded the two, but, recognizing both "The Church and the Kingdom," has measured the value of the first by its power to promote the growth of the second; the perfecting of that kingdom he has counted as the end which sociology should always keep in view, for in that kingdom is to be found the answer to the question what are the right relations between "Workingmen and their Employers" and between "Tools and the Man;" the only Christianity he has recognized is "Applied Christianity;" the only salvation one that includes "Social Salvation," and "Social Facts and Forces" he has reckoned as not less divine than creeds and rituals; yet social salvation is not all—he has always spoken to man as a child of God and heir to a divine destiny, albeit that destiny is to be attained not by thinking about it but by the "Practice of Immortality."

Dr. Gladden has been no celestial seraph looking down from afar on the battle of human duty and of human rights; he has been in the heat of the battle, and, like others engaged in that battle, his passion for righteousness has sometimes obscured his judgment. But his friends love him all the better. And friends and foes alike recognize that in him combativeness is not allied with destructiveness, that the inspiration of his courage is an unselfish devotion, and that he always fights fairly. He has unconsciously summed up his own life in that prayer which he has put into the mouths and inspired in the hearts of his comrades, and which interprets both his spirit to his age and the best spirit of the age to itself:

"O Master, let me walk with Thee In lowly paths of service free; Tell me Thy secret; help me bear The strain of toil, the fret of care.

Help me the slow of heart to move By some clear, winning word of love; Teach me the wayward feet to stay, And guide them in the homeward way.

Teach me Thy patience; still with Thee In closer, dearer company, In work that keeps faith sweet and strong, In trust that triumphs over wrong,

In hope that sends a shining ray Far down the future's broadening way, In peace that only Thou canst give, With Thee, O Master, let me live."

The Truth About the Congo

On the west coast of Africa there is a country known as the Congo Free State. Its sovereign is Leopold II., the King of the Belgians. With its government Belgium has no more to do than any other European Power. The only connection between Belgium and the Congo is that the monarch of the one is the "king-

sovereign" of the other. In the Congo Free State Leopold's will is law. He has been placed in charge of it by a conference of the Powers; in his person is embodied the government of that great territory.

For years the conviction has been spreading that the arrangement under which this State has been ruled has brought to the native blacks, not civilization, but desolation; that government there has meant oppression, murder, and outrage. So bitter has been the outcry against the Congo Government that a year ago last fall Leopold sent a Commission of three there to investigate and report its findings. The accusers of Leopold expected little from this Commission; they looked for a perfunctory examination and a verdict of not guilty. No culprit, they believed, would ever be convicted by a jury of his own choosing. Several weeks ago the report of the Commission was issued. Despatches purporting to epitomize the report seemed to confirm the expectation of acquittal. The Outlook chose to wait till it could see and study the report itself. We here give to our readers, as completely as space will permit, the findings of that Commission, and then leave them to judge whether Christendom is yet supplied with a reason for interfering in the Congo or not. In interpreting this report the reader should remember that this Commission, by the very nature of its origin, would report no evil or abuse of whose existence it was not most strongly convinced.

In that "sinister and mysterious continent" of Africa, the Commission declares that it has found a State which, "organized with marvelous rapidity," has brought there the "benefits of civilization." This State is the owner as well as the governing power of the territory. "There existed in the Congo," at the time the State was formed, "no private property in the sense which European laws . . . give to the word." Individual natives, that is, did not own land. The principle was then adopted: Unoccupied land belongs to the State; land occupied by natives, under the authority of their chiefs, shall continue to be ruled by local customs. Not only were the

native blacks thus forbidden to take what they would from the forest which they had formerly ranged with freedom, but even in their own villages and plantations they "could not dispose of the products of the soil except in the degree in which [dans la mesure où] they had disposed of them before the establishment of the State." Moreover, the native who went from his village without authorization laid himself open "to be arrested, returned, and, sometimes as well, punished." Since the only articles of value were the products, not of the villages, but of the forest, and the forest belonged to the State—that is, to Leopold—the natives possessed absolutely nothing of any use to anybody beyond their capacity to labor. The Government, however, must develop the country, and the natives must pay a tax. This double purpose, under these restrictions, could be accomplished in only one way. The natives must pay their tax in labor, and their labor must consist in bringing to the State the product of the State lands the forest. The natives, however, were disinclined to work. So they had to be forced to work. By this plan, the Commission argues, not only did the State get the rubber which it wanted and secure the taxes which it imposed, but the natives were given a chance to be civilized:

The native, left to himself, in spite of all the efforts made to instruct and enlighten him, will continue fatally to live in the primitive state in which he has been found for so many ages, and from which he does not ask to emerge. . . A law, then, which imposes upon the native light, regular work is the only means of getting him into the habit of working; it is at the same time a financial law and a humanitarian law.

The Commission reverts later to the justification of forced labor. It evidently regards it as needing very strong defense. In spite, however, of its theoretical arguments on behalf of forced labor, it comes to this conclusion regarding the effects in practice:

We have been impressed on verifying how little the contact with the white has modified native processes... The chikwangue is prepared to-day in exactly the same manner as twenty years ago—by processes incredibly rudimentary and defective. It is impossible not to be astonished at the disproportion

which exists between the manual labor utilized and the result obtained.

The State, however, does not collect this labor tax itself from its black "citizens." It "had not at its disposal the personal and the necessary resources to improve a vast territory;" so it has had to "make appeal to private enterprise." It had authorized certain companies "to exact from the blacks the rubber work, as well as other payments, and to use force for obtaining them." The Commission is frank enough to acknowledge the character of these companies; they are "commercial," and "are in pursuit of lucre, not of humanity or civilization." Moreover, the agents who fix the amount of taxes and who administer its collection, the Commission candidly says, "have a direct interest in increasing the produce, since they receive shares [primes] proportionate to the value [importance] of the products gathered."

This is the condition of affairs reported by his Majesty King Leopold II.'s own Commission. Propertyless blacks, confined in isolated villages, forbidden to gather for themselves the fruits of the forests with which they are surrounded, forced to bring in rubber, copal, wood, fish, chikwangue, etc., as a tax, for which they are paid, not what the produce is worth, but what the agent of a moneymaking company decides he will give for the labor, subject to punishment if they fail to bring in the tax—these African natives are thus enjoying the "benefits of civilization."

In order to enforce its rules, the State, and the companies under authority of the State, employ sentries. These are of two kinds, so the Commissioners say some to protect the posts, some to act as spies and executioners in the villages. "The black man armed," the Report says, "when left to himself, feels welling up in himself the sanguinary instincts which the strictest discipline can hardly restrain." "There is," it also admits, "no more terrible tyrant than a black when set over other blacks, when he is not restrained by the ties of race, family, and tradition:" and it is over an alien tribe that such a black, according to the Commission, is set. We cannot be surprised to learn, therefore, that "brutality" has been in some places "the rule habitually followed." "These sentries," we learn again, "set themselves up as despots, demand the women, and food, not only for themselves, but for the crowd of parasites" who surround them; and "they kill without pity all those who make a show of resisting their demands and their whims." The Commission had visible testimony to the mutilation of the living and the dead. It describes the condition in Upper Congo as a "deplorable confusion between a state of war and a state of peace."

And what is the nature of the work for which the Commission says the negro has "special aversion," and to which the Commission says he is driven, at least until the last few years, by "the taking of hostages, the imprisonment of chiefs, the stationing of sentinels or 'capitas,' fines and armed expeditions"? We can turn to the Commission's report and read our answer:

The decree fixes at forty hours per month the work which each native owes to the State. This time, considered as a maximum, is certainly not excessive [exagéré], especially if one takes account of the fact that the work ought to be remunerated; but as in the immense majority of cases... it is not precisely the work which is demanded of the native, but rather a quantity of products equivalent to forty hours of work, the criterion of time disappears in reality and is replaced by an equivalent [equation] established by the Commissioner of the district after diverse methods...

Chikwangue (kwanga) is nothing but manioc bread. . . . The preparation of this food requires many operations: the clearing of the forest, the planting of manioc, the digging up [extraction] of the root and its transformation into chikwangue, which comprises the operations of separating the fibers and stripping the bark, pulverizing, washing, making it into bundles, and cooking it. All these operations, except clearing the land, fall to the women. The chikwangues so prepared are carried by the natives to the neighboring post and served for the food supply of the personnel of the State—soldiers and laborers. . . .

As the chikwangue keeps only a few days, the native, even by redoubling his activity, cannot succeed in freeing himself from his obligations for any length of time. The requirement, even if it does not take all his time, oppresses him continually by the weight of its recurrent demands, which deprive the tax of its true character and transform it into an incessant corvete. . . . Doubtless the adage, "time is money," cannot be

applied to the natives of the Congo; . . . it is none the less inadmissible that a taxpayer should be obliged to travel over ninety-three miles [150 kilomètres] to carry to the place of collection a tax which represents about the value of twenty-nine cents [fr. 1.50]. . . .

Natives inhabiting the environs of Lulonga were forced to journey in canoes to Nouvelle-Anvers, which represents a distance of forty to fifty miles [70 à 80 kilomètres], every two weeks, to carry their fish; and taxpayers have been seen to submit to imprisonment for delays which were perhaps not chargeable to them, if we take into account the considerable distances to be covered periodically to satisfy the requirements of the tax. . . .

The missionaries, Catholic and Protestant, heard [as witnesses] at Léopoldville, have been unanimous in describing the general misery which reigns in that region. . . . Without sharing entirely these pessimistic estimates, one can admit that they comprise a ground of truth. . . This remark is general; it applies to all the large posts of which we have considered Léopoldville as the type. . . .

The bearing of burdens is, beyond contradiction, of all the forms of labor tax, that which weighs most heavily on the native. . . . The traveler, to traverse the country, the trader, to introduce his merchandise, the State, to supply its personnel with food, to transport its material, and to carry the products out of its domain, have no other resource but to organize the bearing of burdens. . . In the two regions [which the Commission studied] . . the quantity of burdens to be transported is enormous, and the population, on the other hand, is relatively thinly settled. . . .

It happens that the Commissioners of the district engage, notably for work in agriculture, children from seven to eight years of age, who are bound for several years, by virtue of a contract which they have perhaps accepted voluntarily, but of which they probably were unable to understand all the import. According to the instructions of the Director of Justice, however, the officials . . . could not refuse their approval if the children declare they accept. . . .

This is the labor imposed on men, women, and children. Confined to their native villages except when driven into the forest to work out their taxes, deprived of all chance to own property or to trade, tyrannized by hostile blacks, in peril of losing hand or foot by the cruelty of a sentry, threatened with the lash, in danger of bullets from rifles, practically denied all succor except such as they can obtain from missionaries, the inhabitants of the Congo, it is not surprising to learn, have succumbed in such large numbers to fear and have fled, or to disease, to the lash, and to the

rifle, and have died, that the Commissioners remark: "If we accept Stanley's data, it is certain that a large part of the population must have disappeared." This is the picture of the Congo drawn, not by enemies of Leopold, but by his own Commissioners.

It is the boast of the Congo Government that it has abolished slavery as such, and kept the natives free from the ravages of alcohol. To these facts the Commissioners point with pride. They make some recommendations. King Leopold has now chosen a Commission of fourteen, ten of whom have been connected with the Congo Government, to study this report and to formulate practical measures for putting its proposals into execution.

Is this condition, described as it is by friends and not by foes, such that Christendom can endure it calmly?

The Colorado Experiment

There are two arguments for woman suffrage. The first, that it is a natural right, like the right to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. He who holds this view does not regard consequences. Let justice be done though the heavens fall. Such advocates will read the article on another page on the Colorado experiment with impatience, or not at all. In fact, however, our whole American system assumes that suffrage is not an absolute and unconditional right. Whatever age one has reached, and however long he has resided in a district, and whatever his intellectual or other qualifications, he is entitled to have his property and life protected by the law. But in every American community his right to vote is conditioned on his age, his residence, the length of time he has dwelt in America, and in many American communities on intellectual and property qualifications. There is no more a natural right to vote in a general election than in a legislature. The question who shall vote is one which is determined by each community for itself, and is to be determined by the proved or

probable effect of the imposed conditions upon the welfare of the community.

The other argument for woman suffrage is that, if it be granted, it will purify our politics, abolish corruption, put an end to repeaters, secure just and equal laws; in brief, assure a general political house-cleaning. Will it produce these results? The answer to that question is to be found in the answer to another. Has it produced these results? What the results of the experiment have been in Colorado our contributor tells in his account of the Colorado experiment. His accuracy is vouched for; his judicial spirit is evident; he is neither an advocate for nor against woman suffrage; his own opinion is not expressed; and though we may surmise what it is, we do not know. To all open-minded readers whose opinion on this subject is to be determined by facts, not by theories, by the logic of history, not by the philosophy of either the sanctum or the drawingroom, we commend a careful reading of this article.

The Last Vigil

A well-known bas-relief represents an old man and woman replenishing a torch. In the stir and exhilaration of the lighting of the torches, in the joy of bearing them swiftly through the gloom, or watching them as they shine in the mist which lies on the highway of life, there is danger of forgetting those who have run the race and now, in weariness and often in great loneliness, are silently waiting the sinking of the fire of the torch. are out of sight and sometimes out of mind; for there is always an eager interest at the starting-point and an engrossing absorption in the running when the day is at its height; and there were once for these keepers of lonely vigils shouts of praise, and there were later the pain and strain of the race in its hardest stretches. For those whose faces are aglow with the earliest joy of the running, or are set with the stern resolution of those who have forgotten the applause and care now only to touch the goal, there wait the same quiet vigil, the same lonely watching of the sinking fire.

Tenderness and devotion to those who no longer press along the course are due not to age as a matter of timethe years mean nothing unless they bear the harvests of true living and store the granaries of experience—but to the race well run, the work well done, the pain and strife and sorrow bravely borne, the allotted task finished in faith and purity and loyalty. Blessed are they from whose hands the torch has not fallen nor the light failed in the long trial of will and heart and nerve! They have not only made the highway easier for those who come after, but they kept faith and hope in the nobility of the race and nourished the flame for those who are waiting to leave the starting-post or are questioning, in the bitterness of the long trial of strength, whether the race is worth running.

VIGIL

Youth for dreams, maturity for putting forth the spirit in the endeavor to realize them, age for the confirmation of the hope of their reality! In all the world there is nothing so beautiful as the figure of the spent and weary runner guarding with reverent and trembling hands the torch received long ago and borne with quiet faithfulness through the joy and the pain of the years. In the confusion of life, when men dash their torches to the ground and rush about in a frenzy of passion or a chilling stoicism or with denials of the nobility and reality of the race and the meaning of it on their lips. the faithful runners not only keep their own faith but the faith of others; peace and joy are in their guardianship, and they bear the common wealth of humanity in their hands and hearts. So One ran centuries ago and was derided and scorned and buffeted, and the light he bore was dashed to the ground; but in the agony of death he held it aloft, and, behold! the ends of the earth are lighted by it!

But when the race is over and the throngs have passed and the runner watches the sinking flame of the torch in solitude, there often comes a great The other runners, whose loneliness. feet once trod the same way and whose voices were friendly in the darkest gloom, have vanished into the great silence; the younger runners belong to other times and have other companions even when they are most tender and reverential; it is another world than that in which the torch was lighted, and there are no more voices that share and speak from the same depth of experience.

In the loneliest hour, however, the torch remains, and from the torch streams the light, however faint, in which the past, the present, and the future are held secure against the environing darkness. It is the witness of memory; in its radiance dear faces, now vanished in the morning light, shine as when the glow of youth was upon them; hours of happiness, moments by the way that were full of anguish and are now fragrant with the sweetness that comes out of sorrow borne with patient trust; years of brave endeavor and quiet fidelity to tasks and works; the peace which flows from service and the joy of remembered sacrifices—all these live within the circle of the flame.

There, too, faint but clear, present hope and task and reward abide: willingness to wait as well as to run, to be put aside as well as to be set at the front, to cheer the passing runner as well as to be cheered, to keep old loyalties fresh and sweet and old love young and pure in the daily renewal of memory, to stand fast as the shadows gather and to guard the sinking fire as loyally as one fed the rising flame.

So the soft light of memory and the narrowing glow within which duty reveals itself become the symbol of immortality. The darkness deepens, the world grows still, familiar sounds die into silence, upon the watcher falls the sense of isolation of those who wake while others sleep; and, lo! while the vigil is kept the gloom is shot with light, for at the closed window the light waits, and over the hills come the dawn. The vigil is at an end, and in the radiance of the morning the torch is extinguished.

THE AMERICAN FORESTRY ASSO-CIATION

FROM A STAFF CORRESPONDENT

AST week the annual Convention of the American Forestry Association took place in Washington. Its principal feature was the recommendation to Congress to amalgamate the present White Mountain Appalachian Forest Reserve bills now pending into one measure. The present bills provide for the purchase of National forest reserves in the White Mountains and the Appalachian Mountains, and authorize the Secretary of Agriculture to make contracts for the purchase of lands to amounts not to exceed respectively \$5,000,000 and \$10,000,000. The bill, as recommended by the Forestry Association, provides for a total expenditure of but \$3,000,000. This is done because of the conviction that Congress will only vote-at least at first-a small amount for these purposes. This very winter the last remaining vestiges of our primeval forests on the Presidential Range in the White Mountains are being ruthlessly cut

away; only here and there in the Franconia Notch and elsewhere in the White Mountain region are little dots of primeval forest left. To save these and to preserve the other trees Congress must act quickly, since the State of New Hampshire is not able itself to act in the matter. Nor should the State be asked to act beyond its financial resources. which are quite incommensurate with the demand. The preservation of the White Mountain forests is a vital necessity to other States besides New Hampshire. The water supply for those States should be the object of National concern. It is a satisfaction, therefore, to chronicle the action of the American Forestry Association, which, frankly recognizing existing conditions in Congress, has shaped a measure so as to insure its probable success at this session.

If dependence on a number of States be true of the White Mountain Reserve, it is emphatically so of the Appalachian Reserve. The territory covered by the latter reserve not only influences the water-flow throughout a larger number of States than does the former, but also, as now proposed by the new bill drafted last week, empowers the Secretary of Agriculture to purchase forest lands in the States of Maryland, West Virginia, Virginia, the Carolinas, Georgia, Alabama, and Tennessee. Of course, for the purposes of the reserve, the Secretary is empowered to purchase lands, exclusive of its timber thereon or of its mineral rights, and to provide for the reforesting of clearings on lands purchased, whenever he shall consider such action necessary.

During the year Ohio and Michigan have formed State Forestry Associations, and strong, wealthy associations exist in such older and larger States as New York and Pennsylvania. Like the smaller and poorer New Hampshire, however, no one of the Southern States seems as yet able to solve the forestry problem so as to conserve a supply of water as well as of wood, which is, of course, a matter of National, not merely of State, wealth. In an eloquent address before the Forestry Convention, Dr. Edward Everett Hale said that the present situation reminded him of Mrs. George Washington's oyster supper. In the matter of dredging for oysters in Chesapeake Bay no one of the colonies bordering on that bay was able to supervise or control the whole situation. But after Mrs. Washington had invited their representatives to a banquet, they discovered that what they could not do severally they could do by combination. The result of Mrs. Washington's oyster supper was the Constitution of the United States. Appalachian Reserve, proposed by the Forestry Association, contains our finest and most varied hardwood forest. No. individual State can establish the Appalachian Reserve, but Congress can, and, as Mr. Wilson, Secretary of Agriculture, said in his presidential address, the Association's proposals should have the immediate and active assistance of Congress. He deservedly praised the growth of an association which has about doubled its membership during the past year, and has now under its advisory

direction nearly nine hundred thousand acres of private land. In this connection Mr. Wilson repeated his warning of a year ago against the wholesale destruction of our woodland area. "No nation on earth is as successful in the work of destroying its forests as is the United States," he declared. The indiscriminate mutilation of our forests must be stopped. The matter has become of National interest. It can no longer be ignored. In view of the wide clearing of our timber lands, the one thing now to be done is, as Secretary Wilson says, to reforest the country. While "our great problem is how to plant the right kind of trees in the right places," "every day should be an arbor day."

That is a phrase to appeal both to common sense and sentiment. extravagant felling of vast numbers of trees for purely private interests often interferes with the general good. True forestry, however, is founded on continuous cutting, which in the case of the Government forests of Europe provides a steady revenue, the basic asset indeed of those Governments. A similar condition could be and should be brought about in this country. With the progress made in our Government western reserves, already reporting substantial profits, who can doubt that America will imitate Europe in this fundamental of sound economics, not to mention the preservation of noble scenery now being ruined? But the reserves are all in our The East should now receive attention. To this end the Association has drafted its new bill, recognizing at once the imperious demand for the preservation of wood and water supply, and the difficulty of obtaining an adequate appropriation at this session of Congress. The new aspect which the passage of such a bill would put upon agricultural and forestry conditions would have profound and permanent value. Will Congress heed this call to duty? It will if constituents, especially from the New England and Southern States, give their Congressmen no respite from appeal until this measure is passed. And may it prove but the entering wedge to really adequate legislative enactments l E. F. B.



CLÉMENT ARMAND FALLIÈRES

The newly elected President of France



WASHINGTON GLADDEN

From a photograph by Elmer Chickering, Boston



SIUZO AOKI

JAPAN'S FIRST AMBASSADOR TO THE UNITED STATES

BY WILLIAM ELLIOT GRIFFIS

OW that "all is peace under Heaven" and Nippon becomes once more The Country of Peaceful Shores, she signalizes her triumph by sending an Ambassador to "The Nation's Friend." The personal representative of the reigning sovereign, in the oldest dynasty in the world, will meet face to face the stalwart President of the American Republic, youngest among nations. It is not the least among her sons, or even an average man, that the Emperor has selected to represent Japan. Ripe in years, rich in experience as statesman and diplomatist, Viscount Siuzo Aoki is superbly fitted for his grand task of cementing anew and solidifying on larger and deeper foundations the traditional and (may we

not say?) the real friendship between the United Empire and the United States. As early as 1798 the American flag was mirrored in the waters of Japan, but it was Matthew Perry in 1854 who "discovered a new nation." Yet not to him, but to Townsend Harris, belongs the honor of discerning behind the veil of the Yedo bureauracy the true sovereign of Japan. Let us glance at history, in order to note the significance of the Ambassador's advent.

The subordinate authorities of Yedo sent an embassy, of courtesy merely, in 1860, which was composed of men of inferior rank. For seventeen years after the Perry convention Japan had no consul or diplomatic officer abroad to look after her interests. Her petty trade

was then of but cradle proportions. The Bakufu (Curtain Government) of the Tycoon, during these long seventeen years, was trembling for existence against the forces, then terrifically awakening, not of revolution but of restoration. But the moment a true national government took the place of feudalism and bureaucracy, Japan sent her initial representative abroad, and to the United States first of all.

The Junior Prime Minister and four members of the Cabinet, with over sixty elect commissioners—over half of them pupils of Verbeck—traveled six months in the United States; Ito reading "The Federalist" and Kido learning international law and studying constitutions. From 1871, by charges d'affaires, by ministers resident, and then by envoys plenipotentiary, Imperial and Constitutional Japan had a legation at Washington. All these were of appropriate rank, and some of marked abilities, such as Mori, the educational reformer, who first proposed the abolition of sword-wearing and fell martyr before the reactionary assassin; Yoshida, the brilliant financier; Terashima, the radical-conservative, who feared that Japan was going too fast; Kuki, later peer and now in the Privy Council; Takahira, the Peace Commissioner, and others. These, with many a brilliant secretary, naval and military attaché, formed the legation household in the edifice at 1710 N Street in Washington.

To-day Japan's few dollars' worth of trade have swelled to hundreds of millions. Her little budget of feudal fractions, once ground out of the people chiefly for the support of a privileged class, has now, in a library of ledgers, become a mighty proposition marching to the billion figure. Hers is the brown man's burden. Like all great nations, she wears the necklace of a national debt. Helmed and panoplied, she is the triumphant victor in four wars since the cannon thundered at Fushimi on January 27, 1868. The first victory of the brocade banner secured internal unity. The mighty insurrection of Saigo in 1877 gave Japan's new peasant army its fire-baptism and its victory wreath. In 1894 the red-rayed banner "flamed

in the forehead of the morning ky" to make a New Asia. The Murata rifle blew to atoms the Chinese doctrine of whang-ti or world-sovereignty, and showed what a public school army with modern science could do. In the fourth, in 1904-'05, a united people fought for food, for commerce, for national life, and the right to grow. The David nation, but vesterday in the wilderness with but a few sheep, laid low the Slavic Goliath. Now the world-power, Dai Nippon, sends a veteran and a victor in that thirty years' war, which she waged bloodlessly from 1870 to 1900, with untiring patience until she gained the world's recognition as an equal. won by the jū-jutsu of finesse.

Siuzo Aoki first saw the light in January, 1844, in Choshiu. His inheritance. therefore, was of civic abilities. The silver spoon in a Satsuma baby's mouth is that of assured success in arms. Ninetenths of all Japan's heroes on deck or in the field are from sea-girded Satsuma, that bore the brunt of the fighting in 1868, and then furnished the first four infantry regiments of the new Imperial army created in 1871. Choshiu is of age-old fame for giving birth to sons of the ermine and to children of the pen. Out of Choshiu came Yoshida Shoin. Kido, forefather of the Constitution, the Marquis Ito, Count Inouye, and many a long list of Japan's most distinguished statesmen, councilors, diplomatists. Aoki began early his appointed work in life, showing power of insight, grasp of details, and vision of the whole field. Apparently, to the writer at least, Japan does not trust green diplomatists, even though Aoki's name means "green tree." Indeed, no Japanese plant, tree, or flower is better known in Europe and America than the common aoki (Aucuba Japonica), which got to Europe during our Revolutionary War and is now seen all over central Europe and the United Behold the laurel-like shrub with purple flowers and red berries I Though exotic, it is capable of withstanding the dust, smoke, and gases of our manufacturing cities. This, let us hope, is a true emblem of Japan's ability, when transplanted from the age of art and idyllic seclusion into the Black Country of smoke and steam, to live, despite the withering influences of industrialism. Aoki soon made himself master of the German language—which Verbeck had already recommended as the vehicle of medical science in Japan—and in 1873 was made the Secretary of Japan's legation in Berlin, soon becoming Minister. He was made Viscount in 1884.

But the battle was waxing hot at home, and Aoki was wanted by Count Okuma, who was giving his whole energy to the work of treaty revision. Japan was determined to obtain recognition of her severeignty at the hands of European Governments. The United States had already been willing to grant it, but was hampered by the entangling alliance of a "concert" with European Governments. The routine of the whole department was in 1888 left to the care of the Vice-Minister, Viscount Aoki, who became full Minister of Foreign Affairs when the Ito Cabinet fell in 1889. On account of the attempted murder of the Czarevitch, now Emperor Nicholas, by a fanatic, Aoki resigned, but before doing so carried through a piece of work which was as high an honor to the United States as it was to the alien whose history, opportunities, dignities, and rewards are absolutely unique in the history of Japan. This was nothing less than giving to Guido F. Verbeck, Dutchman, American, Japanese, Christian missionary, but a man without a country, the privilege, with all his children, of coming under the powerful protection of the Empire of Japan, with right to travel freely through the Empire, and to sojourn and to reside in any locality; and this when Japan had no naturalization laws. It eventuated that Lord Salisbury and the British Government finally, because of our "entanglement," plucked the feather out of the cap of Washington and stuck it in the crown of Victoria.

Aoki was twice Minister in Berlin, and for a short while held the same office and duty in England. A thorough German scholar, he married, in the seventies, a German lady. The faces of both the Viscount and their only child, whose grief when ten years old over the injury to the Czarevitch is so vividly described by Mrs. Fraser in her Letters from Japan, are to be seen in that book. Grown to womanhood, the pretty little maid, married in Germany, is now the Countess Hatzefeld.

Aoki, as Minister of Foreign Affairs, held his post during the exciting days of the Boxer uprising, and his energies had much to do with the quick grappling with and rapid settlement of that difficult problem. Then, ceasing his diplomatic toil, he became a member of the Privy Council, the livest wire in Japan's electric machinery. Only the Privy Councilors have anything to say about treaties—at Portsmouth, Peking, or elsewhere.

As one of the early enlightened ones of the Meiji era, ever a true, patient, forceful leader, servant of the Emperor, and teacher of his people, richly deserving his rewards, Japan honors herself in Aoki. Americans, so quick to recognize ability, and remembering his courtesy to their fellow-countrymen, bid him hail any welcome.



HOW WOMAN'S SUFFRAGE WORKS IN COLORADO

BY LAWRENCE LEWIS'

LLUSTRATIONS of the practical workings of woman's suffrage have for some reason been sought in Colorado by both advocates and opponents, although women have voted upon equal terms with men in three other of the United States—in Wyoming since 1869, in Utah since 1895, and in Idaho since 1896. In New Zealand universal adult suffrage has prevailed since 1893. Yet most people regard woman's suffrage in Colorado as the type.

Let it be clear at the outset that the presence of "the ladies, once our superiors, now our equals," has had no especial effect upon the kind of order and decorum maintained at polling-places ever since the introduction of the secret or Australian ballot. Men possibly swear a little less, but they wear their hats and use tobacco as freely in all forms about the polls as ever before. In the best residence precincts in cities, and in most country precincts, the order is perfect. In some country precincts controlled by corporations (especially mining corporations), as well as in the lower wards and in precincts "on the border" in cities, thugs and election officials frequently clash; special constables, deputy sheriffs and even sheriffs, as well as policemen, often indulge in profanity, blackguardism, and intimidation. Ballot-boxes are stuffed and At the general election in Nostolen. vember, 1904, for example, the presence of women as voters and as members of election boards did not prevent a Republican "woman worker" from being

"thrown out" of a polling-place in Denver, literally "by the neck," and shoved up against a fence; it did not deter a County Commissioner in Pueblo-who has since been convicted of padding a precinct registration list with fictitious names—from introducing whisky at the polls in one of the corporation precincts. and getting the election officers, watchers, and workers drunk, so that repeaters could be "run in" and returns tampered with; it did not prevent fights, acts of intimidation, and the arrest of workers and voters of both sexes, of the opposite political faith, by partisan police and sheriffs' officers in various parts of the State; it did not prevent gross insults being offered, in a few cases, to women, nor avert murders at pollingplaces—a Democratic election judge in the Cripple Creek district being a victim. Although perhaps not as numerous. there are, nevertheless, in both parties. women as well as men repeaters and "election crooks." Challengers and watchers are as keen in seeking and as eager in taking advantage of technicalities to bring into question the right to vote of a woman of the opposite political faith as of any man. In deciding such cases the election judges consider partisanship and the law—not sex.

Analysis of a few of the many more important phases beneath these superficials may conveniently be made as answers to questions Coloradoans are often asked: "What and how many women vote?" "How do they vote?" "What change in the character and conduct of public officials has been wrought by woman's suffrage?" "What are the general results?"

Despite the efforts of both parties for their own selfish purposes to keep up the interest of women in political affairs, the ratio of female voters to male voters

¹ Mr. Lewis, the author of this article, was for several years correspondent for the Denver "News" at Pueblo, and has been Secretary of the Rocky Mountain Harvard Club. His personal standing and character and his familiarity with political conditions in Colorado are spoken of in high terms in letters received by The Outlook from several of the best-known and ablest citizens of the State. Mr. Lewis has been studying the workings of woman's suffrage in Colorado for several years.—The Editors.

seems to be decreasing. This is the unanimous opinion expressed to me by those officers in charge of the registration in the several counties whom I have The increase between 1892 and 1894 in the number of electors who voted for Governor was 87,227. Now, the interest at elections in "Presidential years" like 1892 has always been greater in Colorado than at the intervening biennial elections for Governor and State officers only, like that in 1894. Moreover, it is generally conceded that the population of this State actually decreased during 1894, owing to "hard times" and the sharp decline in demonetized silver. Consequently we may fairly assume that at least all of this increase of 87,227 represented the newly enfranchised women, who, on this assumption, composed 48_{100}^{19} per cent. of the voters in 1894. Figuring in the same way, the women in Pueblo, a representative county, made up 46_{760} per cent. of the total number of voters for Governor in 1894. These estimates correspond roughly with the but slightly different statement of William Macleod Raine. who says, in an article in the "Chautauquan," without giving authorities, that 47 per cent. of the entire registered vote of the State in 1894 was cast by women. The census of 1900 shows that women of twenty years and over composed at that time but 42_{100}^{53} per cent. of the total population of the State of twenty years of age and older. It would seem, accordingly, that when the suffrage was a novelty the proportion of women voters was slightly larger than the proportion of women in the total population of Colorado.

Unfortunately for purposes of comparison, no official separate record has been kept of the number of women and of the number of men who respectively have registered and voted. Names of both sexes are entered indiscriminately in the books. In order, so far as possible, however, to determine "what and how many women vote," I have checked over the official "registers of electors" and the "poll-books" in fourteen precincts of Pueblo County, which includes Pueblo, the second largest city in Colorado, with a present population, includ-

ing suburbs, of 50,000. I present on another page, in tabular form, the actual figures as to the number of women and the number of men who were registered and who voted, together with percentages. This table includes actual figures for each of the precincts for the election of November, 1904, for National, State, and county candidates, and in the case of eight city precincts it also covers the April, 1905, election for municipal candidates. Extraordinary general interest was taken in both campaigns and elec-Although registration for the fall election was "padded" by about a thousand fraudulent names in good as well as bad precincts in all parts of the city, and, as the courts have since shown, a conspiracy existed among gangsters to have "repeaters" vote under these names on election day, the active vigilance of good men, not women, of both parties, backed by a vigorous sentiment and by the courts, prevented much of the intended fraud. The municipal election last spring was regarded by politicians as "the most nearly honest election in Pueblo in years." I chose Pueblo County because in Denver, neither in November, 1904, nor for twenty years, has there been an election that decent citizens of either party would unhesitatingly assert was "anywhere near on the square." None of the other cities is thoroughly representative. The polyglot population of Pueblo County, however, and the great variety of industries in which her inhabitants engage, make it possible to select precincts that are representative of almost every class, nationality, and occupation within the State.

It is noteworthy that in a number of precincts the percentage of those registered who voted is higher among the women than among the men. This is due to the fact that women are to be found at their places of residence for a greater portion of the day, and consequently those women who are registered are, throughout the twelve hours the polls are open, frequently reminded of their duties by men and women precinct workers. In the best-managed municipal precincts every woman of both parties who has registered is reported as either "voted," "absent from city," or

otherwise "accounted for" to the precinct leaders of the respective parties by six o'clock an hour before the polls close. It is, of course, impossible to do this so systematically with the men who are away from home at work.

male relatives are artisans, small tradesmen, unskilled and skilled workmen of American citizen parentage, and who correspond to the best class of miners in our State. (See columns 10 and 12 for precinct No. 27.) These women, as



WOMEN AT THE POLLS

Scene at a polling-place in one of the precincts "on the border" in Denver, showing women workers in the foreground at the left. Each worker has a typewritten list of registered electors showing the politics of each, or at least a list of the registered electors of her own party. Under the direction of the precinct chairman, on election day they call upon the registered electors and bring many of them to the polls in carriages furnished by their party.

It will be seen that the lowest percentage of women among electors registered, as well as of women in the total who voted, is to be found among those whose

a class, take but little interest in the ballot, and many of them say they "do not consider it womanly to vote."

It is also significant to see how large a



HUSBAND AND WIFE COMING TO THE POLLS TOGETHER

These voters in the best residence section of Denver have come to the polling-place in their own carriage. An official of the Honest Election League is handing them circulars urging them to vote against one of the nominees for District Attorney.

proportion of the registered Slav and Italian women vote-they whose husbands and brothers are the unskilled laborers at the great steel works, precious metal smelters, and other large manufacturing plants, and who generally correspond to the inferior or foreign class of Colorado's miners. (See column 15 for precinct 20 in my table. Also Remarks.) It should not be overlooked also that the percentages, both for registration and voting, of these foreign women are higher than those for the wives and sisters of the skilled American mechanics and small tradesmen. (Compare columns 10 and 12 for precincts 20 and 27.)

It is evident from the table that the percentage of total registered electors who are women, and the percentage of the total number of actual voters who are women, do not for these recent elections approach either Mr. Raine's assertion or my own estimate for 1894, except in the best residence precincts. Too much credit cannot be given a majority of our very best women for the manner in which they have assumed

their responsibilities of the ballot. Indeed, one of the strongest arguments of the suffragists is based upon the fact that in the very best residential parts of our cities the number of women voters more nearly approximates the number of men than anywhere else. But the next highest percentage of female voters polled is to be found in the precincts of brothels and female "rooming-houses." (See column 12 for precinct 8 in spring election, also "Remarks" in table.) In no precinct does the number of women. registered electors or actual voters, exceed that of the men. The average of all is, however, far below the percentage for the whole State for 1894.

Men fail to vote at primaries and at elections because in the press of their occupations they "don't find time;" because they have neglected to register; because they have failed to inform themselves about candidates or issues; because they don't care.

Women are affected by all these causes even more strongly. For other reasons, furthermore, that do not influence men,



ENCOURAGING WOMEN TO VOTE

Women of the best residence section of Denver, Capitol Hill, leaving the polling-place in an automobile lent to one of the political parties by an enthusiastic supporter of its candidate for Governor. A worker who acts also as chauffeur is helping one of the ladies into the tonneau. The woman worker is on the front seat examining her list of electors to see for whom she will call next.

women do not do their duty: Because "they are glad to say they let their men folks attend to politics for their families;" because "their husbands don't want them to vote;" because of timidity and "not liking to go down into a horrid crowd of strange people and have their names called out in a public place." When but little over twenty-one years old, and especially when unmarried, some women do not vote because they prefer not to admit their age. In passing, it is worthy of remark that a gallant legislature, in reframing the law regarding registration to conform to conditions of woman's suffrage, made the provision that a man should be required to give under oath his exact age, but that a woman shall be required only to swear "she is over twenty-one years old."

In speaking of those women who do not vote, we should not overlook the sundry classes of good women who do vote—the "new women" who glory in "the redemption of the sex" and the assertion of their "higher place—in a

wider and nobler sphere than the kitchen or household;" the women politicians who, though not vicious, are "in politics for what there is in it in jobs and money;" the women, many of them newcomers to the State, who vote because they enjoy the slight excitement and novelty of casting their ballots; the women who "vote merely to oblige their husbands;" the women who "propose to assert their independence by voting just because their husbands don't want them to vote." Many examples of all these classes I have personally known, and also the greatest class of all, the good women, thank Heaven!-those who vote because they know it is their duty-and to many of them an unpleasant and unsought duty-because they feel that they must help to overcome the votes of the vicious and depraved of their sex.

But we have many bad women as well as good women, and experience and our figures show that, next to the best residence precincts, those containing the brothels and female "rooming-houses"



RIVAL WORKERS

The woman with the list in her hands is a precunct worker, and is telling the two women whom she has just brought to the polls, and who have just received the circular of the Honest Election League, to pay no attention to its attack upon the candidate of her party for District Attorney.

poll the greatest proportion of women voters. (See column 12 and remarks for precinct 8 in spring election.) Indeed, the hideous accompaniment of woman's suffrage has been the introduction into primaries of both parties, into registrations and elections in cities like Denver. Pueblo, Cripple Creek, Trinidad, and Leadville, of this far from small class of females from the "red light districts," who are more absolutely under the power of those who are supposed to be the guardians of the law than are the men of the same grade of immorality—the tramps, the saloon bums, the confidence men, the petty thieves, the keepers of low saloons, the gamblers, the pimps, the procurers. Owing to popular attention and indignation, warnings of newspapers, and the action of the courts, in neither of the elections that figure in our table did the police and county officers in Pueblo exercise as much coercion on these fallen women as has been the rule in elections in previous years in Pueblo and as is always done in Denver. Hence the percentage of women registered who voted is not as high as usual in precinct 8 of our table. Considerable coercion was used, however, in Pueblo in November, 1904. Even in April, 1905, despite the exposure by a grand jury of methods employed in the November and in former elections, some coercion was employed to compel women of the brothel precinct to vote once, although, apparently, there was no repeating last spring. Indeed, the figures

for the spring election show up conditions in the "red light district" more nearly accurately than do those for the fall election, when this precinct (precinct 8) included a considerable number of respectable alien workmen and their wives. It is safe to say that under ordinary conditions and under ordinary police administrations ninety per cent. of the fallen women in our cities are compelled to register and to vote at least once for the candidates favored by the police or sheriff's officers.

But in ordinary times these women are also compelled to "repeat." In Pueblo, in November, 1904, as before stated, the vigilance of the decent men of both parties, as special officers of the district courts armed with warrants for the arrest of persons who might attempt to vote under fictitious names, prevented a majority, but not all, of these thousand fraudulent names from being voted as usual by "repeaters" under direction of the police and sheriff's officers, who in turn were under orders from "the gang." A former "city detective" or "fine collector" in Pueblo has been tried, convicted, and sentenced to a term of years in the penitentiary for compelling an unfortunate woman to repeat her registration. He is under further indictments for compelling the same woman to forge fictitious names by the hundreds

to district registration sheets, all of which names were to be voted on election day by other fallen women, from whom the fellow collected "fines." Another former "city detective" is under indictment for actually compelling unfortunate women to repeat in the November, 1904, election, voting under some of the fictitious names forged by the first woman. Other presumably more respectable citizens, among them the present postmaster of Pueblo, the former county clerk and several of his deputies, are under indictment on equally strong evidence for being the brains and purse for this, which is but typical of former conspiracies by which elections were "carried" to perpetuate the control of the "gang."

Our foreign-born women electors, equally ignorant and illiterate with our foreign-born men, who as voters are so often held up for execration, should not be overlooked in our examination of "what and how many women vote." One of the anomalies of this woman's suffrage State is that an adult foreignborn woman is naturalized and becomes a duly qualified elector simply by the naturalization of her husband. An adult female alien applying for original naturalization is of but rare occurrence in Colorado. It can be readily seen that with this arrangement the naturalization of a single male alien often creates im-



AT PARTY HEADQUARTERS

The women canvassers of one of the political parties are waiting to receive their "route lists," which are being prepared by the stenographers.

Remarks.	Fart of this precinct is not in the city, but this part includes few." Mexicans." A few fraudulent registrations even here.		Next to precinct 4 above this is best residence precinct in city, but it includes more women who make their own living.		There were 8 fraudulent registrations (3 names of women, 5 of men) in this precinct.	-			_	all of American critizen parentage and correspond to the better class of our mining population.	-		Warrants were out for persons who might try to vote on 78 frauduent regretations (26 of women, 35 of men). This accounts for an unusually small percentage of those registered voting. Some fraud and coercion, however, in fall election.	Fights and trouble generally normally occur in this precinct. Owing to spring election being almost honest, the large part of the purchasable vote here was not got to the polls. Actual total women population is small here compared with men.	This precinct is not all in city for general elections, but includes some alten workmen and families. All fraudulent registrations were not found on account of difficulty of canvassing, but 13 (5 of women, 8 of men) were found.	This precinct in city election more of a fair criterion than in fall election above. Some respectable criteries on borders. Even in this election, however, police and county officers used corrot of the spring and fall. Few respectable women here.						
Per cent. of men registered who voted.	90.76	80.08	82.69	71.72	76.41	73.88	83.71	78.84	61.32	70.48	æ- æ.	81.02	88.09	59.23	61.28	64.30	82.16	80.20	99.98	67.74	65.78	61.01
Per cent. of wo- men registered a who voted.	\$4 .03	77.51	76.98	73.25	77.60	67.50	84.21	68.30	61.49	73.68	81.08	83.18	80.00	53.84	74.12	71.07	76.00	91.37	71.42	63.63	90.09	40.47
Per cent. of both sexes registered who voted.	87.69	78.87	80.06	72.42	76.87	71.11	83.91	74.62	61.36	71.39	83.19	81.83	57.12	57.33	79.32	67.00	80.17	84.41	81.81	99.99	63.79	
Per cent, of elec- tors polled who were men.	56.32	18.83	55.84	53.88	95.09	88.88	60.33	63.36	72.42	70.73	87.88	62.03	69.74	66.92	18.99	\$6.78	69.35	59.23	72.22	75.00	67.56	67.92 52.47
Per cent, of elec- tors polled who a were women.	43.67	46.18	4.15	46.11	39.43	41.11	39.66	36.63	72.57	29.26	37.11	37.96	30.25	33.07	33.18	43.21	30.64	40.76	77.72	25.00	32.43	12.07
Per cent. of those registered who were men.	14.41	53.00	70.15	2.40	60.93	29.95	60.47	96.65	72.47	71.64	61.92	62.64	65.44	64.78	84.48	89.29	29.79	62.33	88.18	73.80	15.59	16 41.58 58.41 32.07
Per cent.of those registered who swomen.	45.58	46.99	45.92	45.59	39.06	43.32	39.52	40.03	27.52	28.35	38.07	37.35	34.56	35.21	35.51	40.74	32.32	37.66	31.81	28.19	¥.48	1.58
Total male vote.	285	233	258	208	8	232	58	313	8	233	305	82	249	170	<u>Q</u>	13	62	11	8	17	-	1 8
Total female a	122	8	Ŕ	138	₹.	162	240	181	8	ॐ	86	8	108	*	€	3 8	22	S	01	7	121	1
Total vote.	20 5	433	53	8 8	492	蒸	605	\$	359	83	8	33	357	254	2	661	981	8	8	83	32	2
Number of men registered.	314	16%	312	82	38	34	436	397	\$	88	38	369	69	%	36	176	157	88	8	3	88	3
Number of wo-	363	258	365	243	250	₹	587	365	191	=	777	220	216	35	<u>8</u>	121	73	88	7	=	श्च	4
Total registra-	125	3	577	533	₹	35	721	662	88	\$	38	88	625	± ±	\$	282	22	72	#	42	32	<u>o</u>
Date of election.	Nov., '04 General	April, '05 City	Nov., Ot General	April, '05 City	Nov., 104 General	April, '05 City	Nov., '04 General	April, '05 City	Nov., 04 General	April, 705 City	Nov., '04 General	April, '05 City	Nov. '04 General	April, '05 City	Nov., '04 General	April,	Nov., Or General		Nov., '04 General	Nov., '04 General	Nov. 704 General	Nov. 'M
S. Character of precinct.	Best residence.		Second best residence.		Half best residence, half skilled artisans and railroad men.		Artisans, small tradesmen, me- chanics, laborers—skilled and unskilled—clerks, a few supts foremen, engineers, prof. men.		Mechanics, skilled and common laborers at steel works.		Slavs and Italians, steel works and smelter laborers.		Cheap lodging-houses, saloons. "Tough," A few small man- ufacturers, alien laborers.		Some aliens and respectable people, but generally disreputable. Brothels and lowest saloons. Female rooming-houses.		Beulah—small village in agricul- tural region.	Rye small village in agricul- tural and stock region.	Stanley's Ranch—cattle-raising community.	Agricultural and horticultural region.	Ranching community, some ag-	Ranching community.
Number of pre-	7	<u> </u>							,	8	Ж,	*	=	E	30							
	Vote in eight precincts in city of Pueblo for both Nov., 1904, and April, 1905, elections.										Vote in six precincts our- railroad for fall election (Nov., '04) only. Coun- ty of Pueblo.											

mediately two foreign-born voters. The full significance may thus be realized of the fact, as reported by the grand jury in Pueblo, composed of leading citizens, six Democrats and six Republicans, that "nearly 1,300 foreigners received their naturalization papers during September and October, 1904, from the County Court (of Pueblo County)—within sixty days more naturalization papers to foreigners than had been formerly issued during the entire history of the county (covering over forty years). . . . In many instances they were issued to aliens who had never applied for their first papers. . . . These aliens, largely under the control of padrones or bosses, for a consideration from the political leaders, were rounded up and taken into court and demanded their naturalization papers, having all or part of their expenses paid by whichever political party could control the padrone." It is impossible to say just how many foreign-born female voters were created by the naturalization, in many cases through fraud, of these 1,300 male aliens, mostly of the lowest and most ignorant class of Italian laborers. Certainly it ran far up into the hundreds.

So much in answer to the question, "What and how many women vote." How they vote is a different matter.

Vicious women vote as the dominant "boss," aided by the police, or as the police acting on their own account, compel them to vote.

Foreign-born women—the Slavs and Italians, Greeks and Russians—like the foreign-born men, vote for the most part in the manner the superintendent of the railroad, mining, or manufacturing corporation, or his foreman or their agents, or the subsidized priest or padrone, tell them they must vote. These commands are sometimes reinforced by money, or by threats of bodily violence or spiritual damnation, or more often by threats of the kinsmen of the women losing their Women of this class as well as men are told to ask election officers for assistance-indeed, most of them need it—in preparing their ballots, on the ground that they do not understand the process of voting or that they are un-



HOW REGISTRATION IS "PADDED" IN THE RED-LIGHT DISTRICTS

This house, at 2116 Market Street, in the heart of the brothel district of Denver, had four legal resident voters; but from it twenty-three names were registered, the excess to be voted by repeaters on election day.

able to read or write English. In this way the intended secrecy of the Australian ballot is violated.

The "new women" vote for those who favor their pet theories.

Other women vote in various ways. Indeed, ridiculous but true stories could be told of how some really conscientious ladies vote. A few days after the election of November, 1904, for example, I was talking with a young married woman of more than average intelligence, who was living in one of the smaller cities of Colorado, and who declared "she never voted a straight ticket, because she always voted for the men." I applauded, and asked if she would mind telling me how she voted and why. "Not at all," she replied, earnestly. "I didn't know much about Roosevelt or Parker, but in his pictures Parker is much more handsome than Roosevelt, so I voted for the Democratic electors. I don't like Governor

Peabody's wife, so I voted for Alva Adams. The Republican candidate for County Clerk wants to marry a friend of mine and could right away if elected, so I voted for him. The Republican running for Assessor got my vote because he is a dear old man and needed a nice easy position. The Republican candidate for State Treasurer was a Swede and I don't like Swedes, so I voted for the Democrat. One of the candidates for County Commissioner on the Democratic ticket, they say, used to run a saloon, so I voted for the Republican. I voted against the Republican candidate for Sheriff because his wife got a divorce from him. I took my husband's advice regarding the other candidates, because I didn't know anything about them myself." I mildly asked if she knew of the special qualifications of any of these men to perform the duties of the several offices for which they were candidates. She replied that she had not troubled about that, because the reasons she had stated were sufficient for her. Of course this is an extreme case, but I have come to believe that the things which determined this really charming woman in her choice of candidates were of the kind that appeal strongly to many thousands of the women who vote in Colorado.

In rare instances wives vote differently from their husbands, but I have noted that in such cases politics is a source of more or less friction in the family. It follows naturally, however, from women's usual place in society, that they are not thrown into daily contact with men, and consequently do not have the same opportunities of learning at first hand of the character and capacity of candidates as do their brothers, fathers, husbands, and sons, who in comparatively small cities like those of Colorado (Denver's population in 1900 was but 133,859) are apt to know personally or by reputation the candidates in their daily work or business. For the proportion of women candidates for office in Colorado is very I believe it is not an exaggeration to say that, realizing these facts, more than half our women voters depend upon the judgment of the male members of their families in deciding how to vote.

Now, what change has been wrought by woman's suffrage, in the character and conduct of our public officials?

Women themselves form such a small proportion of the aspirants for any elective offices except those in connection with the schools that they are almost negligible factors. Ever since the extension of the franchise the State Superintendent of Public Instruction has been a woman. This is the office of greatest importance ever held in Colorado by our new voters. Be it said further to the credit of the successive incumbents of this responsible position that theirs has been about the only one of Colorado's administrative departments, from chief executive down, the conduct of which in the past decade has always been above even suspicion of rank favoritism, fraud, or graft. Since 1894 the office of County Superintendent of Schools has been held continuously in a number of counties by women. Their service, generally speaking, has been so eminently correct and satisfactory that after each election the proportion of women has increased until at present they hold this office in thirty-four of the fifty-nine counties. Women have also been elected to other county and city offices, but such cases have been rare and are growing rarer. A considerable number of deserving and competent women have clerkships and other appointive positions in various departments of the State and local government—possibly a slightly larger number than in men-suffrage States. Although citizens in every other sense, Colorado women, by custom, are not required to sit on juries nor pay the poll tax. Nor are they liable to service in the militia nor to call by the sheriff to act on a posse comitatus. As in cities elsewhere, those in Colorado have police matrons, but, with the exception of one special officer in Pueblo, no women policemen. There are a few women lawyers, but no women judges, although there is one woman justice of the peace in Kiowa, a cattle-ranch county. No woman has been elected to the State The number in the lower house of the Legislature shows a steady decline. In the session of 1895 there were three women members of the

House of Representatives; in 1897, three; in 1899, three; in 1901, one; in 1903, one; in 1905, none. It is a subject of common remark also that there has been in the last few years a steady falling off in the number of women at primary caucuses and as voters at partisan primaries in the respectable precincts, as well as a corresponding, and of course consequent, decrease in the

official capacities whose private lives were unsavory. We formerly had the elsewhere usual city average of saloon-keepers, some of whom were honest as municipal officials. Since the extension of the franchise to women political parties have learned the inadvisability of nominating for public offices drunkards, notorious libertines, gamblers, retail liquor dealers, and men who engage



ROUNDING UP REPEATERS

A city detective in a city of Colorado collecting disreputable women in order to "vote them" illegally and make them "repeat." The women are taken from polling-place to polling-place in closed carriages. As a "blind" the hack was not driven to the women's "houses," but the detective ordered the women to meet him and his carriage two blocks or more away. This picture was taken in spite of threats made by the "plain-clothes man" of the municipal police department that he would "do up" the photographer. He effectively concealed his own identity as well as that of one of the two women he was helping into the hack by "ducking" and holding up his hat. Two other women who were to go in the carriage are seen approaching on the sidewalk.

number of women delegates to local and State conventions of the parties.

A very noteworthy change wrought by woman's suffrage has been the raising of the requirement as to moral character, judged solely by their private lives, of men elected, especially to offices in our cities. But no corresponding change for the better has been brought about in the *public* conduct of our officials. Before 1893 we had in Colorado some men who served the people well in their purely

in similar discredited occupations, because the women almost always vote them down. This change has been pointed to by advocates of woman's suffrage as a great reform. Unfortunately, the character and honesty of our public servants, judged solely by their public services and by their official conduct, has not in general been improved. Since 1893 we have had as many men, possibly more, who as officers are incompetent, grossly partial, unscrupulous, and even

positively dishonest, although as private citizens they do not sell liquor or engage in riotous living. It should be needless to say that saloon-keepers are often honest, that ranchmen, real estate and investment brokers are sometimes dishonest, and that the substitution in office of a rogue who has been dealing in land for one who has been dealing in liquor is not a real improvement.

Now, what are the general results?

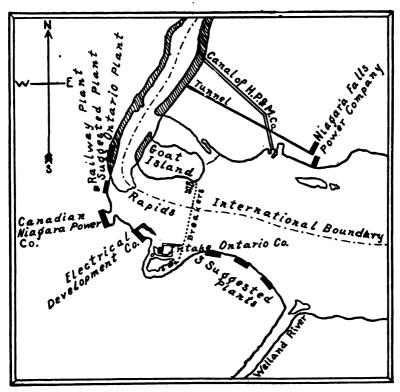
We have seen that the presence of women as voters has not improved the order and decorum at polling-places. addition to the specific crimes already mentioned, it will be necessary, in order to remind us how impure Colorado's elections have been, only to refer to the surprising amount of election knavery committed in all parts of the State by both parties in November, 1904, and exposed last winter in the contest over the Governorship, and to the facts that about thirty men in Denver, mostly Democrats, were sent to jail and fined, and that a grand jury in Pueblo returned 257 indictments, mostly against Republicans, all for election frauds.

Those of us who have lived in Colorado and have had the opportunity to become acquainted, not merely with the noisy radicals, but with our really representative women voters, are not ready to accept as accurate assertions that, as a class, they have by voting "dealt a blow at their womanhood," nor to approve sweeping indictments against their character and motives.

We have also seen that extension of the suffrage to women has, in the long run, merely tended to double the number of possible, not of actual, voters. Among the very highest classes, judged by standards of property, intelligence, and morality, and among the very lowest, we have added seventy-five to eighty-five per cent. to the number who formerly exercised the franchise. But among the great middle classes, in these respects, a very much larger proportion of the women than of the men do not vote. It would, indeed, appear that the average character of the actual voting body has either remained unchanged or has been slightly lowered as regards actual political intelligence and discrimination.

Although rascals of notoriously intemperate or licentious personal habits and rascals engaging in certain discredited forms of business are no longer so largely elected to public, offices, it must be confessed that in too many cases under woman's suffrage the incumbents are rascals still. We have practically all the forms of graft and misgovernment found elsewhere. Woman's suffrage seems to have been neither a preventive, an alleviator, nor a cure for any of our political ills. Furthermore, in Colorado's larger cities, and especially in Denver, lewd women have been granted by the police a degree of license not accorded them, so far as I can learn, in any other part of America. Is it unfair to assume that this is part of the price paid by bosses and police in our cities for the extreme activity of these women in primaries and elections? It would, however, be as absurd to assume that all the debauchery of our public service in many fields is due to women voters as to assert that they have improved our local and State government.

Indeed, it would seem that the woman's suffragists in general tacitly admit that there have been no practical reforms or other important or positive results in Colorado, because they who urged the adoption of their experiment for reasons of justice and expediency now in the great majority of cases praise its operation on grounds of justice only. Voting, they say, is one of woman's natural rights, from the exercise of which tyrannical man long prevented her. They ask, "Would you in justice refuse the intelligent and refined women of your family the franchise you give so freely to illiterates and miserable, often criminal, foreigners and negroes?" They assume that one approves of allowing the men of all these classes to vote without restriction, and they forget that these illiterates, foreigners, and negroes have women in their families. That all the women even of Colorado do not regard voting as among their "natural rights" is shown by the flat and oftentimes indignant refusal by many to vote at all, and by the manner in which such a large proportion of the others look upon voting as on unpleasant, irksome, and unsought duty.



NIAGARA FALLS AND THE NIAGARA RIVER Showing the location of existing and suggested power plants

HOW TO PROTECT NIAGARA FALLS

BY CHARLES M. DOW

President of the Commissioners of the State Reservation at Niagara

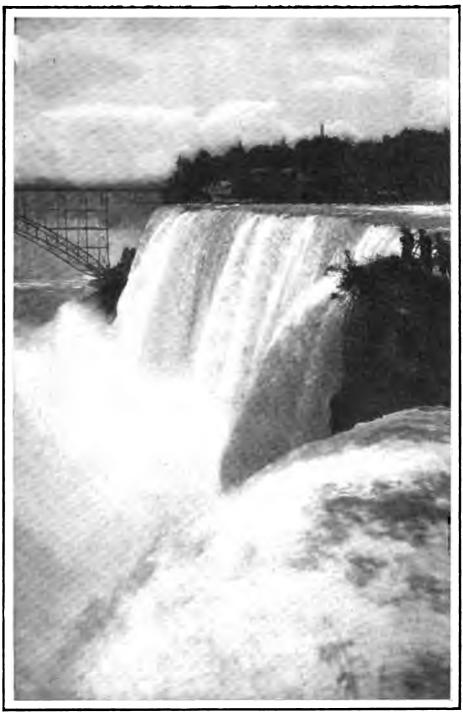
N the last week of the old year the following despatch appeared in one of the daily newspapers of the State of New York:

Assemblyman (Blank), when informed that Governor Higgins would have something to say relative to the preservation of Niagara Falls in his message, said he presumed there would be some play to the galleries along that line, but, notwithstanding, the utilization of natural water power for the production of electrical energy would continue all over the State and country, and in twenty-five years Niagara Falls would be as the Falls of the Mohawk at Cohoes, only to be seen as a waterfall on Sundays and holidays when the power utilization plants were not running and the diverted

water was allowed to follow its natural channels. For his part he thought it would be better to have the water thus used than forever running to waste.

This utterance is quoted solely because it accurately represents the feeling of large numbers of people. Coupling this feeling with the habit of capital to seize upon every opportunity for profit regardless of sentiments and emotions unconnected with the heaping up of wealth, we have a formidable menace to the Falls of Niagara, which, if not counteracted, will unquestionably bring about the result so much desired in the language quoted.

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THE AMERICAN FALLS FROM THE SOUTHERN END AT THE NORMAL STAGE OF WATER

Compare this with the view on the opposite page, which was taken from practically the same point of view under quite different conditions



THE AMERICAN FALLS AT A LOW STAGE OF WATER CAUSED BY AN ICE JAM

A comparison of this picture with that on the opposite page gives
some idea of what will result if the Falls are not protected

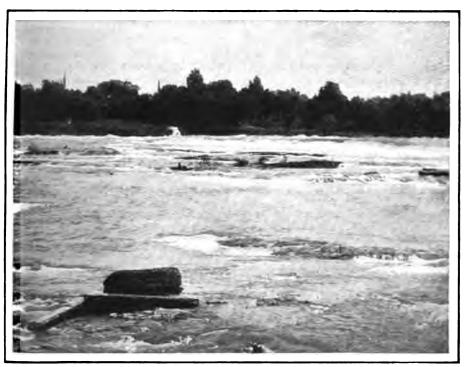


THE AMERICAN CHANNEL ABOVE THE FALLS AT A NORMAL STAGE OF WATER

This danger has recently aroused public attention and has stimulated into activity for the protection of the Falls the energy of the press, of several civic societies, and of a vast number of public-spirited citizens. The purpose of this article is to add to the exact knowledge of all such societies and persons, excite the interest of others whose attention has not been hitherto attracted to the subject, and to indicate in what manner protest against the threatened evil may be most practical and effective.

In the first place, the danger of the near extinction of the Falls as an object of overwhelming interest by the diversion of the waters is real. It has been difficult to impress this unwelcome fact upon the minds of a people whose imagination has been stirred for generations by the tremendous volume of the cataract, and to whom the inexhaustibility of Niagara has seemed as certain and enduring as the limitless power of the sun to give out heat and light. The volume of water in the river is a finite and measurable quantity. The flow has been measured for many years by the United States Engineer Corps, and it reports that the average flow of the river is 222,400 cubic feet per second, and that the minimum flow, so far as observed, was 165,340 cubic feet per second. Given this flow—and that the figures are substantially correct there is no doubt—we have next to inquire the amount of the abstraction of this water which has been authorized by the State of New York and by the Government of the Province of Ontario.

Upon the American side the State Reservation at Niagara, which is owned by the State of New York, occupies the shore of the river from a point below the American Fall to Port Day above the Falls, and although attempts have been made to procure the right to divert the water along this stretch of river front, all such attempts have hitherto been defeated. At Port Day is situated the intake of the Niagara Falls Hydraulic Power and Manufacturing Company. This company conducts water by a canal extending through the city of Niagara Falls to the brink of the gorge below the falls, and utilizes the water at the gorge.



THE RAPIDS SHOWN ON THE OPPOSITE PAGE, AT A LOW STAGE OF WATER

It is authorized to take water through a canal 100 feet wide with the uniform depth of 14 feet. The precise amount of water which can be diverted through this canal has not been accurately determined, or, if thus determined, has never been made public. The amount has usually been assumed to be 7,700 cubic feet per second, but in response to a question of the International Waterways Commission, the president of the company has said that the flow would be from 8.000 to 10,000 cubic feet per second. It is reasonably safe to assume that the maximum figure—10,000 cubic feet per second—is substantially correct.

Next above this canal is located the plant of the Niagara Falls Power Company. This company has the right to divert water sufficient to produce 200,000 effective horse-power. At the present time this company diverts the waters of the river into a canal communicating with penstocks in which are located the wheels producing power, and the waters are conducted through a tunnel approximately 7,000 feet long to the gorge of the river below the Falls. It has two

power-houses in operation capable of producing 100,000 horse-power, and the waters necessary to divert for this purpose are rated at 8,600 cubic feet per second. In order to produce the additional authorized 100,000 horse-power. the construction of another tunnel would be necessary. To produce this amount of horse-power would require the diversion of at least 8,600 cubic feet of water per second, and hence the total amount which this company is authorized to divert amounts to 17,200 cubic feet per This, with the maximum of second. 10,000 cubic feet diverted by the Niagara Falls Hydraulic Power and Manufacturing Company, makes a total of 27,200 cubic feet per second which can now be lawfully diverted upon the American side.

In addition to the foregoing, the State of New York has authorized from time to time during the past twenty years a variety of companies to divert water from the river, but several of these have unquestionably lost their rights through failure to comply with the time limit prescribed by their charters. There are two such companies, however, the legal

status of which is somewhat uncertain, viz., the Niagara Power and Development Company and the Niagara, Lockport, and Ontario Power Company. No statutory restriction was placed upon the amount of water which either of these companies was authorized to use. There is some question whether the rights conferred upon them are now in existence, but this can only be settled, if it ever arises in a practical way, by legal adjudication. It is understood that neither of these companies is at the present time engaged upon any work looking to the diversion of water.

Passing now to the conditions existing upon the Canadian side of the river, there are four corporations in operation which have been authorized by the Government of Ontario to divert water for power purposes. The Canadian Niagara Power Company has the right to use 100,000 horse-power, which, it is estimated, requires the diversion of 8,900 cubic feet of water per second. Ontario Power Company has two rights -one to carry water through three main feeder pipes eighteen feet in diameter to a power-house situate below the Falls, and the estimate given by the Canadian authorities as to the amount of water which will be diverted by these three pipes is substantially 12,000 cubic feet per second. This company has also a right to conduct water from the Welland River, which flows into Niagara River just above the rapids, but the amount of water which can be abstracted under this permission has never been determined and may probably safely be omitted from any calculations made in this article. The Electrical Development Company has the right to produce 125,000 horse-power, and the estimated amount of water required to produce this maximum amount of power is 11,200 cubic feet per second.

In addition to the foregoing, an electrical railway company has the right to divert water to a certain amount in the operation of its road, which amount, however, is quite small, and is generally estimated at about 400 cubic feet per second.

These are all the rights which have been granted by the Government of Ontario up to the present time.

In the year 1903 the Government of Ontario procured a report from an eminent hydraulic engineer upon the possibility of additional plants capable of generating electric power on a large scale with waters of Niagara River. The report of this engineer suggested four additional plants with a total water consumption of 29,996 cubic feet per second—practically 30,000 cubic feet. One of these suggested sites was located near the Horseshoe Falls, and the remaining three on the shore of the river above the rapids and below Welland River. The sites of all the existing and suggested plants are shown upon the accompanying

The present situation may, therefore, be summed up as follows, the figures given being that of cubic feet of water diverted from the stream each second:

AUTHORIZED DIVERSION

Niagara Falls Hydraulic Power and	
Manufacturing Company	10,000
Niagara Falls Power Company	17,200
Canadian Niagara Power Company	8,900
Ontario Power Company	12,000
Electrical Development Company	11,200
Electric Railway Company	400

SUGGESTED DIVERSION

30,000

The right to divert 60,000 cubic feet per second is an accomplished fact. The prevention of future diversions is the end to which the energies of all lovers of the Falls must be directed.

A clear understanding of the situation can be had only by careful consideration of the effect of the authorized diversion of the waters. Much speculation has been indulged in on this subject without full consideration of the topographical features. It must be borne in mind that the Falls consist of two parts—the American Fall and the Horseshoe Fall. division of the waters of the stream to supply these two falls occurs above the head of Goat Island. There has been a considerable diversity of opinion as to the proportion of water passing over the American Fall. It has been stated as low as ten per cent, and as high as twentyfive per cent. A careful consideration of the situation will, I think, establish that this percentage cannot well exceed ten per cent. A cross section of the stream based upon actual soundings just above the head of the rapids, taken in connection with the width of the American channel at the head of Goat Island and that of the Canadian channel at the same point, seems to establish that ten per cent. is a fair and reasonable estimate of this amount.

The power plants upon the American shore are both in operation, and it is safe to assume are now taking from the stream not exceeding 15,000 cubic feet per second. They unquestionably use to some extent water which would flow over the Canadian Fall, and it may be stated without fear of successful contradiction that the effect of taking a limited quantity of water from the stream above the rapids at any given point situated a measurable distance from the point of diversion cannot be calculated or stated with accuracy.

We have next to consider the effect of the abstraction of water by the plants already authorized upon the Canadian It will be seen by reference to side. the map that all of these plants divert water from the stream below the head of the rapids. These rapids extend for a distance of about three-quarters of a mile above the Horseshoe Falls, and the fall in this distance is about fifty-five At the head of these rapids is a large breaker extending from the Canadian shore toward the head of Goat Island, creating a cascade of several feet, and it is apparent that the taking of water from the stream below this cascade will not divert water to any appreciable extent, if at all, from the American channel. Hence, all power plants now authorized upon the Canadian side to take water to the extent of 32,500 cubic feet per second will not affect the American Fall, but only the Horseshoe Fall.

Three of the suggested plants upon the Canadian side to be situated between Dufferin Islands, which are substantially at the head of the rapids, and Welland River, will take water from the stream above the rapids, and will, therefore, to a greater or less extent affect the American Fall.

The fourth suggested plant, with a capacity of a little upward of 7,000 cubic feet per second, is located below the head of the rapids near the Horseshoe Falls. With the exception of this suggested plant, the river front between the crest of the Horseshoe Falls and the head of the rapids is now entirely occupied for power purposes. It is possible, however, that the capacity of the Electrical Development Company plant can be doubled, this increasing the suggested diversion, affecting the Horseshoe Falls alone to about 18,000 cubic feet per second.

Some detailed figures may here be profitably considered. The average flow of the entire stream being 222,400 cubic feet per second, the amount passing through the American channel will be on the average about 22,000 cubic feet per second, and through the Canadian channel about 200,000 cubic feet per second. The authorized diversion from this latter channel below the head of the rapids is 32,500 cubic feet per second, or about one-sixth of the total average The authorized abstraction is a fixed quantity, while the flow of the river varies, and we must, therefore, take into consideration its minimum flow. Upon the assumed basis of nine-tenths passing through the Canadian channel, the minimum flow is 152,406 cubic feet per second, and of this the authorized diversion is 32,500 cubic feet, or about twentyone per cent, of the minimum flow. This will be the result when companies with plants now constructed or in process of construction have come into full operation, and a result which cannot be avoided by any known means. It needs no argument to show that this authorized diversion will seriously affect the Horseshoe Falls and make imperative the most strenuous efforts to prevent their further depletion.

The effect of taking water from the river above the head of the rapids cannot be so accurately calculated. The average flow through the American channel upon the assumed basis of one-tenth is about 22,000 cubic feet per second, and at the minimum stage the flow will

be about 16,900 cubic feet per second. The entrance to this channel at the head of Goat Island is only a little over 700 feet in width, while the length of the crest of the fall is nearly 1,100 feet. Therefore a slight reduction in the depth

that even at the minimum flow of the river the appearance of this fall is most seriously affected. But few photographs have been taken at low water. Those in existence demonstrate that the majesty of this fall and of the rapids above it is



THE CHANNEL BETWEEN GOAT ISLAND AND ONE OF THE THREE SISTERS ISLANDS AS IT USUALLY LOOKS

of the water at the entrance to the channel will seriously affect the appearance of the volume of water flowing over the crest. No accurate survey of the channels in the river sufficient to determine the effect upon the American Fall of a diversion upon the Canadian side has yet been made. It is certain, however, practically annihilated with the water at the lowest observed stage. Any further abstraction of the water above the head of the rapids must unquestionably, during the lower stages, result in the destruction not only of the beauty but of the sublime power of this most magnificent fall.



The foregoing review of the actual conditions now existing warrants the following summary:

1. No further diversion of water on the American side below the plant of the Niagara Falls Power Company can from the stream above the plant of the Niagara Falls Power Company, which would involve such great expense in carrying water to the gorge below the Falls that capital is not likely to undertake the scheme until the more profitable



THE CHANNEL SHOWN IN THE OPPOSITE PICTURE, AT A LOW STAGE OF WATER

be had without occupying the river front within the bounds of the State Reservation, and it is not in the least degree probable that consent for this can be obtained from the Legislature of the State of New York.

2. Additional power plants upon the American side must take their water

sites upon the Canadian side are occupied.

- 3. That there are at least four sites upon the Canadian side below the Welland River where water can be diverted with as favorable financial results as at the plants now existing.
 - 4. That because of these facts further



diversions of water are likely to take place first upon the Canadian side, and for this reason efforts to prevent such diversion must be directed to the Canadian authorities.

In his Message to Congress, December 4, 1905, the President of the United States directs attention to the question now under discussion, and says: "If the State of New York cannot take care of the Falls herself, it is earnestly to be wished that she should be willing to turn it over to the National Government."

This is a startling suggestion, and the source from which it proceeds demands that it receive careful consideration. It is apparent that the State of New York is not likely to turn over whatever rights it may possess to the General Government in order to prevent the State itself from further depleting the waters of the Falls. If it is the desire of the people of the State that the Falls should be preserved so far as possible in at least their present condition, they will undoubtedly continue to refuse to divert the waters, and will not turn over the Falls to the General Government for the mere purpose of preventing themselves from working the devastation. Unquestionably the only power that the State of New York possesses is to refuse to permit further diversion of water on its side of the stream. It cannot in any manner control the diversion on the Canadian side, nor can it enter into any agreement with the Canadian Government that the latter shall prevent further diversions.

It is also apparent that if there is any power to negotiate with the Canadian Government upon this question, it now resides in the General Government; and that any cession from the State of New York to the General Government would not increase that power. It is, therefore, not apparent what practical effect for good would be had by any cession from the State of New York to the General Government, the immediate danger to be guarded against being likely to arise upon the Canadian side. This danger must be prevented by negotiations between the General Government and the Canadian Government;

and this gives rise to the question what power the two Governments in conjunction may have over the entire question. Niagara River is an international boundary, and in point of law a navigable stream its entire length; and the Federal Government already has the right of jurisdiction over it, and has exercised such right. With the lakes it is an international highway, so made by the Ordinance of 1787, establishing the Northwest Territory, and by treaty with Great Britain; and as such the National Government is bound to protect it. This was made very clear by Judge A. K. Potter, one of the Commissioners of the State Reservation at Niagara, in his able argument before the International Waterways Commission on the 14th of last September. The upper river is practically navigable from Port Day, at the upper end of the State Reservation, to Lake Erie. The water cannot be lowered on one side without lowering it on the other; and Judge Potter argued that the people of both countries could require their National Governments to maintain its level. If the Federal Government requires its consent, as it has required it in the past for the building of a boom, or winged dam, in the Niagara River, to protect the intakes of the power companies from ice, it certainly would seem as if its consent could be made a condition precedent to the diversion of the water itself, and that by a treaty between the two Governments all further diversions of water could be prevented.

The possession of the State Reservation by the General Government would simply authorize it to refuse diversion along this water front, as the State of New York may now refuse. Such ownership would not add in the slightest to the power of the General Government to prevent the diversion of the water from an international highway. These suggestions seem to make it plain that any cession from the State of New York to the Federal Government would not add in the slightest to the protection of the Falls, since it would confer no power on the General Government which it does not already possess.

I have thus far assumed that the State

of New York would not permit any diversion of the water below Port Day or within the limits of the State Reser-It must, however, be confessed that such permission is legally possible, since it may be given by the Legislature. For twenty years the Commissioners of the Reservation have wielded all their power against every attempt to invade the limits of their jurisdiction, and thus far have been completely successful. Not a drop of Niagara is diverted from the river within the Reservation for commercial purposes, and it is to the credit of the entire State that twenty years ago it drew a cordon around the Falls within its jurisdiction and that portion of the river reaching to Port Day, and that cordon has been a dead line which no individual or corporation with designs upon the majesty of the cataract has been allowed to pass. It does not seem morally possible that this policy could be changed, but it would be a wise safeguard were a constitutional amendment adopted prohibiting further diversion of water, and such an amendment I deem it the clear duty of the Legislature to submit to the people of the State at the earliest practicable moment. Such an amendment was recommended by a committee in the Constitutional Convention of 1894, but the Convention refused to The present situation was adopt it. clearly foreseen by the late Andrew H. Green, for many years President of the Commissioners, who in every possible way gave his great influence to the protection of the Falls, not only in the work of the Commission but in the Constitutional Convention. The situation, however, was not as well understood then as now, as may be seen from the fact that the Legislature of 1904 adopted a joint resolution memorializing the President of the United States to negotiate a treaty with Great Britain to prevent further diversion of water. There can be but little doubt that if the Legislature would submit to the people the suggested amendment it would be ratified by the popular vote.

As an evidence of good faith in dealing with the authorities controlling the river upon the Canadian side, and also for the purpose of bringing to bear a moral pressure of great weight, it is desirable not only that such an amendment to the State Constitution be proposed and adopted, but also that the Congress of the United States should pass an act forbidding further diversion of water from the river within American boundaries above the Falls.

The situation, then, as it appears to the writer, may be recapitulated as follows:

- 1. The authorized diversion of the waters of the Niagara River, when exercised to its full extent, will seriously but not wholly impair the Falls.
- 2. That further suggested diversion should be prevented, if possible.
- 3. That the transfer of the State Reservation at Niagara Falls from the State of New York to the Federal Government would be valueless as a remedy against the proposed evil.
- 4. That this diversion can be absolutely prevented by the joint action of the Government of the United States and the proper British authorities.
- 5. That it is desirable that the Legislature of the State of New York should revoke all charters for the diversion of water under which operations have not been commenced in good faith.
- 6. That an amendment to the Constitution of the State should be adopted providing for the perpetual protection of the waters of Niagara River.
- 7. That the Congress of the United States should exercise at once all the powers it may possess to prevent such diversion.



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нотодкарн сорукіднт, 1808, ву с. v. роньвом, рамтискет, к. і. MARY LYON The Founder of Mount Holyoke College From a miniature portrait

MOUNT HOLYOKE COLLEGE A STUDY IN EDUCATIONAL SERVICE

BY JEANNETTE MARKS

T Gloucester in the last decade of the eighteenth century a resolution was passed that two hours out of the eight hours of daily instruction be devoted to girls, "as they are a tender and interesting branch of the community, but have been much neglected in the public schools in this town"—indeed, much neglected up to that time in every town. In the New England tradition education had been looked upon as a necessity; it had seemed to men a fundamental condition for right living. Behind an ineradicably democratic spirit,

never at all general in the South, lay Puritan conviction not only of the worth of an individual soul, but also of the importance of a man's knowledge and thought, for which training was provided in the common school.

Two hundred years after the establishment of Harvard College there was no college for women, who were still reckoned largely according to their economic value in the community, a necessity in Colonial days, but, with greater internal resources, more service at command, and the advent of the factory,

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ceasing to be such a necessity. The father who considered his daughter's education as important as his son's for the welfare of the family was then unknown; the father who put his son to work and gave his daughter the distinctively literary training would have seemed to our seventeenth and eighteenth century ancestors derelict—as it may be he really would be. The men of a family, according to good English usage, bore the responsibilities of culture; now these responsibilities are often in the keeping of mother and sister and daughter. Before the close of the first quarter of the nineteenth century but few efforts had been made to give women even the rudiments of education—reading and writing, if need be-efforts which may be designated as fairly unsuccessful.

The royal founding of Mount Holyoke. two hundred years from the date of Harvard's establishment, lay in the generous, undaunted heart of a woman. It had, in common with the greater institutions for men, New England traditions of piety, learning, sturdiness, and the best qualities of good New England blood. vious to this there had been Dame Schools, mothers' helpers, so to speak, for very little children; academies which prepared boys for college, sometimes admitting girls for an hour or so, or, as in the instance of South Byfield and other academies, being co-educational; and the public schools, which had made, in general, no adequate provision for this "tender and interesting branch of the community." The movement for the higher education of women began about 1820 with the Rev. Joseph Emerson at Byfield. Later came the Emma Willard School, still a school in excellent standing, and the Catharine Beecher Seminary at Hartford, which was given up with the removal of Miss Beecher to the West. the South there were several early efforts towards the higher education of women; these schools, prosperous till the time of the Civil War, have since then deteriorated. It was for Mary Lyon, the founder of Mount Holyoke Seminary, to solve the problem of a school for young women which should not be the plaything of circumstance. Mary Lyon's ideal was to establish a permanent, endowed institution, which was "designed to be furnished with every advantage that the state of education in this country will allow." This was no idle castle-building on her part, for the robust, rosy-cheeked, curlyhaired, blue-eyed young woman knew the hard facts to be faced with any such scheme in mind. As early as 1814 she had begun her teaching career at seventyfive cents a week and "boarded round;" she taught up and down the Connecticut Valley, was well known, well liked, and in great demand. All her experience but made her realize more fully how far short the opportunities for girls fell of the substantial education which she had in mind. Limited, naturally, by the times, hers was, nevertheless, a collegiate ideal, as the clause in the first circular of the school reveals: "We intend it to be like our colleges, so valuable that the rich will be glad to attend it, and so economical that people in moderate circumstances may be equally accommodated." As in all colleges of that day and of to-day, Holyoke students then, as well as now, received more than that for which they paid. Her object, too, was the highest object of the highest education: to meet public and not private wants—to serve the country. The opening curriculum exceeded in advancement and breadth of subject any courses offered in any schools elsewhere; it included, among other studies, logic, moral philosophy, ancient and modern history, and the natural sciences taught according to the laboratory method. At the time Harvard was, I think, the only other institution teaching science in this fash-But it was the first entrance requirements that caused the most serious flutter. The "young ladies," not unlike other young ladies of to-day, were in despair at such high requirements; to enter Mount Holyoke they were obliged to pass in arithmetic, geography, history, English grammar, and Watts "On the Mind "-especially Watts "On Mind." Nevertheless, the second year four hundred applicants were turned away because there was not room to accommodate them, and from that day to this the demands have been in excess of room at the institution's command.

The Seminary opened its doors in



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MISS MARY E. WOOLLEY President of Mount Holyoke College



THE COLLEGE BROOK



THE LOWER LAKE

1837; fifty-one years later it became Mount Holyoke Seminary and College, and in 1893 was chartered as a college only. For several years previous to the opening, Mary Lyon had faced the problem of collecting an endowment. met with opposition, indifference, even discourtesy; but she met with friends, One good gentleman, a minister at Cummington, gave up his pastorate, unblessed by his congregation for so doing, and became Mary Lyon's agent in soliciting funds. "Pa" Hawks, as the students named him, held a newperhaps to call it old would be more apt argument in favor of the higher education of women: he thought that, as woman had been the occasion of the fall, she ought to have the highest possible education to undo the ill effects of the fatal apple. Here is another argument against the present opponents of the higher education, invincible this time, for man has never been known to contest the apple. In sums ranging from six cents, in three cases, upwards, they collected \$27,000 for the first building, an amount representing eighteen hundred subscribers. Deacon Safford, a prosperous Boston merchant, was one of the early promoters of the institution. He repeated his first gift, \$500, a generous sum for those days, many times, and he considered his investment, as did many of Mount Holyoke's friends, the best he had ever made; for, he said, there was " no depreciation in the stock; it vields the largest dividends."

The early hall, built, as its founder wished, of the best material, provided with the best plumbing and heating the times could give, nevertheless, in Puritan wise, made but little of the outer aspect. Yet, as in the case of a New England church, it had a character of its own, quaint and not unattractive. To-day the seventeen main buildings form a unified impression uncommon among our American colleges—buildings, largely English Collegiate and Tudor in style, divided into two campuses: the residential and the academic. Some of these buildings seem a part of the earth in which they stand—than this unity there is no severer architectural test. Even the newest comes as gracefully from the turf as if it

were kin to its neighbors the pines. Of the ugliest possibility on the grounds—the power-house smoke-stack---John Ruskin would not have been ashamed. grounds, a third of a square mile in extent, show modified English traditions of learning in buildings, lawns, parks, ordered groves, driveways, little streams and lakes. From "Prospect," which rises two hundred feet at the edge of the lower college lake, may be seen two ranges of hills, green in spring, with the gray of rocks showing through the delicate feather of budding leaves; deep green and dark blue in summer, with wide flumes of shadow between the valley hills; red and gold and brown in autumn; white in winter, with the pines scattered here and there and the soft fringe of leafless trees along the summits; above, the vivid blue of a winter sky. Through the cut of the Connecticut River between these two valley ranges lies a wide upland of blue hills stretching away towards Cummington, Little Switzerland, and the girlhood home of Mary Lyon, two thousand feet above sea-level. It is all not only a scene of meditative beauty, a place of wonderment, the hills trailing into blue distance, but also a scene of indescribable richness, luxuriance, fertility. Connecticut Valley is one of the most fertile valleys in the country, with no hint of the sterile, rock-ribbed pastures of Massachusetts. In its garden aspect it resembles much of the English hill country. As with Wordsworth, love of nature has led to love of man and a keen sense of the immanence of the divine-

" a sense sublime
Of something far more deeply interfused,
Whose dwelling is the light of setting suns,
And the round ocean, and the living air,
And the blue sky, and in the mind of man."

The careers of many of the women who have gone forth from Mount Holyoke have been characterized by reverence for the divine in the world about them, love for their fellow-beings and a desire to serve them, just such a spirit of worship and devotion as mountain solitude since time was has bred among people. From this valley these women have followed duty into the crowded and the evil places of the world,

to remember with refreshment this bountiful life of nature, sun and moon and stars, the cool latticed light of ferny pathways, to hear in retrospect the whispering blades of grass, the bees bustling in the flowers, to love nature's various music and all the windage of the hills; to see again the checkering of light and shade on mountain-side and on lake and stream, and the colors of nature's coverlids,

"Gold tinted like the peach

Or ripe October's faded marigolds," and to feel, as Keats did, sleep filled with the soft sound of water and with moonlight.

To live in so beautiful a world makes

"teacher" was not looking, and received a wholly unexpected blessing. were two things Mary Lyon announced, with a twinkle in her eye, the "young ladies" were not to do while at Mount Holyoke: one was break the fire regulations, the other kill themselves. If they insisted upon killing themselves, she continued, then they would better go home and die in the arms of their dear The early school had much mothers. ill health to combat, for the poor health of the women of the late eighteenth century and the early nineteenth century is something appalling as one looks back from the robust womanhood of the present. One physician of the first quarter



THE GYMNASIUM

for the healthiness of body and soul, it contributes to a fuller, purer womanhood as well as manhood. The alumnæ mothers, thinking of the health-giving out-of-door world as well as of other influences, send their children to Mount Holyoke. One mother's greatest sorrow was that she could not send her sons there as well as all her daughters. Undoubtedly, if those boys had come, they would have been met with the hospitality characteristic of the college. Still, it might have been necessary for them to behave rather well. I have heard one boy, now a distinguished elderly gentleman, tell how, while visiting the Seminary, he made a raid upon the cookies in the kitchen when he thought

of the nineteenth century said that not one woman in ten enjoyed complete It was Mary Lyon's aim to health. correct this; and so well did she succeed in making a beginning that if there is anything the matter with nine-tenths of the present college students they do not know it. They are so busy with walking, basket-ball, hockey, snow-shoeing, and skeeing, that they do not spend time in imagining ills they have not. One has to read the psychological tracts of faddists before one is fully aware of the lugubrious, anæmic straits to which, these tracts say, college girls are reduced.

The antidote to this deplorable condition of educated womanhood which the psychologists advocate, critics to the

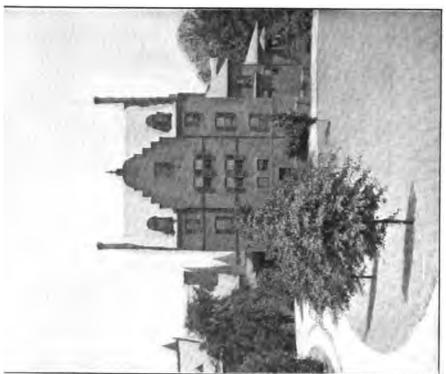
contrary, Holyoke has never possessed. She has never had any teaching or system of domestic science. The founder had most uncommon good sense: she had no notion of relieving mothers and home life of their duties. Mary Lyon wrote: "I have no faith in any of the schemes of manual labor by which it is supposed that girls can support themselves at school. I should expect anything of that kind would become an expense rather than an income." There was in the old days no service to be obtained in South Hadley, and, too, it made the expenses somewhat less for the students to do a little household work. At first seventy minutes for each stuexperience which seems to me now in retrospect even more valuable than a condition. At Holyoke all the heavy work is done by servants; no student is allowed in the kitchen; practically the flourish of duster and pen describes the arc of domestic duties.

"Everything I do is such a privilege!" exclaimed the Founder; and I am certain that the old girls thought the dusting and bedmaking, or "just taking a step from the fourth floor down to the basement," part of an idyllic scheme for their advancement. There was no satiety then to dull the eyes and stuff the minds with a sense of indifference, nor is there now. One old alumna writes that not even the



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dent covered all the work that was required; now an average of less than thirty minutes is sufficient. Although the writer thinks even thirty minutes daily for four years might be more advantageously spent in golf, in skeeing, or at a concert, yet the prescribed domestic work has its advantages. It maintains a level of admirable democracy; it is good for the rich girl; it does no harm to the poor girl who is accustomed to more than is required at college. It creates a certain helpful, unselfish, friendly spirit. Personally, I enjoyed myself immensely as a Freshman at Wellesley during the last year of domestic work at that college, when I sold ink and mucilage on a sliding scale, an side step in calisthenics had proved useless to her; doubtless she has come upon the day of the automobile, and we all know the joys of the "side step" nowadays. Eager is the word that characterized the mind of the Founder, and eager is the word that marks the spirit of the present college. Fifty years before its actual inclusion in the curriculum Mary Lyon was seeking a way to provide Hebrew. Seventy years ago, when there were no standards for the education of women, Mary Lyon set a standard which in its broad purpose is not yet realized. The Founder would have resented indignantly any attempt to limit her mind between the covers of a book, that mind which could master the contents of a



MARY BRIGHAM HALL
A dormitory



WILLISTON HALL One of the science buildings

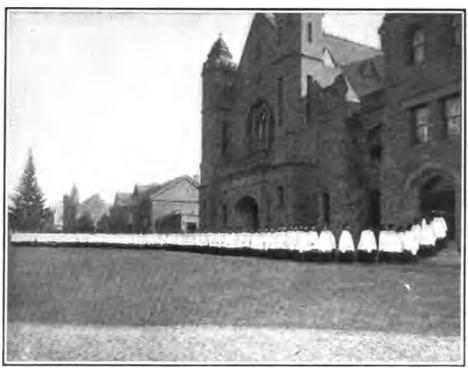
Latin grammar in four days. The textbooks used then and at present are merely adjunctive. In texts obstacles are at a minimum; and at Holyoke obstacles are highly prized, such obstacles as force the "young ladies" to the unhappy necessity of doing their own The lecture system, too, is at thinking. a minimum: I have noticed that as long as the lecturer continues to lecture, and the absorbent heads continue to wag, and the fountain pens continue to spurt, students have a sense of comfortable superiority. The thrust direct is the simple question to the individual student; and such a method is thoroughly hygienic, for it prevents, on the part of the students who are trying to answer, the feeling of an overcrowded brain.

Mary Lyon believed that the Christian spirit is a quickener of mental power. If the beauty of word and beauty of thought in the Bible are any evidence, then, indeed, it must be! Her own English, although marked by some of the cant phrases of the time, was singularly pure, graphic, direct, cadenced. And from laughter to tears she had the power of speech. But what the "Christian spirit" did for Mary Lyon was to make her service as a teacher incorruptible— I do not say faultless; and from her the college has derived an ideal in teaching which has nothing to do with "trade." and which sets no value upon the intellectual adventurer however brilliant, however likely to succeed in climbing the ladder of high place. "Never teach immortal minds for money," said the Founder, and certainly she did not; the average instructor in the College to-day receives five times as much as Mary Lyon did as President. Teaching as a service has been the aim of the College; and from the first Holyoke has had an enviable record in making good teachers of her students, students who have taught the world over with the courage, the self-sacrifice of pioneers, in this country, in Persia, Turkey, South Africa, the Transvaal, in Spain, in the Hawaiian Islands, and in Japan, where they were the first to provide for the higher education of Japanese students. Holyoke has, indeed, been the "Mother of Schools," and, to count only the colleges, there are

five which owe their origin directly to her.

The Connecticut Valley might better be called the Valley of Colleges, for up and down its river are Amherst, Williams, Smith, Trinity, and Yale. Such a segregation makes unusual intellectual opportunities possible in interchange of lecturers, instructors, entertainments. the whole country is a laboratory for observation work, from the monster, whose cacophonous name I have forgotten, who accommodatingly planted his extraordinary feet on the Connecticut Valley river bed, to the spring display of living birds which would make an unprincipled milliner wild with greed. It is, too, not only a valley of colleges, but also a manufacturing valley, which offers unusual laboratories for economic and sociological studies.

The members of the Faculty of the Mount Holyoke of to-day represent a high degree of advanced work; they come from the graduate schools of almost all the universities in this country and from many abroad. Merely the new appointments for the year 1904-1905 include degrees from Barnard, Vassar, University of Chicago, University of Michigan, University of Berlin, University of Paris, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Columbia University, University of Cambridge, England, Wellesley, Bryn Mawr, and Yale University. In 1837 the Faculty was represented by a principal, an associate principal, two teachers, three pupil assistants; in 1896 there were thirty-eight teachers, with seven library and laboratory assistants; in 1905 there were twenty professors of full standing, men and women; nine associates, thirty-five instructors, twelve assistants and readers, and an administrative staff of twenty-four, including the president, registrar, secretaries, and stenographers. Mount Holyoke, together with other colleges, offers a large number of electives; there is a slightly greater demand in required work, the proportion of required studies to electives being somewhat higher than in other colleges of equal standing. There are about thirty-five undergraduate scholarships, and there are four full fellowships for graduate work. Each year senior honors



THE COLLEGE CHOIR

are conferred on two candidates and sophomore honors on four students. In addition to these distinctly academic honors, Mount Holyoke has a Phi Beta Kappa Charter, granted in 1904. Out of six hundred and seventy-four students for the year 1905, twenty students came with advanced standing from other colleges, and in the residence list twenty-five States and three foreign countries were represented.

In the class-room a great deal of individual work is done; the classes and laboratory sections are kept small, so that the work of each student may receive careful attention. Of necessity there are some large lecture divisions, but, on the whole, there is an approach to the tutor system which Princeton is now introducing. From the beginning the students have never been led to think that their acquirement could be or was remarkable; they are taught how to study and shown the wide country before them, and, in their modesty, I think the general tendency is to underestimate what they know. There is

rigid opposition to the modern commercializing of college work, on the one hand, and, on the other, to the all-sufficiency of the extreme intellectualists who think acquirement, per se, the end. Learning as a "trade" is discountenanced, not only by the staff, but also by the administration. Study as a preparation for right living, for life usefulness, the establishment of high ideals, is the aim of the College. Such a purpose could not be maintained were it not for the traditions of Holyoke and the untroubled unity among its present Faculty.

From early days the College has been more than ordinarily well equipped for scientific training, and the students particularly eager, for reasons connected with the special fitness of the staff and their own personnel, for this work. Now the humanities are coming into their own—history, philosophy, literature, art; and this is well in the present day and generation, for three reasons—the character of the times, the personality of the students, and the probable future demands to be made on most of the girls.

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For myself, I believe the idealizing faculty may prove, in the well-ordered life, under some circumstances, an even greater gift than scientific knowledge. Let students once realize that beauty of expression is in a manner essentially practical, and they will put it to use; their houses, where they make homes, will have in them only attractive and useful objects; they will light a cleansing bonfire with all the vulgar rubbish, cheap decoration, which usually goes by the name of furnishings. A book, a picture, interprets history; it fills the mind with memories that remain to uplift, to purify, to strengthen. If ever there was one, the educated American woman of to-day is an individuality; she is practical, self-reliant, capable which is all very well. On the other hand, she has been accused (and justly, I think) of lacking in sympathy, imagination, refinement. And I would suggest that it may be a direct duty in the course of our education to develop sympathy and imagination; for not only will they lead to deeper personal experience, but also to a greater love for country and a finer sense of the universality of men and nations.

I do not know of any students who, in the long run, are more likely to love "the principle of beauty in all things" than those at Holyoke. Their morale is excellent; they have come to college for work, and they work; they are desirous of the best; they have turned as eagerly to the world of letters and art as to their opportunities in science; they are highminded in their studies, upright, trustworthy, courteous. I have never known an appeal to them as gentlewomen, an appeal to their honor, their sense of right, to fail of generous response. Lacking in judgment they may be, as students old as well as young often are, but I have not found them lacking in honesty. The system at Holyoke has always been an "honor" system. Even in the old days, when "discipline" was a more common feature than it is now, Mary Lyon's severest rebuke ended with a gentle, "Now you won't do it again, dear, will you?" It might be written of the majority of students who have gone in and out of Holyoke's doors, Mens sibi conscia

In the early days there was no recti. espionage; students reported upon themselves, poor dears! and thereby, I fear, lost much wicked pleasure which in other places has come to some of us. Mary Lyon had an especial liking for the "lively girls," for, she asserted, if rightly directed they did the best work. However, she watched these "lively girls "carefully, and was heard to remark that some young ladies who were harmless oxygen and nitrogen by themselves, if brought together made nicotine and strychnine. The early influence was against class feeling; the students were considered as a unit. Since then great class feeling, so harmful all over the college world, has arisen. Now Mount Holyoke is swinging back to the old ideal, and the social center of the life is to be a general college society. unity of the undergraduates is shown in the unusual success of their Christian Association work, in the educational extension work the Settlement Chapter is doing in the valley, and in no other way better, I think, than in the Mount Holyoke choir, numbering one hundred and eighty students. An English lady who was asked what had impressed her most in America replied, "The mammoth trees of California and the vested choir of Mount Holyoke College."

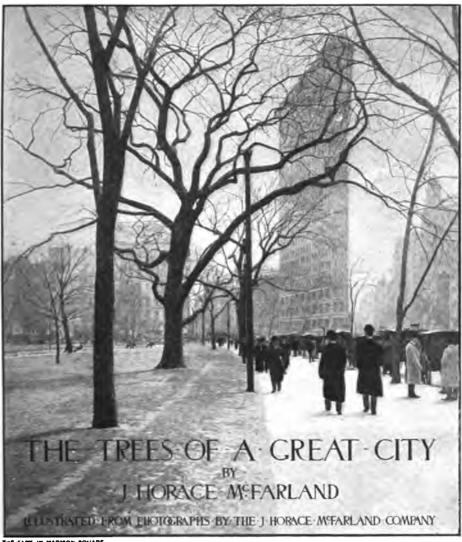
In conclusion, no history is without its mistakes, without features which may well be criticised. If Mount Holvoke was provincial in her early days, it was at least with the best provincialism of idealistic New England, a heritage no more to be despised than the early laws of Athens or the severities of Sparta. she erred, she erred Puritan-wise, in loss of perspective, in failure to distinguish between the minor essentials and the major essentials. Some of the records of the old days show, too, the over-anxiety of the Puritan conscience; it may be that the emphasis nowadays is too much on the value of work regardless of the "still, small voice." Then also it must be said, I think, that the old students were taught to look upon life somewhat as a burden, a cross to be borne. extreme, prevailing in early seminary days, prevailed, too, at Dr. Thomas Arnold's Rugby. Our present life, as something almost wholly joyous and to be made almost wholly beautiful for others as well as for ourselves, is a very modern conception. It is the spiritual evidence of an age in many other respects sordidly commercial.

The best of the old ideals are still intact to-day. The aim of the College is preparation for service, the development of a woman physically, mentally, spiritually. It is upon efficient service rather than upon pleasing accomplishments that the emphasis lies, with the happy result that the faddishness of the higher education for women has scarcely touched Holyoke. Miss Lyon, who said that she thought it exceedingly doubtful whether she should ever see heaven, went on cheerfully preparing the best daughters, sisters, wives, teachers, she could, whose qualities she herself possessed pre-eminently—piety, good health, and a merry heart. In an absolutely nonsectarian spirit she applied the truths of the Bible to every-day life.

Two women have met quietly, nobly, the opposition and indifference attending every considerable movement for betterment—Mary Lyon in human founding the Seminary, Mrs. Elizabeth S. Mead in the shifting from Collegiate Seminary to College in full. President Woolley, coming into the heritage of their work, continuing the traditions of the culture of heart and intellect in which Holyoke was established, is making for the College a high place among modern institutions. In the best sense of the word Mount Holyoke is a public institution dependent upon the public; it was founded by and has been continued in widely distributed public benevolence; it has received several large bequests, but the aggregate of its smaller bequests has been larger. In this day of extraordinary individual endowments we have the spectacle of a college whose strength is not in one purse but in the loyal generosity of a wide public of alumnæ and friends who are aware of their responsibility and who take it up gladly because they feel that Mount Holyoke has unfitted women for just one thing-idle society life.



THE DWIGHT MEMORIAL ART BUILDING



TE ELMS IN MADISON SQUARE

OT long ago, speaking of the destruction in Philadelphia of the great Lippincott Elm, for generations a landmark of the famous "Yellow Mansion" which now gives way to a sky-scraper, the Governor of Pennsylvania said to me, "You know there are no trees permitted to live now in great cities." I had to deny such knowledge on my part, and with gladness, for I knew no great city without its great trees; and the greatest of them all, the greater New York, is notable for its persisting trees along its thronged highways,

as well as for those included within its Bronx boundaries. Even Philadelphia, with its City Hall monstrosity, its splendid people, and its gridiron street system, has left some few fine old trees, and many avenues of lusty young poplars and maples, sycamores and pin-oaks.

The trees of old New York, the old Dutch town, have long fascinated me. Though not a resident of the metropolis, many tendrils of my business life are interwoven with its streets, and I have grown, in passing years of incidental observation, to love it and to believe in it.

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A SWAMP WHITE-OAK FLOURISHING ON ONE HUNDRED AND FORTY-SECOND STREET

City of contrasts it is, with the blood of all races mingling in its arteries of life; yet with all the contrasts of good and evil, misery and happiness, poverty and wealth, ugliness and beauty, the great tendency, I have been forced to believe, is strongly toward the good, the true, and the beautiful. Every year the sky-line, long ridiculed, becomes more nobly beautiful mass; every year more light sifts in among the habitations of the very poor; every year there is more to justify New York as the great gateway to the promised land of the West.

The trees of old New York greet the incoming potential citizen, if he looks to them, right where the city's prow thrusts into its Atlantic waterway. Battery Park has them, young and old, and none with brighter message against the sky than the thrifty white pine which holds its greenery always. All these Battery Park trees, mostly in lively health, are to become greater as the years go over them, for now there is kindly consideration for their needs.

I fancy that not many who are drawn into the Brooklyn Bridge vortex think of the trees they see or pass under as they hurry across City Hall Square. Yet the elms are there, bravely holding their own in this priceless green

spot amid the central activities of lower Manhattan. Their summer garb is grateful to those who pass, and their characteristic branches against an October sky dwarf the buildings beyond. It is on a snowy night in winter, however, quiet enough to keep their limbs from much swinging, that they are most absorbingly interesting, as the long, transparent shadows cross and intermingle on the white covering of the lawns. Every detail of their interlacing structure is cast down before one on the snow, and the lengthening and foreshortening, as source of light is distant or near, but emphasize the tracery of twig and limb. It would seem as if these trees, winter and summer, were knowingly glorying in their position as they hold an oasis in the desert of rush and rumble about them.

Let us take an express train in the Subway, after leaving the trees of City Hall Square, and make our first stop at Fourteenth Street. Union Square, another oasis in the Manhattan-Sahara of buildings, holds trees that seem to belong there most substantially. They dot the park and shade the benches that hold the hopeless ones-for surely those who sit here in summer have mostly read the inscription said to designate the entrance to



ALL THAT IS LEFT OF THE GROUP OF THIRTEEN COMMEMORA-TIVE SOUR-GUM TREES PLANTED BY ALEXANDER HAMILTON

a place not distinguished for arboreal features, even though deeply paved with desires to do well! It is a matter for continual wonder to me that so many waifs, so many who seem to have been unduly buffeted in life's struggle, find it worth while to sit in Union Square. Occasionally one who there holds down a bench is merely tempted by the greenery to sit and read or rest, but I cannot avoid the feeling, if I may judge by their looks, that those mostly rest here who have no places they may call their own in the world. Is it because of these same trees that give Union Square a little of God's forest home-feeling that there is this making of the place a sort of refuge for the homeless?

One of the peculiarities of New York trees is the number of survivals along her streets right at the house line instead of at the curb line. See this sturdy catalpa, for instance, holding its full, heart-shaped leaves over the Fourteenth Street sidewalk, not far from Sixth Avenue. It is well inside the sidewalk's edge, and, with the lusty ailanthus on its left, seems as if it had escaped through the fence which guards one of the remaining precious bits of open space yet remaining in this thronged A little looking will show the observer many such trees, often immediately next the house which protects them, and existing, undoubtedly, by the kindly sufferance of the property-owner. I have acquired a habit, as I flash up and down the elevated roads that cut Manhattan longitudinally, of looking for these fine old survivals on the cross streets, and if I were merely to catalogue them, the number of locations would surprise those who have forgotten that a metropolis may hold and love the few trees that remain to her.

On Twenty-fifth Street, west of Sixth Avenue, I saw a rather comical catalpa survival the other day. Right against a new sky-scraper, not yet occupied, it stands, and in front of the tree there is one of those interesting remainders that distinguish New York. A two-story frame house, probably seventy years old or more, is next neighbor to the new ten-story temple of industry, and this catalpa, evidently planted long years ago

in the back yard of the little house, has grown up and up, seeking for light and air, until it holds an umbrella right over the humble and somewhat ramshackle structure that originally protected it, seeming at the same time to shake its yet vigorous head at its new neighbor on the east with a promise to go right on up and top it as well! A little inquiry proved that the owner of the old house had refused to even name a price to his big neighbor, preferring to live his life out where his home had long been, under his own literal "roof-tree."

The catalpa, by the way, was seemingly a favorite with the New York tree-planters of past generations. These winter days one shakes in the wind its "Indian pipes" of bean-like seed-pods among the elms of Union Square, though I doubt whether many of Manhattan's school-boys ever try to make cigars of the tight little cylinders according to the accepted and familiar fashion of their country cousins.

Follow the line of travel north from Union Square a few blocks, and if the searcher is at all tree-wise he will see the elms of Madison Square as soon as he will the "garden" over which Diana poises, or the "Flatiron" building that holds back the rush of lower Broadway from invading this fourth oasis. The trees of Madison Square are peculiarly fascinating in their leafless condition, when they draw lines of intricate grace across the vast hives for human bees that shut in the little park on four sides. At just the right place along one of the eastern walks the elm branches help the daring architectural attempt of the new Church of the Transfiguration to protest against its towering neighbors.

But it is athwart the Flatiron building in the late afternoons of the leafless months that the Madison Square elms are most impressive. The strong sky of the southwest throws the front of the great building into soft shadows, deeper on the Broadway side. From this same Broadway side of the square—which is in no sense square—the elms, held back by city and climatic conditions from the stately stature of their kind in New England, throw wonderful black lines across the building and the sky, marking the

real dignity of the much-abused structure. There are a dozen other vantagepoints under and near these trees from which the distant view of the great building is made more beautiful, while the value of the tree in its countering of the architect's ideals is enforced upon the thoughtful observer.

To bring to mind what an influence

Too bad it is that Madison Square should furnish one of the few places in all Manhattan where wires have been allowed to cause tree mutilation! If the Manhattanese who reads will, on opportunity, look from the south center of the square toward West Twenty-third Street, he will be outraged to see that for but two electric light wires a great elm has



AN OLD CATALPA ON FOURTEENTH STREET NEAR SIXTH AVENUE

these oases have on the rapidly improving and maturing architecture of the great metropolis, stand in Madison Square about the center, and, facing successively each compass direction, imagine the trees all gone, and the open place purely open, without the grace of branch or the shade of leaf, with the Flatiron shouting against the Garden building, and the opposite corners as noisily striking the eye in hard contrast!

been sadly mutilated. A few dollars have been saved in underground conduit cost, to the lasting shame of the park authorities, who have permitted a wrong they cannot repair.

A strong contrast to the elm lines that grace most of the tree survivals of Manhattan is presented in the sturdy sycamore which holds place on the sidewalk at the northwest corner of Gramercy Park. Other good trees there are also



THE ELMS IN STUYVESANT SQUARE

The children love to sit and play under the trees in early spring

in this rest spot off the hurried line of heaviest traffic, but none more picturesque than this upright-limbed "button-ball," that gives all who observe an occasion to see the remarkably diverse ways in which nature garbs the woody stems of the trees. The close-knit bark of the pervading elm is a sort of dress-suit, in contrast to the loose plates of the sycamore's skin, dropping off so easily at the right time, and showing well the underlying light-colored new suit of working clothes.

I think it is an English elm that towers over and graces the picturesque "Little Church Around the Corner" in Twenty-ninth Street. It aids, too, in giving to this notable and hospitable church the feeling of broad inclusiveness which every one who passes through the curious covered gateway must, it seems to me, at once receive. Just this little spot of green grass, with its few but most important trees, succeeds in setting out this church visually to a wanderer, who knows nothing of its history and habits,

as a true "city of refuge." When I first chanced on it, turning in weariness out of Fifth Avenue's afternoon parade of the uncomfortably rich, I did not know what the church was. I was drawn by it, however, to pass the gates and wander in sudden peace for a few moments, the stress of the day gone; and for me the whole setting of the church was made lovely and restful by these fine trees, worth infinitely more to my spirit than the stateliest of the great structures that lift spires to heaven.

It may be remarked that I speak of and show principally bare trees, without the foliage that makes them so grateful in the summer sunshine. I admit that, while the green leaves are pleasant and restful and cooling, it is the twig and branch structure of the city tree that interests me to the point of fascination. What I have written as to the grace added to great architecture by proximate leafless trees is only one of the good reasons for this fondness. Another is indefinable, but others feel it unconsciously,

else why is every seat taken in Stuyvesant Square on a spring day, long before there is the least thought of greenery from the trees above or the grass beneath? The boys must keep hands in pockets against the chill air; yet here they are, and the girls, too—not in the street, where the sun shines as warmly as in the little park, but under the bare trees. Somehow, in some way, the elm branches call to the children, and they come!

I must tell of what these trees of Stuyvesant Square, and the open spot they stand in, did for two friends who came from a forest-girdled university town into the noise of Gotham. Both of them ardent nature-lovers, and both having used their love to aid in getting

knowledge of trees, when it came into their lives that their family altar must be transferred to New York if the man of the pair was to grasp the vanishing heel of opportunity, there was deep dread. Only thoughts of the Brooklyn Bridge and of the roar of Broadway came to them, and it was in all seriousness that they took my solemn assurance that trees were actually known to exist in Manhattan, and that grass grew and wild flowers bloomed within less than an hour's ride of City Hall Square! When I could also convince them by insistence that all New Yorkers were not bunco-steerers, that warm red blood did beat in many hearts carried along by corporeal bodies bearing hands to be honestly shaken in friend-



A LUSTY WHITE PINE IN BATTERY PARK

ship, and that they would find the city life less complicated than they anticipated, they came. A kind providencenothing less !--manifested through a scanty exchequer, directed them to an apartment all too high as to steps sans elevatorial alleviation, but facing on Stuyvesant Square. Here they found a tree-scape to soothe their eyes and cleaner breath for their lungs, and they took to the life with joyful success. In the course of time the pair heard the voice of their baby daughter first in sight of these trees, and although they have now joined the noble army of Jersey commuters, these elms of Stuyvesant Square were the salvation of them in their induction into city life.

The conditions of the great city are not, I must admit, especially favorable to tree life. Those individuals that survive show both hardiness and adaptability. and they ought to be-and for the most part are—esteemed most highly in consequence. The ailanthus, of which only the blooming form is unpleasantly odorous for a short season, does endure the hardness of city life, and supplies a great arborescent canopy where it can find foothold. On Forty-third Street near Tenth Avenue the monotonous house line is broken beautifully by a close-set row of these trees just inside the fence that skirts the sidewalk. Such trees make one most reverent to the memory of Mayor Grant, whose ax at the bases of the electric poles of his day has left these streets of the city free for trees. If poles were permitted, these "trees of heaven," as the ailanthus is somewhat pretentiously called, would inevitably be shorn of their glory.

A jump of almost a hundred blocks in this mere hint of the trees that may be found in New York brings us, in One Hundred and Forty-second Street near Amsterdam Avenue, to what is perhaps the most remarkable tree of all in the city. Usually we expect to find the swamp white-oak in a moist locality, under forest conditions. It is not ordinarily planted as a shade tree on city streets, wherefore it is with both delight and surprise that this really striking specimen is discovered. Other trees are in sight, but the swamp white-oak is

easily the monarch of them all, standing as it does in the conventional position just inside the curb, and reaching well upward along the lofty apartment-house which it fronts. Upper New York is fortunate in this tree. If it just happened, as a survival of the forest, to stand where a sidewalk curb was to come, its situation was most fortuitous; and if it has been lovingly planted by some one who had the forest thought in his heart, I wish him always green leaves to shade him, even on the golden streets!

Not very far from the swamp whiteoak, at One Hundred and Forty-fifth Street, there exists—barely exists—a melancholy group of trees to remind us of man's forgetfulness and carelessness. Though close to a church which might well have cared for them, these poor old sour-gum trees are dying of abuse and neglect, the signboards attached pointing one ignoble use to which they are subjected. Yet these are the survivors of a group of thirteen sour-gums planted by Alexander Hamilton in commemoration of the thirteen colonies that joined to throw off the yoke of England! Doubtless the great statesman selected the gum because it is both longlived and tough; but he could not provide against the neglect of posterity. Tradition has it, without adequate foundation, however, that when the war of 1861 broke out, the trees intended to represent the seceding States were cut down. Better that all should have been cut down than that these survivors should be left to show neglect and to bear the ignominy of advertising signs!

In Central Park, as in the Bronx Park. there are many and magnificent trees, and of many kinds. Of these I do not speak at all, for they are not characteristic of the street conditions to which I want to draw attention. The hundreds of trees throughout Manhattan's busy thoroughfares may well be made the point of walks and of interesting investigation by those who have opportunities denied to me, who must take my New York in very small portions. If this interest is aroused, these surviving trees will become objects of even greater care and attention, and their useful lives will be greatly prolonged.

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IN CITY HALL SQUARE
Trees amid the rush at the Bridge entrance



THREE RECIPIENTS OF THE NOBEL PEACE PRIZE
Frederick Passy, President of the French Peace Society: Baroness von Suttner, President
of the Austrian Peace Society; and Eli Ducommon, President of the Peace Bureau at
Berne. The photograph was taken at the Lucerne Peace Congress of 1905.

THE BARONESS VON SUTTNER

BY HAYNE DAVIS

Parliament is compelled every year to scan the world's sky of peace workers for that particular star which has shed the brightest light upon the night of our war era, in order to award justly the peace prize of \$40,000 provided by the will of Alfred Nobel, the Swede.

The first year it went to that venerable and wonderful representative of France, Frederick Passy, who, with William Randal Cremer, of England, organized the Interparliamentary Union. Last year it went to Mr. Cremer. This year, when the Norwegians saw the light of Baroness Suttner's incessant activity for the world's peace, they ceased from their labors and awarded it to her. It was she who inspired Alfred Nobel to make this remarkable bequest, and Frederick Passy has called her the General-in-Chief of the World's Peace Army.

No award of this prize has given more delight to those who know what Baron-

ess Suttner has done and endured. Inspiring Mr. Nobel to make this bequest was in itself a great service to the cause, and yet it was small when compared to what she has done by her own actions. For nearly twenty years she has never ceased to cry out in passionate appeals for peace, and in a world where women are not accorded that welcome on the stage of public effort which greets them in America. Her voice has gone into the depths of many hearts in many lands, and the response which it awoke has greatly increased the world-wide and world-old desire for peace. "Lay Down Your Arms" is the English title of her most widely read work. It has been translated into all the principal languages and has touched a vast audience. When I saw her at Vienna, in October, she was just starting into Germany, in continuation of her habit, on an extended tour to speak for peace.

She told me that many people had

declared to her that America was abandoned to pursuit of material wealth and power, and, as many published things made our sky look dark when viewed from Europe, she could not know what to believe of us, but that two weeks after

America supporting her of which she was before unconscious, and which she now knows will insure the final victory for peace.

It was at the fourteenth International Peace Congress at Lucerne that I first



BARONESS BERTHA VON SUTTNER

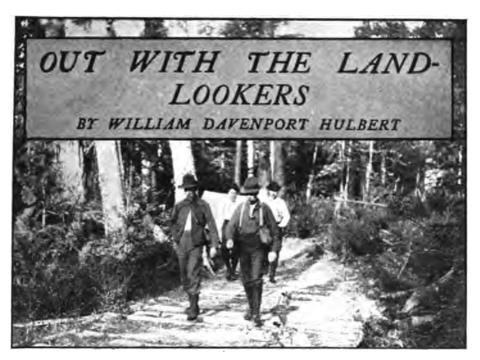
she set foot on American soil and felt the spirit of our people she knew that in America is the hope of mankind. She expressed great gladness for her power to judge justly of this matter, and said that now she could carry on her campaign conscious of a great army in had the pleasure of meeting her. The session was over; the clouds hung heavily over the Alps. I found Baroness Suttner somewhat depressed with the partings and with the inevitable suggestions which come after every forward move, and which attempt to rob us of

our well-earned victory. She had heard, but only in a vague way, of the Brussels session of the Interparliamentary Union, for European papers are not American papers. When it was clearly developed to her how a delegation from the United States Congress, headed by the Hon. Richard Bartholdt, had proposed to delegations from eighteen other national Parliaments the creation of an International Congress, so as to provide a system of law for the conduct of international intercourse, how Count Albert Apponyi had declared in the Conference that this grand idea would knock at the world's official doors till it was admitted, how it had been accepted in principle by the Conference, and a commission, composed of seven eminent members of Parliament, appointed to work out the details for its practical realization, and how one hundred and twenty-five audiences, aggregating one hundred thousand people, on motion of Captain Hobson, had enthusiastically indorsed this idea between January and August, 1905, and how the great Mohonk Conference had cabled its approval and an expression of gratitude to Mr. Bartholdt, she looked long and silently at the colorless clouds hovering over Lake Lucerne. Mr. Felix Moscheles, of London, the eminent artist, was in the company, and he broke the silence by asking, "What are you seeing?" The Baroness replied, "The clouds which this light from America makes radiant."

For many years she had held stead-fastly to the premonition that somehow and in some way peace must come. The night was never dark enough to extinguish her hope, nor the discouragements heavy enough to stop her labors. Now the way was made plain, and powerful allies were revealed across the ocean, in the land to which she had begun to look for light and strength. She told me afterwards, at Vienna, that this had begun a new era for her, the light now shining on the path ahead, and with the goal in sight.

She has been long among those who are not responsive to her thoughts and purposes. At the very outset she had to go against the current of opinion. Austria is one of those States which are

still vainly endeavoring to limit nobility and power to the privileged few. When the heir to the throne was seized, five years ago, with love for a remarkable Countess, whose family has been illustrious for centuries, it created consternation at Court. For a Countess is not royal, only noble. It was finally agreed, however, that he might marry her, provided he would renounce forever all claim to the throne for his children: and he solemnly made this renunciation in the presence of a great company of important persons—for instance, the Emperor, the Ministers of State, the high dignitaries of the Roman Church, who sanction the idea of the divine right of kings. The account of this scene in the papers sounded like an echo from some far-away sepulcher instead of a twentieth-century fact. Well, Baroness Suttner had to go through a similar ordeal. Simple Americans are apt to suppose that a baron is somebody. he is when a count is not present. Now all the Austrian counts seemed to the Countess Bertha von Kinsky of small worth compared to Baron von Suttner. And consequently she broke all court considerations, abandoned her place and position and people, and ran away even from her nation to marry the man who seemed to her a man indeed. dured many hardships in consequence, besides the loss of comfort and position. The timely acceptance of articles by a magazine helped to make a dinner of herbs, where love was, better than a banquet in gilded halls without it. But times change even in Austria. life of noble effort finds Baroness Suttner again in her place at the Austrian Court. A prince can be Vice-President of a Peace Society of which she is President. Austrian members of the Hague Court, Ministers of State, Admirals of the navy, Chancellors of the universities, Ambassadors from other lands, now feel honored to attend her when her doors are opened. Who in America can fail to rejoice in the triumph of Baroness Suttner, because she is a woman, because she has worked so wisely and well in a cause which Americans are now determined to push to final victory, and at no distant day?



"ERE'S Dan's bean-pot. Wonder if we ought to take it. He kicks on any other way of cooking beans. Guess we'd better put it in."

"Here's some boot-grease. Guess we won't take that. Use tallow."

"Here are three lunch-bags. You've got one, haven't you?"

"Yes."

"I've got three compasses. Here's another. Do we want it?"

"No. I can take two or three, and those fellows will have some."

"Here's two late magazines."

" Put them in."

"The canteens will be a good rig."

"Are you going to wear a sweater—or a mackinaw?"

"No—not this time of year. Coat and vest and a cotton shirt."

"Here's something we'll want—fly dope."

We would indeed, for, alas! it was June—fly time—probably the one month of the year that the land-looker most dreads. The timber dealers would have preferred to put off the trip till later in the summer, but the option ran out in

three weeks, and there was no time to be lost.

"How many axes will we want?"

"I think we'll want all the axes we can scare up."

"Well, here's a half-ax, and a quarter, and a hatchet, and here's the big one. Let's touch them up a little, hey?"

" All right."

The grindstone was brought out from a dark corner and they took turns at the handle, each man holding his own ax while the other kept the stone a-whirling. The timber dealers were getting ready to go into the woods to look fifteen or twenty thousand acres of land, and as a first step they were overhauling their outfit and deciding what they should take and what they should not. The long, deep shelves built against the basement wall were piled high with everything one could use in camping, from erbswurst and evaporated potatoes to folding stoves, wool-lined moccasins, canvas pack-sacks, and red bandannas.

"Let's count up the blankets," said one, when the axes were finished.

The blankets were taken down from one end of the shelves and counted.

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THE LAND-LOOKER WRITING UP HIS NOTES

"Fourteen pair. We ought to have fifteen. I'll get another this afternoon."

"Here's the seven by nine"—pulling out a handsome little wall tent made of waterproofed balloon silk. "We may not need it, but we'll take it along."

"And here's the nine and a quarter by fourteen"—producing a larger one made of heavier material, also waterproofed. "We'll use it for a sleepingtent. And here's the nine by twelve. We'll use that for a cook-tent, but it'll have to have a fly. It's one of those cheap canvas tents, and it leaks."

"Here's the housewife," and the younger man picked up a self-sealing tin can and rattled it to see how full it was. From the sounds it gave forth one would have said that it might perhaps contain needles, nails, spools of thread, buttons, and possibly a few small tools.

"Seems to be pretty full," he said. "Guess there's everything there that we'll need," and he tossed it over on to the pile of blankets.

"Got a whetstone?"

"Yes."

"Here's fifteen plates."

"Ten cups, and four dish-ups."

"Two fry-pans."

" Four bread-pans."

"Here's a nutmeg grater. Shall we take it along?"

"Yes."

"How are we going to pack that stove?"

"Might roll it up in the canvas tent."

"That's a good stunt."

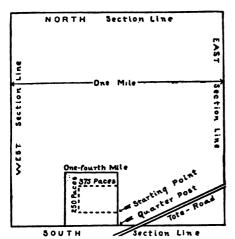
And so it went on. The provisions had already been shipped by freight, direct from the grocer's, and we found them waiting for us the next morning, when we alighted from a railway train at a small station in the northern Michigan woods: The packs containing the blankets, tents, and equipment were unloaded from the baggage-car, and within an hour we had hired a team, piled our stuff into the wagon, and struck out northward across the corduroy.

Besides myself (a non-combatant) there were eight men in the party—the two timber dealers, one of whom was to act as a land-looker, while the other had a general oversight of the work, two other land-lookers, three line-runners, and Daniel Webster, the French cook. The timber dealers were both young men, one of them in his early thirties and the other half a dozen years his junior. Both were men of some education and knowledge of the world, but both, also, knew the life of the woods by practical experience of all its phases. Marsh, meadow, hill — hardwood, cedar swamp, and pine grove-in summer and in winter-by snowshoe and canoe—from the lumber camp, the hunter's shack, and the land-looker's tent—they had seen it all and knew it all by heart. The other two landlookers were cruisers by profession, following a calling which, while it may not require much book-learning, exacts good judgment, a clear head, and a power of keen observation. They were older men than the timber dealers, one of them probably in his fifties and the other in his for-Of the three line-runners. two were woodsmen—father and son—and the third was a college boy out on his vacation. All three were skilled in the art of running by compass and measuring distances by pacing. As to Daniel Webster, he was somewhat of a mystery. How a Frenchman ever came to be possessed of blue eyes, a light brown mustache, and such a name is quite inexplicable; but that Dan was French, or had French blood, any one who had ever heard him talk or eaten one of his meals would have to admit. His accent was pronounced,



THE CAMP

and his cooking would have "The tents stood in the road with tall trees towering above them" been creditable to an experienced *chef*. been in the habit of taking a French The timber dealers had not always cook with them when they went into the



THE LAND-LOOKER'S FIELD OF ACTION
The large square represents a section and the small one
a forty. The dotted line shows the line-runner's course

woods to look lands. Neither had they always gone with several hundred pounds of provisions, a team of horses to haul their stuff, and half a dozen men as their Many and many a time they had started into the woods with no company but each other; and each of them knew what it was to camp out with only a dog for a companion, or with no companion at all, and with only such outfit as he could carry on his back. their father, when he went land-looking in those same woods thirty years before, had often bivouacked in the snow, in the coldest weather of a Lake Superior winter, without even a tent between him and the stars, but with only a little square of cotton cloth stretched on sticks at the head of his bed to break the wind.

But on this trip the circumstances were rather unusual. The tract of land which they were to look over, though by no means the largest that they had handled, was larger than the average, and quite large enough to justify them in taking a crew. Moreover, the railway ran within fifteen or twenty miles of it, and there were wagon roads the rest of the way. So there seemed to be no good reason why we should not have things comfortable.

The laurel was in bloom along the corduroy as we crossed a mile-wide swamp, and here and there, where a little brook meandered through the meadow or among the tamaracks, there was a

bright belt of gay marsh-marigolds. Then, after a time, we left the lowland behind and climbed up into the beech and maple woods, still following the old stage road that leads to the south shore of Lake Superior. Once in a while we saw a pine-tree, but not very often. The lumbermen had been busy in these woods for many years, and there was little pine left. It was hardwood and hemlock that we were looking for. Eight or ten miles from the railway we turned sharply to the left and followed an old tote-road till it dropped down into the cedar swamp again, and there, on a little sandy ridge that rose two or three feet above the level of the low, wet ground around it, we stopped the team and unloaded the wagon of its boxes and packs and bundles. We were a little off the edge of our tract, but the ridge was dry and made a pleasant and convenient campingground, and, most important of all, there was a spring of good water only a few rods distant.

The wagon was backed out of the way, and all hands set to work. Some unfolded the tents and spread them out on the ground, some cut poles and pegs, one man unpacked the stove and drew out the telescoping stovepipe, and Daniel Webster opened the boxes of groceries. It was already noon, and time for lunch-But now Dan made an unpleasant discovery. By some mistake the box containing the bread had been left behind. Dan had other resources, however. The cook-tent was pitched as quickly as possible, and the little sheet-iron box stove set up, with its oven on top and its slender pipe reaching up through a hole in a sheet of tin sewed into the canvas roof, and Dan got out a package of cornmeal and mixed up some johnny-cake. While we were waiting for it to bake, some one unearthed from one of the boxes a long piece of toweling and a cake of soap, and we all went down to the spring for a wash. And presently luncheon was announced-hot cornbread and butter, canned meat, and cheese. Later the other tent was set up. the sape was cut and laid for the beds, and two land-lookers and two line-runners paid a visit to a deserted lumber camp half a mile or more away and came back

with some boards. with which they made a table along one side of the cooktent. Then a bench was manufactured -just a five-inch log laid in the crotches of three heavy forked stakes driven deep into the ground in front of the table. And finally great square of cheesecloth was sewed over the front of the sleeping-tent to keep out the mosquitoes, and was

temporarily looped up with a piece of blue tape taken from the wrappings of a slab of bacon.

"Looks like a wedding dress," said Daniel Webster.

The camp was complete. The two big tents stood squarely in the road, filling it from side to side, and on either



DANIEL WEBSTER AND HIS COOK-STOVE

hand the tall trees kept guard above them.

Meanwhile one of the timber dealers had been preparing plats, one for each land-looker, showing the sections and fractions of sections that he was to look, and now he passed them around.

"Well," said the senior land-looker, when he had carefully examined his, "I think I'll take a little walk and see if I can find the

quarter-post, and be ready to go to work in the morning."

So off he went in his broad-brimmed felt hat, his striped cotton shirt, with the rolling collar and four-in-hand tie, his old vest unbuttoned and hanging loose from his shoulders, and his stout, heavy trousers folded into the high, laced foot-



SETTING UP THE COOK-TENT

gear known in the woods as "cruisers." He was a fine figure of a woodsman. A hundred rods back the road had crossed a section line, and here he stopped to examine the blaze. It was not the original blaze made by the Government surveyors fifty years before. Some one had "renewed" it, and on the broad, flat surface hewed on the side of the tree had written, "140 Paces West to S 1/4 Post."

"It wasn't much of a woodsman that did that," remarked one of the line-runners, who had come along to see what was doing.

"Why not?" I asked.

"He ought to have made the onefourth come before the S," replied the line-runner. "He's got it 'section-quarter,' instead of 'quarter-section.'"

But it told its story, whether it was in strictly proper form or not, and the land-looker had already taken his compass from his pocket and started off through the woods toward the west, walking with a regular, machine-like gait, and methodically counting his paces. The line-runner and I followed, and now and then, as we went, we caught sight of blazes on the trees, some very old and almost hidden by the later growth of wood and bark, and some comparatively new and fresh.

"A hundred and forty steps," said the land-looker, and he stopped and looked about him. Close by stood an old beech, leaning far over to one side, and only kept from falling by the sturdy embrace of a good-sized maple. On the under side of its trunk was a slight mark, all that was left of what had once, half a century before, been a long, broad blaze, with letters and figures cut into the wood.

"Here we are."

It was not the quarter-post itself—the cedar stake which the Government surveyors had set in the ground to mark the middle of one side of a section—for that had rotted away long before; but it was one of the two "witness-trees," one on each side of the line, which they had chosen to bear witness to the post's position, and on which they had left their mark. It was enough. We went back to camp, and after supper—bacon and

eggs, boiled potatoes, graham gems. cheese, pickles, a bottle of strawberry jam, and tea—we sat around a big fire and the land-looker discoursed of the difficulties he had sometimes experienced in "getting located"—finding a corner or quarter-post from which to work. Once it had taken him two days, and when he finally got hold of a corner four miles away and worked back from it, he found that the quarter-post he wanted had stood within a few feet of the spot he had started from. But not a sign of either the post or its witness-trees was left. A forest fire had passed that way, and everything had been swept clean. On another occasion, after a long and fruitless search, he had worked back from a distant corner and found the stumps of the needed witness-trees under a big pile of brush. But to-day's problem was dead easy. In fact, the whole piece of work that lay before us promised to be an unusually pleasant one of its kind—that is, as far as the work itself was concerned. Being mostly hardwood country, the tract would probably afford good walking-dry, firm, and free from excessive undergrowth—which makes a wonderful difference in the ease and comfort with which the land-looker does his work. Also, being hardwood, its growth was more open than that of most evergreens, and one could therefore see much farther through it. One thing, however, it lacked—there was not much water; and a man gets pretty thirsty in the course of a long day's work in the woods.

"It's the driest country you ever saw," the timber dealer said. "That's why we brought the canteens. We've got some oranges, too. There's nothing like an orange to help a dry lunch down."

And something else it had, just now, in too great abundance. We had all been gesticulating occasionally, with more or less impatience, as we sat there by the fire, and presently the junior timber dealer struck himself a resounding dap on the side of his face.

"Shouldn't think you'd let a little thing like a mosquito bother you," said his senior, with pleasant sarcasm.

"I don't," said the junior, calmly. "I'm bothering the mosquito."



A BUNCH OF PULP-WOOD



CUTTING FIRE-WOOD

Just then the senior line-runner spoke up, apostrophizing some being invisible to the rest of us. "Go 'way, now," he said. "You'll get hurt. Go 'way out of here. You won't, hey? Well, then, stay!" and he made a quick grab at something in the air.

"Look, now," he said, as he opened his hand. "He's small. He ain't got his growth yet."

"They're just beginning," said the senior land-looker. "They're late this year. But wait till we get one or two good hot days. Then we'll catch it."

And I may say right here that a few days later we did catch it, with a vengeance, and that the fly dope was copiously used.

The talk turned to wild animals, and one of the timber dealers told how he had one night lain awake and listened to several creatures prowling noisily around his tent. They had stayed for some time, picking up scraps of food,

he judged, and occasionally brushing against the tent-ropes and even against the canvas, but he had no reason to suppose that they were anything more than porkies, and he did not get up. The next morning he found the snow about the tent all trodden down with—bear tracks!

"You were just as safe in that tent as you would have been in a house," said the senior land-looker; and the timber dealer agreed with him.

Some one asked the land-looker if he had ever seen a wolf, and he said he had not, though he had often heard them, and he knew that there were plenty of them in these very woods. Most of the other woodsmen in the party had had the same experience. They had heard them howling, many a time, and the timber dealer had once been followed for several hours by a lone wolf who lifted up his voice at frequent intervals, but who was very careful not to show himself. Nobody present had ever really seen one, and apparently nobody really expected to. They were all agreed that a wolf was about the hardest animal in the woods to lay eyes upon; and, by the way, there were no firearms of any kind in our entire outfit. One does not carry a gun for the sake of sport when looking a dozen forties of land a day. It is too heavy, and it is as much as one wants to do to tote one's self. And as for danger, there are other things in the woods that are much more to be feared than wild animals—dead branches falling from the tree-tops on windy days, holes between roots, into which you may step and sprain your ankle or break your leg, a stray bullet from a hunter's rifle, or the stroke of a glancing ax. The timber dealer told how he had once stubbed his toe upon a steel bear-trap hidden under a light fall of snow; and how, when camping beside the Tahquamenon River, two or three years before, he had cut an ugly gash in his leg, and had wakened in the night to find that the wound had opened and was bleeding so rapidly that the blood had already soaked clear through his blankets. If he had slept a little longer, he might not have wakened at all. No, there was not much danger from wild animals.

The conversation drifted from one

subject to another, while the darkness deepened, the stars came out in the quiet sky, and the mosquitoes gradually disappeared, driven to cover by the chill of the night air.

The college boy was composing a poem in several stanzas in honor of a pretty girl he had seen at the railway station, and presently he sang it to us, to the air of "Maryland, my Maryland."

"Emmeline, O Emmeline!
She uses glyco-thymoline,
And kerosene, and gasoline,
And that's what makes her teeth so clean."

"It's a healthy life," the timber dealer was saying to the senior land-looker. "I know a good many timber-cruisers that are getting pretty well along in years, and they're all strong, healthy, young-looking men."

"That's so," agreed the land-looker.

"There's old man M——. He must be past seventy now, but I met him the other day out in the woods taking a twenty-mile walk, and he was stepping off as brisk as if he was his own grandson."

The fire died down, the air grew colder, and one after another we slipped away in the big sleeping-tent while it was still early evening. At five the next morning Daniel Webster's alarm clock went off, at six we sat down to breakfast, and half an hour later we were ready to start out for the day's work. The senior land-looker and his line-runner went to the quarter-post that they had located the day before, and from there the line-runner took the lead and the land-looker followed. They had the solid section to look—a forty at a time. Now a forty, which contains forty acres and is otherwise known as a quarter-quarter-section, is a quarter of a mile square. There are sixteen of them in a section, and the way the first one was looked was a fair sample of the rest. From the old witness-tree the line-runner ran—that is. paced-one hundred and twenty-five paces north, toward the center of the section. This carried him one-fourth of the way along the eastern edge of the forty, and gave him his real startingpoint. Then he turned at right angles and ran three hundred and seventy-five paces west, which carried him three-



MARKING UP A SECTION LINE

fourths of the way across the forty, at a distance of approximately three hundred and thirty feet from the section line which bounded it on its southern side. Then he turned north again, two hundred and fifty paces; and finally he faced due east and ran back three hundred and seventy-five paces to the edge of the forty from which he had started. he had walked around three sides of the forty at a distance of three hundred and thirty feet from each of them. As the distance between his westward and eastward paths was only six hundred and sixty feet, he had passed within three hundred and thirty feet of every square inch of the forty. In taking this threesided walk he had been guided only by his compass and had measured distances only by pacing, but so skilled was he in his work that in the whole distance he did not vary more than a few feet from his course.

The land-looker, meanwhile, had fol-

lowed close behind him, noting carefully the timber on either hand, and by the time they had finished he had a very close estimate of the amounts of lumber of different kinds that could be manufactured from the timber on the forty. Twenty thousand feet of beech, forty-five thousand feet of maple, fifty thousand of hemlock, seventeen thousand of birch, and one lone pine-tree. The next forty had a corner running down into the swamp, and there he found a quan-

they finished the section and did nearly half of another.

One of the other two land-lookers had a somewhat different method. Instead of following a three-sided course around a forty, he took a strip twenty-five paces wide clear across one side of it, counted the trees, and made a very careful estimate of their contents. Then he took a similar strip crossing the forty at right angles to the first one, added the figures for the two, and multiplied the result by



THE "RENEWED" BLAZE

tity of cedar ties and posts and a handful of telegraph poles, besides some fifty cords of spruce and balsam pulp-wood. The third was all hardwood, and ranheavily to birch—a valuable forty. The fourth was largely hemlock; and thus it went on through one forty after another.

The land-looker kept careful records in his note-book of everything he found, and at night, after returning to camp, he copied his figures on estimate-blanks which the timber dealer provided. He and the line-runner ran over twelve forties that day, and the day following ten. His estimate on that part of the forty which he actually traversed was probably a little more accurate than the first man's, for he passed closer to each tree, but a larger portion of the forty was untouched and was merely guessed at from the contents of the two strips.

Once we were fairly started, it was rather monotonous work. Each day ten or twelve forties looked by each land-looker, with so many thousand feet of hardwood reported, so many thousand of hemlock, so many ties, so many posts and poles, so many cords of pulp-wood, and now and then a little bunch of pine.

By the end of a week we had looked all that part of the tract that lay within a radius of two or three miles from the camp. Then one morning the wagon came for us, and we struck our tents, and in the afternoon pitched them again away over on the other side of the tract. The next day I started for home, and I had not been away five hours when the monotony was broken by an incident the like of which not one of those landlookers, line-runners, and timber dealers had ever before experienced—something which was almost as unexpected as the sight of an elephant or a man-eating tiger in the Great Tahquamenon Swamp would be-yet which may possibly happen again to any of them at almost any time.

The senior land-looker and his linerunner had separated for a few minutes, and in following up a section line the land-looker stepped up on to a fallen tree and from thence to the top of a brush-pile, looked down over the farther side, and saw, only a rod or two away, a group of eight wolves, all watching him with an air that was both interested and interesting. Why they did not run at the sight of a man, as well-regulated wolves ought to do, he does not know; but he thinks he heard a slight noise in the underbrush at a little distance, and he

has a theory that some young ones were getting out of harm's way and that the older animals were covering their re-However that may be, the wolves stood their ground until he shouted at At that they started off, but almost immediately they turned back and looked at him again. Then the largest three advanced a few feet toward the brush-pile, growling and snarling as they came, their teeth showing and the hair bristling along their backs, and in another moment the whole pack was making for The land-looker went up a tree faster than he had ever climbed before in all his life, and sat there on a limb, shouting to his line-runner at the top of his voice. The line-runner shouted in reply, and advanced slowly and with caution, and in a few minutes the wolves, perceiving that the enemy was about to be reinforced, and that the cubs were by this time out of danger-if indeed there were any cubs at all—left for parts unknown. The land-looker came down from his perch, and he and the linerunner resumed their work as if nothing had happened; but he will have a story to tell for the rest of his days—such a story as very few land-lookers can boast. Will he take a gun, I wonder, the next time he goes into the woods? I don't believe he will.



AMONG THE INSCRUTABLE INEVITABILITIES

BY ELIZABETH McCRACKEN

HRISTINE slowly glanced over the pages of the manuscript which her business manager had a moment earlier returned to her.

"It's in only three acts," she said, looking protestingly at the manager; "and there is no change of scene. I should need only one set of scenery "she again considered the manuscript— "'A garden;' a garden needn't cost very much." Christine paused, but the manager did not speak, and she continued: "And I should have to have only one dress; the whole action of the play takes place in one afternoon." The manager still was silent, and the actress added, "You see, there will be very little risk in producing it—though I should be willing to take a great deal of risk for Mary Gregory; she is my best friend."

"But," objected the manager, "she can't write a play."

He took the manuscript from Christine, and stared at it in perplexity. "She must have modeled it on the Greeks," he said; "it positively clings to the unities."

Christine smiled. "That's probably what she did—she is one of the lecturers out at the woman's college; she lectures on the Greek drama."

"H'm," murmured the manager; "the last person in the world who could write an actable play." He looked keenly at the meditative face of the actress. "Can't you see how hopelessly unactable it is?" he asked; "can't you see that it wouldn't run one night?"

"Yes," Christine reluctantly admitted, "I can, of course."

"Then why will you insist upon wasting your time and money by putting it on?" demanded the manager.

"Why," said Christine, "it's Mary's; she's my friend, and I'm hers—and she wants me to play it."

"Naturally," observed the manager, but I must say you reason about it

more like a boarding-school girl than a famous star, and a level-headed actress-manageress, at that."

Christine laughed. "Do I?" she said. "Well, we were boarding-school girls together, before I became famous and level-headed. She was good to me even then; I imposed on her dreadfully," she continued reminiscently, "but she always stood by me anyway—in everything, no matter what."

"That's no reason why you should produce her play," put in the manager. "And afterward," continued the ac-

"And afterward," continued the actress, as though she had not heard, "she was always more equal to my emergencies than I was myself. She stayed in the city one hot, hot summer when I was ill, and nursed me."

"Charming," commented the manager ironically, "but out of date. A trained nurse would have been less picturesque, no doubt, but just as effectual, I should say."

The actress looked at him. "I couldn't afford trained nurses then," she said simply; "it was before I was a famous star."

"But I still don't see why you should produce her play," the manager said, after a short silence.

"Don't you?" asked the star, with a faint smile. "I do."

"If it falls flat—and it will; I assure you it will—she will blame you. They are all like that, playwrights," remarked the manager.

Again Christine smiled. "Mary Gregory blame me! She never in her life blamed me for anything; she isn't likely to begin now."

"Devoted of her, I'm sure," returned the manager; "but in that case," he added quickly, grasping at a straw, "she might not blame you for not producing it at all."

"Oh, no," Christine agreed, "she wouldn't."

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The manager stared. "Then why are you going to do it? Why don't you tell her it's no good, that it will fail?"

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"She wouldn't believe me," explained the actress. "'They are all like that, playwrights," she quoted, with a laugh.

"How about Henry Wilkie? Have you overlooked the trifling fact that you signed a contract with him to produce that dramatization of his 'Silver Rings'—"

"Before the first of November. That leaves me a month and more in which to give Mary's comedy." She took the manuscript and read from the title-page, "'A comedy in three acts entitled "Now."' That leaves me plenty of time in which to produce 'Now,' "she repeated. "I can open my season with it."

The manager rose. "So you are quite determined to produce this piece of inconsequent frippery?" he demanded, in desperation.

"Quite," Christine replied, irrevocably.

The manager regarded her for an instant thoughtfully. "Then the parts had better be assigned at once," he said, without further comment. "How many are there?"

"Three—besides mine," said the actress. "It's not such a very hazardous venture, you see," she supplemented, consolingly. "Not much to do for my best friend, in the name of our lifelong friendship. She has done infinitely more for me. It's not much," she repeated.

The manager did not reply; but when he had left the actress, and was safely out of her hearing, he shook his head and ejaculated to himself, "Too much, by Jove! But women will be women, even the brainiest of them." The manager, it will be seen, was philosophical.

As for the star, she was not philosophical; stars seldom are. But she was exceedingly impulsive, and very generous, as stars often are. She was most charming, too, and very beautiful, and she acted remarkably; in short, she quite deserved the intense affection of her friends and the whole-hearted adoration of her public.

As soon as she was alone she took the much-questioned manuscript from the table upon which the manager had

dropped it, and, seating herself in a deep wicker chair, she read it for the third or fourth time from beginning to end. Then she leaned back in her chair and sighed. "It is so impossible!" she exclaimed; "and yet it isn't amateurish; it is even delightful in places; but—but it just isn't a play. Still, the least I can do is to put it on. If it fails, and it may; well, Mary is plucky. She won't cry over spilled milk!" The actress "Indeed she won't. She'll laughed. mop it neatly up, and begin to comfort me because I helped to spill it!" Her beautiful face softened and she smiled very tenderly. "Dear little Mary," she said, softly.

Dear little Mary, who in point of size was almost a head taller than Christine. and in regard to physical strength was at least her equal multiplied by two, took an absorbing interest in all the details connected with the preparations for the production of her comedy. The rehearsals began before the college year. Mary devoted her mornings to attending the rehearsals, her afternoons to outlining her forthcoming lectures on the Greek drama, and her evenings to dreaming dreams that would have given the manager a certain grim amusement, had he known, and dismayed Christine beyond words, had she known. Christine, indeed, found some cause for distress in the almost daily sight of Mary's rapturous face as she watched the rehearsals of her play. "If only it could succeed," the actress often and often whispered to herself: "if only it could! Mary is plucky—but if it only could succeed!"

"If only it could succeed!" she repeated to the manager, after the last rehearsal.

"But it can't!" replied the manager, gruffly. "I told you that in the beginning; yet you would waste your time, strength, and money on it. It will run one night. Then you'll have to rush Silver Rings on, without half enough advertising, and not much more than half enough rehearsing of the company. Henry Wilkie is already in a fidget over it. He doesn't say anything to you, but he bores me to death."

The manager's tone was aggrieved, and Christine smiled. "It's too bad."

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she said. "But," she repeated once more, "I do wish Mary's play could succeed. "It goes pretty well at rehearsal!" she added, reflectively.

"Because there is so little to go," complained the manager. "A college dramatic club could make it go."

"And the company like the play," Christine went on, slowly.

"Because they think you do," explained the manager, shortly.

"And Mary is delighted-"

"She's a lecturer on the Greek drama. What on earth can she know about plays?"

Christine laughed; then her face became grave. "Poor Mary," she said, gently. "It will be hardest for her. It's her play, her first play, and she is so sure, so absolutely certain, that it's good. We are prepared for failure—but she isn't."

"Well, I can't see that I'm to blame," said the manager, a trifle impatiently. "I advised you, urged you, implored you not to give it."

"I know," Christine assented. "I'm not blaming any one—not even myself. It is one of the inscrutable inevitabilities of life," she added, pensively.

The manager found heart to laugh. "Indeed?" he said.

"It will be hardest for Mary," Christine thought as she lay resting, on the afternoon preceding the first performance of Mary Gregory's comedy in three acts entitled "Now;" "it will, of course, but it will be next hardest for me! I almost wish I hadn't decided to play it; it seems rather mean, letting her think it will succeed when it won't. I almost wish I'd told her it was utterly hopeless; I do-only she wouldn't have believed me. I wish-oh, I don't know what-I wish! Either that she had never written a play-one's best friends really shouldn't—or that it could succeed! I never felt so mean! And yet what could I do?"

She sighed, and, raising herself on her elbow, thumped the pillows of the couch into greater softness. Then, falling back among them, she closed her eyes and tried to sleep. But Mary's face came before her and would not allow her to discontinue her disturbing musings. "Poor little Mary!" she exclaimed, half aloud. "And in New York, too! I really should have planned to try it first—and last—somewhere else. Poor little Mary!" she said again, as again she pounded her pillows.

When Mary knocked cautiously at her door an hour later, Christine was still awake, still half-accusing, half-defending herself for that which she had described to the manager as one of the inscrutable inevitabilities of life. She welcomed Mary with even more than usual warmth. She kissed her several times, and would have helped her remove her hat and wraps, but Mary quickly performed these offices for herself. She took off her gloves, too, and fastened back a stray lock of her brown hair. Then she turned to Christine and laughingly pushed her down upon her pillows, tucked the gay silk blanket deftly around her, and, seating herself on the rug beside the couch, took one of Christine's hands in both her own.

Christine smiled to herself; Mary certainly had some of the ways of boarding-school girls! She looked at Mary thoughtfully. Mary was big and brown and eager and protective; she always had been. Christine herself was not very big, and she was fair-haired and gray-eyed, and less eager; but she too was somewhat protective.

It was perhaps this very protectiveness that led her to say as she contemplated her friend sitting on the rug beside her holding her hand, "Mary, dear, if it should fail!"

Mary smiled indulgently. "Oh, but it won't! You always expect things to fail—the afternoon before the first night." She rubbed her cheek against Christine's hand. "Don't say another word about it, dear, I know just how you feel," she added, gently. "You must rest, and try to go to sleep. Just let me do the worrying about its failing."

"I can't!" exclaimed Christine, with an emphasis at which Mary, not understanding, laughed outright.

"Can't you?" she said. "Well, anyway, you can go to sleep! And I must go home. Oh, by the way, dear, could I stay behind with you, to-night? You see, I've really seen it from the front so

often at rehearsals. I haven't got any relatives to go with—and a lot of the people from the college are coming. I'd rather be totally out of sight."

"So should I," groaned Christine to herself, but to Mary she said easily: "Of course. I know just how you feel. And I'd love to have you behind with me. Come early."

Mary went very early, but she found Christine already dressed, and sitting in her dressing-room, surrounded by masses of flowers. "First night flowers," said the actress; "what can I do with all of them? But you didn't send me any," she began, smiling with outward gayety but inward misery at Mary's shining eyes and happily flushed cheeks.

"I brought them," said Mary. 'Gentians; they are precisely the color of your eyes when you are excited." fastened them in Christine's gossamerlike white gown—that one gown which, as Christine had told the manager, was all that she should need for this venture, which was after all turning out so much more disastrously even than the manager had prophesied. "Mary is plucky; she won't cry over spilled milk," Christine had at the beginning repeated to herself for comfort. "I do wish it needn't be spilled," was the most that she could say to herself of comfort, as Mary pinned the gentians to her gown. "One's friends certainly ought not to write plays I" she added.

But she still said nothing of this to Mary; and Mary, with a tact which Christine had never so thoroughly appreciated, did not mention her comedy, which in less than half an hour was to be tried by her friend, because of their friendship, and found wanting.

The theater was crowded—but the theater always was crowded on Christine's first nights, especially in New York. Few of the people in the audience knew anything about the new play, but few of the people in any audience ever do know very much about the new play; few read the playwright's name on the programme; few ever do read it. The audience was very average, as Christine was well aware. It had come to see her act an actable play. She could act—she knew that; but her heart sank when she

thought of the play. She was generous even to the extent of feeling sorrier for Mary than she felt for herself.

She kissed Mary very tenderly when she left her for the first act of the comedy. At the end of the act, to her amazement, the audience applauded deafeningly, again and again. The act had gone pretty well—as well as it had gone at the rehearsals. The audience had accompanied it, not with bursts of mirth, but with quiet intentness, and soft, almost continuous laughter.

"Well!" whispered Christine to the manager, as she passed him on her way to answer her seventh curtain call.

"It's not the play; it's you," the manager said, briefly, but with distinct bewilderment.

"I suppose it's still me," observed the actress, ungrammatically, at the end of the next act, as she returned from her tenth curtain call, holding in her hand an American Beauty rose which Henry Wilkie, whose dramatization of his novel "Silver Rings" she had signed a contract to produce before the first of November, had tossed to her from his box

The manager looked dazed. "I don't know!" he replied.

Christine found Mary standing in the doorway of her dressing-room. "You say my eyes are the color of gentians when I'm excited," said the actress, touching the flowers as she spoke.

"Yes," said Mary, wonderingly, "and they are exactly that color now."

"Well, they ought to be!" Christine said, enigmatically.

The manager also appeared to be excited. He glanced at Mary in surprise. "She seems calm enough," he observed to Christine, just before the curtain rose for the last act.

"She didn't expect it to fall flat," Christine returned, as she went forward in answer to her cue.

The last act fell by no means flat. At the end, after prolonged and wildly enthusiastic applause, the audience demanded the author and a speech. The manager collapsed completely; Christine grew dizzy with sudden revulsion of feeling; the milk had not been spilled, after all! Mary had a bright red spot on each cheek, but she was by far the most self-possessed of the three. "Some-body make a speech," said the manager, weakly.

"I simply can't stand anything more," Christine declared; and so it was left to Mary to make the speech; which she did, clinging to Christine's hand. It was a very little speech, and no one in the audience heard a word of it, but they all applauded with ringing enthusiasm. Seldom had a play been a more brilliant success on its first night.

"It won't last," persisted the manager, even after reading the newspaper reviews the next morning. "It won't last." But it did.

One morning, about a month after that night, so amazing to every one immediately concerned, except possibly Mary, the manager called to consult Christine. Mary was with her, but she soon rose to go. "I have to lecture on Aristophanes at two," she explained.

"It is the twenty-first of October," said the manager the moment he was alone with Christine.

"Well?" queried the actress.

"You have that contract with Henry Wilkie; you have agreed to put on his dramatization of 'Silver Rings' before the first of November."

"Yes," acquiesced Christine.

"You had better get him to let you save it over for next season," said the manager. "You won't need any other play this year." He paused and looked at her quizzically. "I never was more

surprised in my life; it seemed such a hopeless play. I am glad you insisted upon giving it."

Christine smiled, and the manager added: "But if I remember correctly, you didn't insist because it seemed any more hopeful to you—"

Christine laughed. "You remember quite correctly," she said.

When he had gone she went to her desk to write a note to Henry Wilkie. But she did not write it at once. She sat smiling softly, her lovely face all happily aglow. "Dear little Mary!" she said. "She was always plucky—but I'm glad, so glad it succeeded!"

And the manager, hurrying down the street, also meditated upon Mary. "Aristophanes!" he muttered; "she had to give a lecture on Aristophanes. She is the most serene playwright I ever saw—and I've seen a few playwrights in my time. She takes her success exactly as she'd take a drink of water. It doesn't excite her a bit more. Well, women are "—he stopped and laughed—"what one of them calls 'inscrutable inevitabilities of life!' Aristophanes! Who was Aristophanes, anyway?"

Mary, meanwhile, was answering this question before her class in her lecture-room. Between sentences she thought about her play, and about Christine. "I knew it was good," she mused, but I wonder, I do wonder, if the manager, or even Christine herself, had any idea that it would be quite such a big, really big, success!"

Comment on Current Books

The Disassociation an account of the extraof a Personality ordinary psychical phenomena to which an unstable nervous organization may give rise. Psychologists record numerous instances of this. The stream of consciousness which constitutes personality and character, while normally single and identical, divides into double or multiple, so that in one person two or more persons with dissimilar traits—physical, mental, and moral -alternately appear, and the classic fable of Proteus is dramatized in real life. To the celebrated cases of this sort, another, as remarkable as any of them, is here added by an eminent physician, Dr. Morton Prince, of Boston. Since 1898 he has had under care a patient fictitiously named "Miss Beauchamp," an educated and more than ordinarily refined person, who permits him, in the interest of science, to publish this "biographical study in abnormal psychology," with sketches of the seemingly distinct personalities which carried on "a pathological drama" in her life. Her normal self, besides its modification in the hypnotic state, like a river which divides into separate channels, some through sand, some through rock, became for years disintegrated into several dissimilar selves, successively "born" and alternately dominant; viz., "Sally," a clever, mischief-loving creature; "The Idiot," and

"The Saint." Of these, "the Idiot," as "Sally" unjustly dubbed her, was more normal and healthy in mind and body than the real Miss Beauchamp. The social life which these two carried on by turns during intervals while the real Miss Beauchamp was suppressed was both comic and tragic. Finally, after long and baffling struggles, in which the sine qua non was achieved by the suppression of "Sally," Miss Beauchamp was "put together," and last summer the reconstruction gave hope of permanency. As a scientific study in an obscure field of research now being actively explored, Dr. Prince's work is one of interest. A full discussion of the questions involved is reserved for a following volume. (Longmans, Green & Co., New York. \$2.80, net.)

Half-Century
Messages

In this series of papers, mostly brief and all suggestive, Dr. W. C. Huntington, Nebraska Wesleyan University, presents to pastors and people a variety of subjects which seem to him to deserve more full and frequent treatment in the pulpit and in church literature than they receive. The papers on "Some Causes of Ministerial Unacceptableness," "In the Church, but Unconverted," "Christians and Money," are noteworthy as specimens. (Eaton & Mains, New York. \$1.)

A peculiarly gifted teacher of Kindergarten little children, Laura Ella Bible Stories Cragin, exhibits here her successful method of awakening their interest in the Bible through the narratives which are naturally attractive to them. Her book is a boon not only to kindergartners, but to parents who feel the duty of religious instruction in the home, and wish to acquire the best method of its beginnings. series, which ends with the story of Ruth, deserves continuation in another volume. (Illustrated. The Fleming H. Revell Company, New York. \$1.25, net.)

A Maker of few equals in the concoction History of an exciting plot, and his new tale is really remarkable in the ingenuity and consistency with which the complications are managed. It starts with a singular incident-the accidental witnessing by a young Englishman of a secret meeting between the Kaiser and the Czar, and his finding a single sheet of paper blown about by the wind but containing a secret of enormous international importance. The possession of this document involves the ingenuous youth, and later on his sister and two aspirants for her hand, in an extraordinary series of adventures with spies and secret police, and in the end averts a great war which the Russo-German secret

alliance would have otherwise precipitated upon England. Very clever use is made of the North Sea affair, and fiction is dovetailed into recent history in an exceedingly deft fashion. Altogether the romance is an exceptionally good specimen of sensational story-telling. (Little, Brown & Co., Boston. \$1.50.)

This tenth volume of the Luther's Church new and standard edition Postil Gospels of Luther's works contains his Advent, Christmas, and Epiphany sermons, first published in Latin in 1521, and dedicated to his protector, the Elector Frederick. Translated immediately into German, they now appear for the first time in English from the hand of scholarly translators, and the editorship of Dr. J. N. Lenker, of Minneapolis. Luther's postils, i.e., homilies, on the Gospels are esteemed the best of his sermons. (Lutherans in All Lands Company, Minneapolis. \$2.25.)

With its wealth of illus-Penrose's tration, both in color and Pictorial Annual in black and white, and its careful description of technical processes, this book will be of special interest and value to photographers and illustrators. It embodies a review of the progress of the graphic arts for the year, more especially as regards their photo-mechanical reproduction. Many photographs are here reproduced by the three-color process, and in some cases these show an advance over previous work, though, as the editor, Mr. William Gamble, well says, "much of the three-color work of to-day gives one the feeling of something wanting." (A. W. Penrose & Co., London; Tennant & Ward, 287 Fourth Avenue, New York City. \$2.50, net.)

In this monograph Dr. Lynn The Place of Thorndike, sometime Uni-Magic versity Fellow of Columbia, limits his inquiry concerning "the place of magic in the intellectual history of Europe" to the Roman Empire, as summing up and transmitting to the mediæval age the views of the ancient world. Magic, defined as primitive man's attitude to Nature, is used as a class-name, including a variety of beliefs and practices, such as astrology, divination, necromancy, belonging to the realm of occult knowledge. Reviewing the statements of educated men, Cicero, Pliny, and others, Dr. Thorndike finds no instance of consistent disbelief in magic. The noteworthy point in the résumé is that magic among the educated was always associated with science, and is related to it as the guesses of the child to the positive knowledge of the man. (The Macmillan Company, New York. 75c.)

Letters to The Outlook

OBJECTIONS TO JOINT STATEHOOD

[Greatly to their honor, several subscribers in Arizona have written letters in behalf of that Territory. The following utterances have been selected from their communications, as they include practically all the arguments advanced against joint Statehood. We note, incidentally, that if the illiterate Indians be excluded from the list of impediments to Statehood, they should not be included in the number of inhabitants which is considered sufficient for Statehood. It is noteworthy that our correspondents agree in preferring the Territorial status to joint Statehood. There is much force in the contention that the people of Arizona have a right to remain a Territory if they so desire, but none in the claim that they have a right to determine whether, if admitted, they shall be admitted separately or in conjunction with another State.—THE EDITORS.1

New Mexico's population is twice Arizona's. One-third New Mexico's population neither reads, writes, nor speaks English. Another third is Spanish-American—technically, a euphuism for Mexican. You in New York have a percentage of Italians or Hungarians or Slavs. In the New Mexican Legislature in the last ten years Americans-i.e., not Mexican or Spanish-American persons—have predominated once. Would you call it sentimental attachment to a locality in which one's interests lie that stands in the way of a harmonious co-operation with one's so distant neighbors when the chance for political equality or a voice in the administration is so small as the suffrages would allow? Or would it be a matter of dollars and cents? It is the life of a community to have some voice in the disposition of the money it pays the State in taxes; the prospect of such voice after jointure with New Mexico is too slight to be given serious consideration.

Arizona is sorry that Statehood was ever mentioned. Arizona has had enough Statehood already. Arizona refuses to admit that the Nation's interest requires of her such sacrifice; for jointure would deprive her of the last vestige of hope.

> GUY L. JONES, Secretary Harvard Club.

Mesa, Arizona.

I do not care to argue for the admission of Arizona as a separate State at this time, nor to try to refute your argument that the admission would give it a disproportionate power in the Senate. The justice of that statement is indisputable. But I do protest against making a bad matter worse by linking us to New Mexico and forcing on us a Statehood condition which not one-tenth of the people desire. On the contrary, they vigorously oppose it. Your fear of railroad interest predominating in the politics of the State is unfounded. The Territory has suffered too much and too long from discrimination in rates against it to support railroad interests. The mining interest undoubtedly predominates, but is not so disreputable a business or so grasping as to be utterly condemned. Our big companies in Arizona are run by a class of men who will compare favorably with the captains of industry in any walk of life. GEORGE B. CHITTENDEN.

Saddle Mountain Mining Company, Christmas, Arizona.

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Ultimate single Statehood for Arizona is largely a matter of sentiment. It is a manifestation of the sentiment which every man has for family; which most Americans hold for their State; which we all have for our country. In a word, it is local patriotism. Arizona is young-forty years covers her Territorial history-but Arizonans have a pride in her past and unbounded confidence in her future. Arizona is not now asking for Statehood. Whether or not she should be admitted as a single State is not the present issue. At this session a portion of the Congress of the United States is in favor of joining Arizona and New Mexico and admitting them now as one State. Arizona is opposed to the jointure, and rather than accept it would prefer to remain a Territory indefinitely. The issue, then, from an Arizona standpoint is: "Is Arizona entitled to remain a Territory and further develop her resources until fitted to be erected into a State, or must she, without opportunity to voice her wishes, be now joined to New Mexico and lose her autonomy?"

It is true that Statehood is a National question and that Arizona is not alone to be considered. Nevertheless, it is easy for the East to do the West an injustice which may possibly result disastrously to the future of the Nation. Granted that at present it is unfair to admit Arizona, with less than 200,000 people, to equal representation in the United States Senate with New York or Pennsylvania, can it be now foretold what its population will be fifty or one hundred

years hence? It may well be that at the end of fifty years the excess of power in the East in the Senate by reason of numerous small States will give to the West with its few States of large area just cause for complaint; and that then the ratio of representation of Rhode Island, Delaware, Connecticut, or Vermont will be as unfair to California, Oregon, Washington, or even Arizona, as that of Arizona would be now to the more populous Eastern States. Fifty years just passed has seen a wonderful growth in all sections of our country. May not the next fifty be as great? Illinois had hardly a white person in 1810—Arizona hardly one in 1860. Who can tell the population of Arizona fifty years hence?

Arizona's present interests, it is charged, are largely mining. True, but mining is not the only resource. The entire area of the State of Rhode Island is not the one-half of the farming land in Arizona. (Statistics of Agriculture, Vol. 5, Twelfth Census, table 19.) Without cumbering this letter with references, it is fair to say, while the Twelfth United States Census shows Arizona as ranking fourteenth among the States in mineral products, it ranked higher than fourteenth in timber lands, in sheep, and in cattle. It is only because of the munificent mineral endowment of this Territory that the other and less noticeable resources are lost to sight.

It is also true that Arizona's average of illiteracy is twenty-nine per cent., as stated by The Outlook. But it is disingenuous for The Outlook to withhold the fact that this percentage is based upon figures which include 22,000 Indians, not voting, out of a total of 123,000 people, and that these Indians are almost wholly illiterate. "Table 57. Illiterate population at least ten years of age," Abstract Twelfth Census, tells the following tale:

	White.		
State or Territory.	Total.	Native.	Foreign Born
Arizona	. 29.0	6.2	35.2
New Mexico	. 33.2	29.4	34.8
Massachusetts	. 5.9	0.8	14.6
New York	. 5.5	1.2	14.0
Virginia	22.9	11.1	10.9
Illinois	. 4.2	2.1	9.1
Alabama	. 34.0	14.8	9.3

Table 56, idem, is also interesting:

Population attending school, p. 73, Abs. Twelfth Census, 1900. Per cent. of population of school age attending school:

State or Territory.	Total.	White.	Negro.
Arizona	. 44.1	50.4	39.7
New Mexico	40.6	41.5	42.9
Massachusetts	. 58.5	58.6	51.8
New York	53.9	54.1	40.9
Virginia	. 42.2	48.1	22.8
Illinois		54.6	46.9
Alabama	. 32.3	40.5	22.8

As to the charge that the population of Arizona is fluctuating, the only answer possible is a flat denial, with a reference to the United States Census, which shows a steady, healthy growth during the forty years of its life.

That the Mormon Church is the controlling, or a possible controlling, element in the voice of Arizona may be met with the statement of The Outlook itself: "To admit Arizona . . . is to admit Senators to the United States Senate . . . and it is probably to give threefourths of that power . . . to certain railroads and mining interests, the paid advocates of which they would be." And this quotation calls to mind the charge by The Outlook that "there are very large and not altogether scrupulous special interests concerned in securing the admission of these four Territories as separate States. These are railroad and mining interests. They are already very influential, if not absolutely controlling, in Arizona, New Mexico, and Indian Territory.

... The railroad and mining interests would control two and probably three of these States, and thus secure four, if not six, Senators in a body which is already quite too much under the influence of the advocates of special interests."

It is easy to make charges of this character and impossible to refute them. It is patent, though, that they lose much force on considering that the new States, if these statements are true, would be in no worse plight than some of the Eastern States. Let us be frank: Who controls the railroads and mines-Eastern or Western men? It must be conceded, Eastern men. Who, then, is to blame for the corruption-Arizona or the Eastern capitalists? And is Arizona to be blamed for sending advocates of special intelligence to the United States Senate when the seven millions of New York are so represented, when the six millions of Pennsylvania are so represented, when Maryland, when New Jersey, when Rhode Island, and when Delaware are so represented?

This last quotation is hard to reconcile with the statement made in the second article in The Outlook: "It seems rather strange that the rich mine-owners of Arizona should be here fighting Statehood, either single or joint; but the reason for it is not far to seek. They own the Territory now. They own it. They are lords of the estate. Naturally, they do not want to run any risks by a change to Statehood." Why not, forsooth, if they are to dominate the State? At present the Territory is ruled by Washington. Why, if there is injustice done in taxation in Arizona, does not Congress, with its plenary power, right the wrong? Are not our courts

appointed by the President? Is not our Governor? Is not the whole Territorial machinery Federal? It must be that the mine-owners' protection is Washington, not Arizona, and that they are content to let it so remain.

Every argument that The Outlook has advanced is one against the present admission of either Arizona or New Mexico. It has urged the sparseness of our population, the illiteracy of our people, the domination of special interests, the injustice of equal representation in the Senate. Whatever merit there may be in the arguments, it suffices to say that the political injustice to the Nation cannot be lessened by uniting two Territories, each unfitted for Statehood, and bringing them in as one State.

Arizona, as was said before, does not now ask for Statehood. It has reasons which justify the confidence of its people in its ability to demonstrate its fitness for Statehood in another decade. It has within its borders more land susceptible of cultivation to ordinary crops than Pennsylvania, more timber lands than Maine ever had, more sheep and cattle than a majority of the States east of the Mississippi, and, as far as can now be determined, more mineral wealth than any of the States. It has its own system of laws and its judicial decisions. It has its own Capitol, its University, and its eleemosynary institutions. It has both the finest winter climate, at Phœnix and Tucson, and the finest summer climate, at Prescott, Flagstaff, and the Grand Cañon, in America.

It is not mere sentiment alone that causes Arizona to ask consideration in this matter. There is a radical difference between the laws of New Mexico and Arizona. A union with New Mexico entails the probable adoption of a constitution framed to best serve New Mexican interests, an enforcement of New Mexican laws in Arizona, the domination of New Mexican ideas in future legislation, and the substitution in Arizona of a Latin in place of Arizona's present Anglo-Saxon civilization. It means a practical extinction, for years to come, of Arizona's voice in the affairs of state. Who in Arizona can or would view such an outlook but with alarm? Arizona asks of the American people and of their representatives in Congress that fundamental right of American States to a voice in the determination of their future that the people of Arizona may vote separately, and the action of a majority of its voters be controlling upon the question of jointure with New Mexico.

E. W. Lewis

Phoenix, Arizona,

READING MATTER FOR PANAMA

I venture to address you on behalf of the men who work on the Panama Canal. Of course you know that there are thousands of the very best Americans employed there as engineers, as superintendents, as constructors, and in various capacities. It is also known that these men in the treacherous climate prevailing on the Isthmus are exposed to peculiar dangers and liable to be stricken at short notice. To receive those who appear to be threatened with malaria or yellow fever, and to treat those who are actually in danger, large hospitals adapted to receive hundreds of patients have been established. The one thing needed in these hospitals is reading matter. I have been informed that the greatest agony to which these patients are subjected is to be confined in the hospitals for days and weeks, and to have nothing to read.

I do not know who better to ask to start proper proceedings toward supplying the hospitals of Panama with reading matter than The Outlook. I should think, of course, that some steps should be taken, not only to supply reading matter at once, but also to supply current literature from time to time. It can hardly be expected of the Government to do this. I remember that during the Civil War, when I was at the front, the boys were being supplied with reading matter, not by Government, but by properly organized private subscribers. I remember also what a boon it was to receive these wondrous magazines in places where, but for them, nothing but hardship, disease, or death stared us in the face. The impressions given by well-written treatises upon men thus situated are deeper and more far-reaching and beneficial than could be produced upon men actively employed in centers of civilization. I hope that through your assistance some measures may be taken towards meeting the justifiable craving of our fellow-men for the highest kind of food.

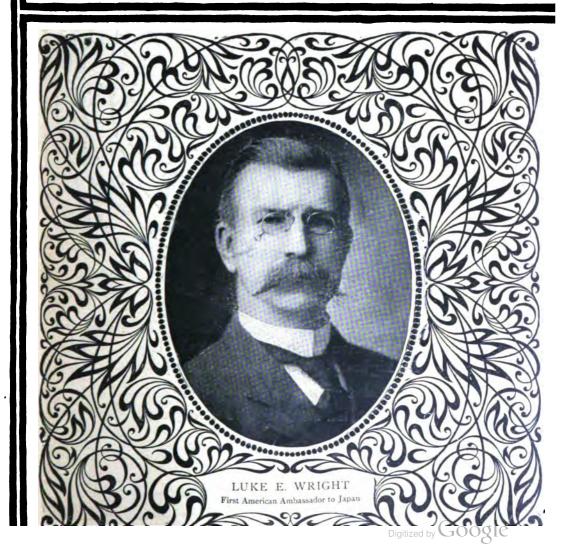
Reading matter should be addressed to the "Director of Hospitals," Ancon, Canal Zone, Isthmus of Panama. Packages weighing not over four pounds may be sent by mail to the Zone at the domestic rate of postage. Packages exceeding that weight may be similarly addressed, but sent through the Panama Railroad Company, 24 State Street, New York.

ARTHUR V. BRIESEN.

[An excellent suggestion. We urge our readers to aid in this by sending reading matter to the address above given.—THE EDITORS.]

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The Outlook

Volume 82

Saturday, February 3, 1906

Number 5

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THE OUTLOOK is a Weekly Newspaper and an Illustrated Monthly Magazine in one. It is published every Saturday—fifty-two issues a year. The fourth issue in each month is an Illustrated Magazine Number, containing about twice as many pages as the regular weekly issue, and many pictures.

PRICE.—The subscription price is Three Dollars a year, payable in advance. Ten cents a copy.

POSTAGE IS PREPAID by the publishers for all subscriptions in the United States, Hawaiian Islands, Philippine Islands, Guam, Porto Rico, Tutuila (Samoa), Shanghai, Canal Zone, Cuba, Canada, and Mexico. For all other countries in the Postal Union add \$1.56 for postage.

CHANGE OF ADDRESS.—When a change of address is ordered, both the new and the old address must be given. The notice should be sent one week before the change is to take effect.

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HOW TO REMIT.—Remittances should be sent by Draft on New York, Express-Order, or Money-Order, payable to order of THE OUTLOOK COMPANY. Cash should be sent in Registered Letter.

LETTERS should be addressed:

THE OUTLOOK COMPANY

Chicago Office, 1436 Marquette Building

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The Outlook

SATURDAY, FEBRUARY 3, 1906

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The Joint Statehood Bill has passed the House of Representatives by a set of 105 to 150

sentatives by a vote of 195 to 150. Prior to this action the House adopted a rule reported from the Committee on Rules which limited the debate to fortyfive minutes on each side, and provided that no amendments to the bill should be permitted. The bill, as passed, provides for the admission of Oklahoma and Indian Territory as one State, and Arizona and New Mexico as another The people of these Territories are first to vote on the question whether they wish admission. That is, the bill is an enabling act, authorizing the people to prepare a State Constitution as a preliminary to admission. But the people of the Territories are to vote jointly. not separately—that is, Indian Territory and Oklahoma vote as one Territory, and Arizona and New Mexico vote as one Territory. If, therefore, a majority of the people of the Indian Territory do not wish to come in as a State with Oklahoma, Indian Territory may nevertheless be compelled to come in, if a majority of the entire population favor joint Statehood; similarly, if a majority of the people of Arizona vote not to come in, Arizona may be compelled to accept joint Statehood if a majority of the two Territories of Arizona and New Mexico desire it. The enabling act for both the joint Territories constitutes one bill, so that in the House no one could vote against the admission of the one joint State without voting against the admission of the other. And as no amendments were allowed, the sense of the House was not taken on the question, Shall the people of each Territory vote separately? nor was any member allowed to vote for the admission of the one State and against the admission of the other. There seems to be little doubt that a majority of the population of Indian Territory and Oklahoma desire joint Statehood, though there is some objection in the Indian Territory on behalf of the Indians, whose rights it is feared will not be sufficiently protected under State laws, and who cannot be protected from the liquor traffic by the Federal Government after they have become citizens of the State and of the United States. But, as our readers know from the correspondence which has been published, there is very strong objection in Arizona to being united in the same State with New Mexico.

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The Measure and the Method

The Outlook believes in joint Statehood. We do not think it practicable

to keep Arizona permanently a Territory. From the best light we can get on the subject we do not think it likely that it will ever support a population sufficient to justify giving it two Senators in the Senate of the United States. We think the peril to the Nation from another thinly populated and corporation-ruled State is greater than the peril to Arizona from a union of her destinies with New And while there is serious objection to requiring Arizona to come in as a State with New Mexico against the will of her people, there is also serious objection to keeping New Mexico out as a State for no other reason than that Arizona does not choose to come in, though it might be wise to keep both Territories out until they can agree to come in together. Our belief in joint Statehood may perhaps help to emphasize our protest against the method in which this measure was carried through the House. That some limit should be put upon the debate of such a measure is true; without the previous question the House would be powerless to transact

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That some limit should be put upon amendments is also probably true, otherwise a few unscrupulous obstructionists could practically prevent legislation. But to cut down debate on so important a measure to an hour and a half, and to refuse permission to introduce bona-fide and important amendments, is to destroy the power of the House to consider business under guise of giving it power to do business. So long as the House abdicates its right to give serious consideration to public measures, so long it may expect to be subordinate in public esteem and in real political power to the Senate. A legislative body whose interminable debates generally lead after a time to some kind of action will be regarded by the people as more truly deliberative, and therefore more worthy of respect, than one which never deliberates and acts only to record the judgment of party leaders.

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Pure Food In the Senate last week Mr. McCumber, Senator from North Dakota, stated succinctly the justification for a Federal pure food law. The Government, he said, "cannot prescribe a dietary course for every individual," but, he added, "it ought to protect the individual against all character of imposition and fraud, so that entering into the markets he may purchase those things without fear which he knows to be conducive to his health and comfort, and above all that he may avoid those things which he knows to be detrimental." Senator McCumber then cited an illustration from a statement made by a State Secretary. A woman entered a grocery store and bought some articles of food. The price amounted to \$1.80, and as she had only \$1.57, she went away indebted to the grocer twenty-three cents.

Mr. Allen immediately purchased a quantity of each of those articles and analyzed them. He found the syrup was seventy per cent. glucose, the jelly contained nearly everything but fruit juice and was colored with coal-tar dye, the sausage contained an antiseptic, and the lard consisted of beef stearin and cotton-seed oil mixed. Had she gone into the market and bought those articles for what they were at the very highest retail prices, they would not have cost her

over ninety cents, and she would have gone away with sixty-seven cents in her pocket instead of being indebted to the grocer twenty-three cents; and this, Mr. President, independent of the fraud that was perpetrated upon her, independent of the coal-tar dyes which her children were compelled unconsciously to consume.

Against this condition the State laws are a feebly inadequate defense. They cannot prevent fraudulent manufactures from being imported, or from being transported from one State to another. burn bill now before Congress makes the manufacture of and inter-State traffic in deleterious, adulterated, and misbranded foods, liquors, and drugs punishable by fine and imprisonment. It differs somewhat in detail from the bill of last session. It puts the burden on the manufacturer; it relieves the dealer of responsibility, unless he "knowingly" receives such prohibited goods, in which case a guaranty of purity from the manufacturer will be evidence of good faith; it provides for regulations to be drawn jointly by the three departments of the Treasury, Agriculture, and Commerce and Labor, thus relieving the Department of Agriculture (which according to the bill last year would have made the regulations) of sole power; it makes separate provisions for foods, drugs, and liquors: it defines what shall legally be regarded as adulterations, as deleterious substances, and as misbranding. Nearly all States have pure food laws. This indicates how public sentiment regards the sub-Those liquor dealers, druggists, and food manufacturers whose business will be injured by the greater security of the people ought not to be suffered longer to delay and obstruct the passage of this bill.

Federal Supervision of Corporations

No subject under consideration by the present Administra-

tion yields in importance to that of Federal supervision of corporations. To this end a bill has been reintroduced by Representative Littlefield, of Maine, in the House of Representatives, providing the essential of such supervision, namely, publicity of accounting. Under the operation of Mr. Littlefield's bill, now, we are clad to say, favorably

reported, a great corporation such as the Standard Oil Company, the American Sugar Company, or the United States Steel Corporation would be obliged to make a report every year to the Commissioner of Corporations, giving its name, date of organization, when and where organized, statutes under which it is organized; if consolidated, naming the constituent companies and giving information regarding their organization; if reorganized, naming the original corporations, with full information in regard to them; the amount of authorized and issued capital stock and bonds; the amount paid in and how much; the amount paid in cash or in property. description in detail of the property so represented, with its cash value; whether there has been any capitalization of earnings or earning capacity; finally, the names and addresses of officers, managing agents, and directors, and copies of all rules, regulations, and by-laws. This is all good; still there are some things not provided for in Mr. Littlefield's billfor instance, annual reports of assets and liabilities. Such a provision would be welcomed, not only by radical legislators, but by many of the large corporations themselves. This is the kind of publicity which has been favored, for example, by the United States Steel Corpora-But the bill as it stands, if passed, would mark a most important step in material and moral betterment, for it is a direct blow at the chief evil of our so-called "trusts," namely, over-capitalization. The evil is generally acknowledged. but it is idle to wait for the several States to pass anything like uniform legislation on the subject. One phase of it is well stated in the following paragraph from the report of the House Committee:

If a capital stock is all paid in, the corporation doing a large and profitable business, and having accumulated a handsome surplus, the greater the publicity that is given to these important facts, the more the market value of the stock will be increased. Such a corporation seeks publicity. On the other hand, suppose the stock is only partly paid in, the corporation doing a losing business, and having accumulated a deficit. The more these facts are known the more the market value of the stock becomes a negligible quantity. In other words, if a man has a

good bond or stock, the more publicity he gets the better he likes it. If he has a poor bond or stock, the less publicity he receives the better he is satisfied. But why are not the public, the insurance companies, and the savings banks, which are relied upon as the final depositories of these securities, entitled to the same information in each case? A sound corporation will make no objection to such publicity; an unsound one always objects. The States, or some of them, legislate so as to enable the corporation to place the questionable bond and stock upon the market under apparently the same conditions that obtain in case of a first-class security.



On Saturday of last week Railway Rate Chairman Hepburn, of Legislation the Inter-State Commerce Committee, had the notable honor of reporting to the House of Representatives his railway rate bill with the favorable recommendation of the entire Republican and Democratic membership of that Committee. Thus upon perhaps the most important piece of economic legislation which has been attempted for years, and upon a question which could be made political and partisan, a unanimous report has been secured. Such unanimous report will doubtless have its due effect not only in the House, but also in the Senate, moving the latter body to earlier action than would otherwise be the case. Some intense Republican partisans are complaining; they would make capital for their party first and their country second out of every measure which passes Congress. Most Republicans, however, are pleased, declaring that the agreement was effected for the sole purpose of bringing the Democrats in the Senate into line for the Administration measure. The Outlook has already outlined the Hepburn bill as presented to the Committee. As presented to the House in amended form it is practically the same measure, made up from the nineteen railway rate regulation bills which were before the Committee, and also from the information contained in five volumes of hearings before the Senate and House Committees. of the changes were made on suggestion of minority members, and were granted, as no principle was involved. Others had already been made at the instance of Messrs. Esch and Townsend, the authors

of the bill which passed the House of Representatives last winter; these were certain charges of phraseology, the insertion of a section of the original Act as amended by the Inter-State Commerce Commission, and the reduction of the number of Inter-State Commerce Commissioners from nine, as in the Hepburn bill, to seven, as in the Esch-Townsend bill; finally, they also applied the Expediting Act to proceedings in the Circuit Courts, and made it mandatory upon the Attorney-General to file the necessary certificate giving priority in the Supreme Court as well as Circuit Court over all except criminal cases. The Hepburn bill, as reported, is satisfactory, though not as broad as many would have liked. For instance, the revised Esch-Townsend bill gave to the Inter-State Commerce Commission the power to fix not only a maximum rate, but also, for the purpose of differentials, a minimum rate. It is conceivable that there may be almost as much trouble from the minima as from the maxima.

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The Special Provisions

No attempt is made to authorize the Inter-State Commerce Commission to readjust freight classification. Little complaint, it is said, has been heard against classification. Jurisdiction is confined to cases where complaint has been made, when the Commission is authorized to declare what shall be

a just and reasonable and fairly remunerative rate or rates, charge or charges, to be thereafter observed in such case as the maximum to be charged; and what regulation or practice in respect to such transportation is just, fair, and reasonable thereafter to be followed, and to make an order that the carrier shall cease and desist from such violation to the extent to which the Commission find the same to exist, and shall not thereafter publish, demand, or collect any rate or charge for such transportation in excess of the maximum rate or charge so prescribed, and shall conform to the regulation or practice so prescribed.

This order is to go into effect thirty days after notice to the carrier, and to remain in force unless suspended, modified, or set aside by the Commission or court of competent jurisdiction. It is explained that the word "maximum" was used in

order that flexibility might be given to the rate, and that the carrier might charge a less sum than that fixed by the Commission. The Commission is also empowered to fix the maximum allowance to a shipper who furnishes his own cars or any instrumentality of transportation. Authority is given to the shipper to apply to the Circuit Court for the enforcement of the Commission's orders. The court is to enforce this order by means of injunction. Authority is given the Commission to prescribe the exact manner in which reports shall be made by common carriers, and the manner in which railways are to keep their accounts, with a penalty provision against non-compliance. Access is to be had at all times to the books of the carriers. The bill provides for two additional members of the present Inter-State Commerce Commission-two less, however, as above noted, than in the Hepburn bill as first presented. The term of service for a Commissioner is to be increased to seven years and the salary is increased to **\$**10,000.

The Labor Problem at Panama

In a recent address the Chairman of the Panama Commis-

sion, Mr. Shonts, declared that the "character of labor employed on the Isthmus has more to do with the time it will take to build the canal-more to do with the cost of construction-than any other determining factor." One of the difficulties of dealing with this labor question at Panama has been the legal application to the Canal Zone of the United States eight-hour law. This will be obviated if the Senate shall concur with the action of the House last week. By a vote of 120 to 108 (the unpaired absence of a large number of members was noticeable) the House passed the Urgency Deficiency Bill, carrying over \$15,000,-000, without any change whatever as to its financial provisions, but with an amendment to the effect that the eighthour law shall not apply to alien laborers on the Panama Canal. enactment is just and reasonable. is quite consistent to hold that the limit of eight hours for the normal day's work is a proper protection and a benefit

to the American workers to whom it was designed to apply, and yet to believe that it would be undesirable and the reverse of a benefit if it should be enforced at Panama: Apart from the matter of labor cost, it must be noted that American white laborers will not go to the Isthmus in great numbers, and would not in any case be desirable for work in that climate: it is doubtful also whether negro labor from our Southern States can be obtained to any large extent; finally, there is not on the spot any adequate supply of labor. must be brought, therefore, from a distance. Thus far Jamaica and Martinique have been the main sources of supply, but experiments are now being tried with laborers from the north of Spain, such as were used to advantage in constructing Cuban railroads. The negroes now at work on the Canal never heard of an eight-hour law, are not brought into competition with American labor, and do not understand or like the plan of short hours and hard work. The last is not altogether due to indolence, for it is a perfectly recognized fact that labor under a tropic sun and in a humid climate must be carried on in an entirely different way from that possible in the temperate zones. It would be neither sensible nor practical to attempt to enforce an eighthour law on the Isthmus. Equally proper is the decision of the Commission to let out portions of the work to large contractors; whenever there is an economic advantage to be gained there can be no objection to following this course, provided that the contracts be so drawn that the United States shall be able to enforce law and order, sanitary regulation and proper living, and to protect workers from oppression. On the other hand, the human and personal rights of the laborers must be carefully guarded. Coolie peonage or any form of contract labor which makes of the workman a semi-slave, or limits improperly his power of making labor contracts for himself, must not be tolerated or made possible by evasion. The Constitutional rights of labor in this respect have been well defined, and it is not likely that even the urgency of the enormous task before us at Panama will induce Congress or the Commission to try to let down the bars against involuntary servitude.

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Joint Conference
of Anthracite Operators
and Mine Workers

The acceptance by the anthracite operators of the hard-coal mine

workers' invitation to meet the representatives of the latter in a joint conference, to determine upon the general labor conditions which are to prevail in the coal industry following the expiration on March 31 of the award of the Anthracite Coal Strike Commission, is another important step in the direction of establishing the trade agreement machinery for settling upon wages and conditions of employment. The date agreed upon for the conference is February 15, and the place of meeting will probably be New York City. This is the result of efforts of the special committee appointed for this purpose by the convention representing the three anthracite districts held at Shamokin in December. While the text of the correspondence has been withheld from the public, it is believed that the anthracite-carrying railroad presidents and independent operators make clear that in holding such a conference it is with representatives of the hard-coal mine workers as employees and not as members of the United Mine Workers of America, a distinction which the operators have insisted upon from the beginning. But this distinction is more nominal than real, inasmuch as the representatives of the anthracite employees in the conference will be the duly chosen officials and committeemen of the mine workers' union, and they will no doubt be content with this substance of recognition. President Mitchell, the official head of the United Mine Workers of America, who is to be at the conference as a representative of the anthracite employees, is not likely to force to an issue at this time the form of recognition, and in consequence we believe the public can rest assured of an outcome to the negotiations which will maintain industrial peace. Thus, after a lapse of more than thirty years, it seems probable that the anthracite coal industry is again to enter upon the experiment of regulating the relation of employers and employees by means of the trade agreement machinery, but this time under conditions more favorable to its permanency. Under the able leadership of John Siney, the head and guiding spirit of the Workingman's Benevolent Association (afterwards known under a charter as the Miners' and Laborers' Benevolent 'Association), the trade agreement machinery was first established in the anthracite industry in 1868, and continued in operation until about 1874. The agreement covering wages and conditions of employment was entered into annually in a joint conference between duly elected representatives of the Association and of the Anthracite Board of Trade of the Schuylkill Coal Region (the organization of the operators), its principal feature being the sliding scale, an arrangement governing wages very similar to the sliding scale award of the Anthracite Coal Strike Commission, and after which the latter is patterned. This early trade agreement machinery in the anthracite coal industry gave to us what is believed to be the first signed joint agreement in the coal-mining industry of the United It was entered into between representatives of the two interests at a meeting held at Pottsville in 1870. But this early trade agreement machinery was naturally crude, and was further weakened by Siney's withdrawal from the leadership of the anthracite miners to become the head of the Miners' National Association. Neither the operators nor mine workers were organized sufficiently to assure its permanency; industrial conditions upon the entrance of the railroads as mine-owners were unfavorable to its continuance, and, combined with the bloody depredations of the "Molly Maguires," tended to its overthrow, the last joint conference between employers and employees in the anthracite industry being held in 1874.

8

A Favorable
Outlook

Present industrial conditions are more favorable to the successful operation of the trade agreement machinery once it is re-established in the anthracite in-

dustry. Both the mine workers and the operators are more strongly organized than in the former period; the trade agreement machinery itself has been greatly improved during the past quarter of a century; and social organization as well as industrial conditions, particularly along the line of production, emphasize to-day more than they did in 1870 the absolute necessity of some such method for insuring industrial stability and the peaceable conduct of our great industries. Besides, the public has been educated in industrial affairs to a point where it will demand in the future that methods other than brute force or strikes shall determine and govern the relations between employers and employees. Such a prospect for the anthracite industry is further forecast by prevailing conditions in the central competitive soft-coal territory (Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, and western Pennsylvania), where the trade agreement plan has been in successful operation since 1898. The eighth Inter-State Joint Conference representing the mine employees and operators of these States is now in session at Indianapolis for the purpose of entering into an agreement for the scale year beginning on April 1. In this Conference the United Mine Workers is recognized as a contracting party, and the agreement is signed by its officials on behalf of the mine employees of this territory. The policy the miners' officials are to follow was, in fact, formulated by the Convention of the United Mine Workers which met at Indianapolis ten days previous to the assembling of the Conference. This organization now exercises jurisdiction over both anthracite and bituminous coal mine workers, having a total membership exceeding 304,500, of which number over 80,000 are hard-coal mine employees. Ten years ago, in 1896, the total membership of the organization was only The present strength of this 9,617. trade union is further indicated in Secretary Wilson's announcement at the Convention, that the various treasuries— National, district, sub-district, and local -contain more than \$2,680,000. the support of its members engaged in strikes the past year in the coal fields

of Pennsylvania, Alabama, Tennessee, West Virginia, etc., the union expended more than \$753,724. The referendum vote of the members resulted in the reelection of John Mitchell as President, who thus enters upon his eighth consecutive term as the head of one of the largest and strongest trade unions in the country.

Chicago's Municipal Ownership Fight Mayor Dunne, of Chicago, is at last having his own way with his municipal

ownership programme. The City Council, which has heretofore been in opposition, has suddenly veered to the Mayor's side, and on January 19 it passed two ordinances which the Mayor has been advocating. One was to authorize the issue of \$75,000,000 in Mueller Law certificates for the purpose of purchasing or constructing a municipal street railway This ordinance will go to a referendum at the April election, and if approved by popular vote will thereupon be in effect. The other ordinance provides for submitting the question of municipal operation, which under the Mueller Law must be placed before the electors as a separate proposition. In order to carry, the municipal operation proposition must be supported by threefifths of those voting thereon. ordinance authorizing the issue of certificates will go into effect if approved by the majority of those acting thereon. This sudden action upon the municipal ownership ordinances came as a surprise to Mayor Dunne as well as to the community, and is the culmination of a bitter fight that has been waging between the Mayor and the Council. Mayor Dunne did not from the outset display great tact or conspicuous executive capacity in giving effect to his plans. He was soon at war with the Council, the majority of which openly took issue with his various municipal ownership plans and proceeded to negotiate franchise-renewal ordinances with the existing companies, intending to submit the ordinances to popular vote before they should become effective. The ordinances as drawn carried a twenty-year franchise renewal, with a reservation to the city of the right to

purchase after ten years. In their detailed provisions these ordinances were objectionable not only to the municipal ownership advocates but as well to many believers in the policy of franchise renewal. The companies evinced a disposition not to accept suggested amendments. Nevertheless, it was decided to have the Council in committee of the whole formulate its views for submission to the companies for final acceptance or rejection.

The "Gray Wolves". At this meeting af-

fairs took a very Peculiar Action peculiar turn. It is the boast of Chicago that it has an honest City Council, but there are remaining in that body of seventy members about a dozen Aldermen of the old-time gang type, commonly referred to as "gray wolves." It was this "gray wolf "contingent—that was believed to be looking without success for bribes to aid the franchise renewals—that turned the tide in favor of Mayor Dunne and his municipal ownership measures. One of these Aldermen moved the substitution of the Mayor's municipal ownership ordinances for the franchise-renewal ordinances. The motion prevailed by a vote of thirty-six to twenty-eight. Council thereupon rose from committee of the whole and passed the Mayor's ordinances forthwith. The sudden reversal in attitude of the "gray wolf" Aldermen had changed the Mayor's minority in the Council to a majority. While the radical municipal ownership advocates were greatly elated over the victory, there is in Chicago considerable disquietude over the sudden haste in dealing with this important subject and the procedure by which the victory was attained. There are those who think that the "gray wolves" acted in the interest of the traction companies, by proposing the least practicable plan for municipal ownership and the one least likely to be carried through with success. The proposed ordinances will be subjected to considerable litigation before results can be obtained under them. The entire certificate feature of the Mueller Law-which authorizes the issuing of certificates that shall be a lien only on the property, and

not be a debt of the city, subject to the constitutional limitation on municipal indebtedness-is admittedly experimental and of uncertain constitutionality. In addition, some critics of this ordinance claim that it is not drawn in conformity with the Mueller Law and is therefore illegal on its face even if the Mueller Law itself be constitutional. Many also contend that this particular ordinance was not the best of several plans proposed by Mayor Dunne for bringing about municipal ownership. While there is a disposition in many quarters to blame Mayor Dunne and his adherents for confusing an already tangled situation, there is another side to the matter. The private traction interests in Chicago, by their stubborn refusal to deal fairly with the city, have done more than any other agency possibly could do to fan the flames of radicalism. The conservative elements generally, both in the City Council and in the community, instead of recognizing that municipal ownership must inevitably come sooner or later and taking the leadership of that movement and trying to direct it aright, have tried to thwart the well-known will of the majority of the people as expressed on several occasions.

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Unheralded to the The Imperial public, though di-Chinese Commission rectly accredited by the Emperor of China to the President of the United States, the Imperial Chinese Commission have surprised the country by their quiet arrival. The dignity of the Commissioners and the great importance of their mission were recognized in advance by our Government, which not only sent orders to its officers at San Francisco and Chicago to offer the Commission every attention and facility, but sent Professor Jeremiah W. Jenks, of Cornell University, as its special representative to meet them and conduct them to Washington. The Mayor of *Chicago announced their coming to the city by arrangements for their civic reception and itinerary befitting the high rank and purpose of the Commissioners. The two Viceroys were attended by twenty high-class officials and educators, some

of whom won their degrees in the universities of this country and Europe. At the head of the Commission is Tuan-Fang, the Chinese hero of the Boxer rebellion, whose independent and courageous disobedience of the Imperial edict to kill all foreigners of his province of Shensi, strangely enough, led to his subsequent promotion to be the Governor of two provinces with thirty millions of inhabitants. He is one of the few progressive leaders who are initiating and furthering the amazing movement for constitutional government in China. prepare the way for it two commissions have been sent to study the constitutions and institutions of the representative governments in America and Europe. one now here goes to Germany, Belgium, Russia, and Italy. Another, under Prince Tsai-Chen, follows to England, France, Holland, and Switzerland. The impressions received and given again by the Commissioners at Chicago indicate the momentous importance of this new movement of China, and the spirit of the men who are carrying it on and out. The commercial value of their visit to such great industries as our packinghouses, harvester works, and steel plants is obvious. But the significance of their incisive insight into our charitable, reformatory, educational, and social agencies appeals to the higher hope for human progress in China. When, after their three crowded days of observation. they were asked what most impressed them in Chicago, the reply of the Viceroy, Tuan-Fang, was most hopefully significant: "Public care of the insane, the house where the lady was [meaning Miss Adams, at Hull House, and the Young Men's Christian Association building.' Their wise and courteous silence regarding our unjust personal discrimination against their whole race, which men of such caliber and culture must deeply resent, only emphasizes the National necessity of the belated turn which American sentiment is taking toward a more just and generous attitude in our relations to the Chinese. Our reversion to the higher type of American ideals is coming not a day too soon, if the people of the United States are to exert the influence upon the commercial, educational, social, political, not to say religious, progress of China which its people and the world have the right to expect of us.

"The Father-in-Law of Europe"

On Monday afternoon of this week Christian IX., King

of Denmark, died. He passed away suddenly, but quietly, surrounded by his children and grandchildren. There had been so little indication of his approaching end that on Monday morning he gave long audiences, lasting three hours. Christian IX. was born in 1818. was a prince of the house of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Glücksburg. At an early age he married Princess Louise, the daughter of the Landgrave of Hesse-For many years there seemed little prospect that the young prince would ever become King of Denmark; but finally, in 1852, as the reigning King, Frederic VII., was childless, the Danish succession became an object of some anxiety to the European powers. A meeting of plenipotentiaries was held in London to discuss the matter, and concluded that, as Princess Louise was the nearest heir, her husband should be A Danish law thereupon the next King. declared him heir to the throne. most important event of the King's reign was when Holstein and a part of Schleswig were claimed by Germany. German force occupied those territories. The King hoped for help from Great Britain, but, receiving none, was obliged to come to terms with the conqueror. Those were disastrous days for Denmark, but the King did not allow himself to be overborne by circumstance. granted a new Constitution in 1866, put his army and navy upon a new foundation, promoted the construction of railways, and did all in his power to stimulate agriculture and commerce. was no easy task, since the Danes long carried their resentment at the outcome of the war to the absurd length of holding their monarch in some degree responsible. That the King was able to become popular, despite all this, showed his admirable temper of mind and resoluteness of purpose. Moreover, his exemplary domestic life endeared him increasingly to his people. of those who have visited Copenhagen have seen the King, generally accom-. panied by one of his sons, but otherwise quite unattended, walking in the Tivoli Gardens or in some other popular promenade, the recipient of spontaneous and affectionate attention from all his subjects. The King and Queen enjoyed such a long and unclouded term of domestic felicity as is rare in the history of crowned heads. In 1892 they celebrated their golden wedding; six years later the Queen died. As is fitting, their children have come to constitute perhaps the most remarkable of all royal families. The Crown of Denmark now worthily descends upon their eldest son; their second son well fills his difficult position as King of Greece; their eldest daughter, Alexandra, is the deservedly popular Oueen of England; their second daughter has exercised great influence as Empress and now ex-Empress of Russia; their third daughter is the wife of the Duke of Cumberland, the heir to the throne of Hanover, set aside by the German Emperor. The eldest son of the new King of Denmark is, of course, Crown Prince, and his brother has just become King of Norway. All these and the other children and grandchildren of Christian IX, have become closely connected by marriage with many royal and semi-royal families of Europe. But in the ultimate analysis the King's claim upon Europe rested not so much upon these family connections as upon his own character. His was perhaps the most honored figure in the group of European monarchs.

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Last week attention was directed to a country about which little has been heard of late. It was with surprise that one read last week of a revolution at Teheran, the capital of Persia, involving the surrender of the Shah, the Persian ruler, to the demand for a national assembly. The surprise was the greater when it was learned that the revolutionists numbered only a thousand, and were mainly composed of Mullâs, the peculiarly popular and democratic Mohammedan priests—for any person

capable of reading the Koran and interpreting its laws may act as a priest of this order. As soon, however, as such a priest becomes known for his peculiarly just interpretation of the divine law and for his knowledge of traditions and articles of faith, he is called a Mujtahid, or Chief Priest. Now, while there are many Mujtahids in Persia, sometimes several in one town, there are only four or five whose decisions are accepted as final. It is supposed, therefore, that among the revolutionists there must have been one or more out of the four or five priests of supreme influence. Perhaps no priesthood is more powerful than the Ulema, or Persian. It is fiercely national. It has steadily worked against progress coming from Europe. It is far more powerful over the people than is the authority of the Shah, as is instanced in the event of last week, and as is shown by the action of the Persian army, which has now refused to act against the revolutionists. A principal reason for this religious influence as distinguished from the Shah's is the fact that the Persian monarch and his Government have no voice in the matter of appointing the Mujtahids. Perhaps the Mujtahids and the Mullas have been acting against some infringement of their own privileges; at all events, their hatred of everything foreign has lately been accentuated by the joint demonstration of the Powers against Turkey, the troubles in connection with Morocco, and the Russian operations against the Mohammedan tribes in the Caucasus.

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By far the most impor-Russian tant event during the Political Parties past week in Russia was the decision reached by the convention of the Constitutional Russian Democratic party declaring Russia to be a constitutional parliamentary monarchy. The fact that there are many avowed republicans in this party made this decision momentous, not only for the preservation of some kind of monarchy in Russia, but, in view of the loyalty of soldiers and peasants, for the preservation of the present dynasty. A majority in the convention concurred in acknowledging that to persist in demanding a republic would lead

to military rule, a dictatorship, and a long postponement of coveted reforms. The part of wisdom, therefore, was to discard political theories wherever they came in conflict with practical wisdom; in other words, the Constitutional Democrats voted to make the most of what they could get. This decision puts their party on practically the same plane as that occupied by the Constitutional Monarchists and by other wings of the great Liberal party, and the Witte Ministry is strengthened as it has not been since its accession to power. Broad-minded as the Prime Minister's ideas may be, however, they are in apparent conflict with those actually carried out by his Minister of the Interior, Durnovo, who has now exhausted the present accommodations in all the great centers of population, and has made demands upon the Government barracks, railway and customs sheds, to shelter his political police. Furthermore, it is charged that a very large majority of the arrests are made solely on the grounds of political propagandizing and not because of any part taken in the bomb campaign, the detentions coming under a section of the old code which makes it a criminal offense to participate in any movement for a change in the form of government. It is further charged by the sympathizers with those under arrest that many have been in iail for months without indictment and These things have led to the suspicion among the laboring classes that the Durnovo mode of securing an acceptable Duma, or Parliament, is to put the men whom Radicals and Socialists would select in jail until after the election. Persistence in carrying out the methods of such an apparently reactionary Minister as Durnovo, under a Liberal Premier like Count Witte, would make the Duma a term of derision among the laboring classes and destroy the last vestige of confidence in the Czar's sincerity.

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The United States at Algeciras, Spain, the International Conference "marked time" in providing a solution of the first question before it—

that of contraband. As was anticipated, France, with hundreds of thousands of French citizens across the border in Algeria, and Spain, which lies across the Strait of Gibraltar and has a little concession-settlement in Morocco proper, have received special rights and privileges in the maintenance of tranquillity on their respective borders. The consideration of economic and financial reforms in Morocco has now begun, and leads directly to the disputed points between France and Germany; and it is pleasant to read that our ambassadors at Algeciras are making the weight of America felt in quiet endeavors to bring France and Germany closer together. The reasons for the presence of our representatives at Algeciras were very clearly stated last week in Congress by Senator Spooner. He showed that there is no lack of precedent for the appointment of American delegates to a Moroccan conference. When we were colonies of Great Britain, she protected our commerce in the Mediterranean; when we were thrown on our own resources, the Barbary pirates destroyed and annihilated our trade, and we appealed to France for protection; France declined to grant this, but offered to use her good offices; in 1787 we made a treaty with Morocco protecting our commercial interests, and another in 1836, and still another, the existing treaty, in 1880. The assertion that we must not enter into a conference called for commercial purposes, but into which political questions may enter, the Senator from Wisconsin declared, is an intimation that we are afraid to enter into a conference as the peer of the other nations. Are we to confess that we dare not send delegates to international conferences to protect American interests for fear that they will not know when to withdraw? With Senator Spooner, most Americans, we think, believe that the President of the United States, who hit upon the psychological moment to intervene and bring to an end the deplorable war between Russia and Japan, can be trusted to determine the psychological moment when our ambassadors must withdraw from the Moroccan Conference in order to save

this country from all danger of unfortunate European entanglement, should such a moment come to pass. Finally, Mr. Spooner announced what is generally not known, that two of the Great Powers had declined to be represented at Algeciras unless all the signatories to the existing Moroccan treaty took part, the inference being that if America had not accepted the invitation to participate in the Conference there might have been no conference at all, only an increase of difficulty in an unfortunate but remediable international situation.

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In the history of so young an Mozart art as music a hundred and fifty years mark a long period. It was but a little over a hundred and fifty years ago that Bach died, and just a hundred and fifty years ago last Saturday that Mozart was born. Since that time the art of music has developed as no other fine art has ever done in such an interval. The most daring innovations of those days seem almost as archaic as Egyptian sculpture; and the musical commonplaces of to-day would seem to the men of that day meaningless cacophony. In spite of Beethoven and Schumann and Brahms and Tschaïkowsky, symphonies and quartettes of Mozart are alive and vigorous; in spite of Weber and Verdi and Wagner, operas by Mozart are not only far from obsolete -they are immensely popular. Mozar.'s music, fresh, happy, vigorous, and beautifully organized, does not, it is true, rouse the emotions of present-day audiences as it once did; yet it is noteworthy that so emotional, tragical, despairing a nature as Tschaïkowsky found in Mozart's music that which enthralled him as the music of no other composer did. The sesqui-centennial of Mozart's birth was celebrated in all parts of the world. In Germany it was marked by Mozart programmes and performances of Mozart operas; but Mozart's genius is universal and holds its sway over many lands. In the United States concert and opera programmes last week almost everywhere bore Mozart's name. In Boston Mr. Gericke contrasted Mozart with the modern Russian Glazounoff: in New

York many concerts were devoted to his memory, not least that of the Russian Symphony Orchestra, under the direction of Mr. Modest Altschuler, which departed from its custom by admitting a non-Russian composition to its programme, contrasting Mozart with Tschaikowsky; and in Chicago, where the Thomas Orchestra, of which Mr. Stock is conductor, performed a concert half of which consisted of Mozart compositions, and the other half contained Tschaikowsky's "Mozartiana" suite. We cannot always live in the shadows, even if they allure by their mystery and their suggestion of romance and deep experience; we need also the light, and in Mozart we have it with full radiance.

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General Wheeler Few Americans were held in greater personal regard than General Joseph Wheeler, who died in Brooklyn on Thursday of last week in his seventieth year. had fought in two wars, and in both he had distinguished himself by gallantry. At the close of the Civil War, although he was only twenty-nine years of age, he was a Lieutenant-General and the senior cavalry officer in the Confederate service. After the full interval of a generation he led the United States cavalry as Major-General of Volunteers in the campaign in Cuba. In serving under the flag against which he had once fought he was only carrying out the spirit of the greatest of the Confederate leaders, and interpreting at the end of a generation the attitude which General Lee had taken in recognizing the logic of events and loyally co-operating with new conditions. In two or three places in the South General Wheeler was condemned for accepting service in the United States army, but he lived to put his critics in the wrong. Nothing has done more to bind the North and the South together than a common service under one flag against a common enemy in the war with Spain. General Wheeler had long been regarded in the North as a type of the gallant Southerner; his dash and brilliant activity in the Cuban war made him a popular hero, and as much probably as any Southern man of his time he has brought into cordial relations with the Government that influential class in the South who once served in arms against it. The Confederacy had no braver soldier or more faithful servant, nor has the South had a truer friend and a wiser counselor than General Wheeler proved to be in the later years of his life. was not a great commander like Lee, but he was a brilliant and resourceful cavalry leader, of fiery energy and inspiring gallantry. He was one of the men who made the country aware that the days of sectionalism were ended. soldier by education and profession, he became later a lawyer and a cottonplanter; he had considerable experience in politics, and was twice elected to the House of Representatives. He was also an industrious writer, the author of a number of historical books, of a series of monographs, and of many articles in magazines. He was heard on many public occasions, especially at dinners, and was always received with a welcome which evinced the warmest admiration for his personality as well as for his distinguished record. He had become a National figure, and will be greatly missed: he was the last survivor of the conspicuous leaders in the Civil War, and his going marks the end of an era.

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At the meeting of the Arm-Fisk and strong Association in New Tuskegee York last week Dr. Booker T. Washington stated in a single sentence the problem for which the solution is sought through negro education: "Since we are to forever constitute a part of the citizenship of this country," said he, "there is but one question to be answered: Shall we be among the best citizens, or among the worst?" There are, as a matter of fact, very few people, North or South, who would deliberately prefer to keep the negroes among the degraded classes; but there are a great many who think that education has done little to elevate them. For that reason it is not without significance that, in spite of indifference, such institutions as Hampton, Fisk, and Tuskegee are continually growing, not only in material prosperity, but in educational efficiency.

This year marks the fortieth anniversary of Fisk University. It was celebrated at Nashville by exercises lasting for three days. Fisk has contributed very largely to the supply of colored teachers, as well as to the number of negroes in medicine, law, and the ministry, and has therefore performed a very great service. It has undertaken, as The Outlook has reported, an enlargement of its function by adding a department of applied science, thus recognizing more than ever before the value of practical knowledge in education. At the celebration it was announced that money had been pledged for the new building required, and that the alumni were cooperating in the attempt to raise an endowment. In New York last week the Armstrong Association recognized the twenty-fifth anniversary of Tuskegee Institute. At the meeting Mr. Joseph H. Choate, Mr. Samuel L. Clemens, whom everybody knows as Mark Twain, and Mr. Robert C. Ogden, besides Dr. Washington himself, addressed a crowded audience. The celebration at Tuskegee itself will take place in April and will consist of an exhibition of its history, of the work of its students and graduates. of its extension work, of negro music, and of the progress of the negro in general, and will include addresses by prominent men of both races. Tuskegee needs \$1,800,000 for its endowment, and it is hoped that this amount may be raised this year. The white people of the South have sturdily withstood all attempts to break down the public education of the negroes and have borne their burden strongly. There is, therefore, a special obligation upon the people of the North to give to such institutions as Hampton, Fisk, and Tuskegee a hearty financial support. The task is the Nation's task, and the Nation ought, and we believe will, perform it.

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Indian
Church Schools:
the Way Out

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the Way Out

As our readers will remember, all Congressional appropriations for Indian schools under ecclesiastical control were discontinued by Congressional act, by a series of diminishing appropriations, and in accordance with a policy settled and

announced some years ago. Notwithstanding this, the practice grew up in the Department of allowing, under restrictions, the appropriation of certain trust funds under the control of the Department to church schools upon the request of the Indians. After consideration, the President ordered this practice continued until it was negatived either by the courts or by act of Congress. His recognition of the fact that it might be negatived by the courts was tantamount to an acknowledgment that the legality of such an appropriation was doubted, and in point of fact this was the case. In his last report the Commissioner of Indian Affairs prescribed very careful regulations to prevent the perpetration of frauds upon the Indians in the endeavor of church representatives to secure the consent of Indians to the use of their moneys in church schools. these regulations being provided in compliance with the President's direction that "care must be taken, of course, to see that any petition by the Indians is genuine, and that the money appropriated for any given school represents only the pro rata proportion to which the Indians making a petition are entitled." It is our opinion that any one reading these regulations would find an additional and weighty argument against the policy which the President is pursuing in this matter in the very fact that it is necessary to make such an elaborate provision to prevent fraud. We do not need here to repeat the more fundamental reasons which we have given to our readers from time to time against that policy; it is enough to say that the true way out is indicated by two bills now before Congress. The first is the Stephens bill, which explicitly provides that no trust funds shall be used for purposes of education in any sectarian or denominational schools. This bill is simply an extension of the principle that Congress has already adopted, and may almost be said to have been suggested by the President's phrase that the practice of giving such appropriations "will be continued unless the Congress should decree to the contrary." The other measure is the Lacey bill, which authorizes the President in his discretion from time to time to designate

such Indian tribes as he may deem to be sufficiently advanced in civilization to be prepared to manage their own money, and shall thereupon cause the money held in trust for such tribes to be allotted in severalty to the members thereof. These two bills, supplementing each other, would take this troublesome question out of politics. There is very good reason why the United States Government should not, directly or indirectly, make, for the benefit of church schools, any appropriations out of any funds, however they may be held; but there is no reason why Indians who are sufficiently intelligent to determine how their money should be spent should not have their money given to them and be left to spend it in their own discretion. uously as The Outlook is opposed to any connection between the Government and the church schools, it is inclined to advise Indians, where they can do so, to send children to schools of their own religious faith, and to pay for the tuition out of their own funds.

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At last some one has Punishment for the been punished for Slocum Disaster the disaster to the excursion steamer General Slocum which brought death to a thousand people more than a year and a half ago. The captain of that craft has been adjudged guilty of criminal neglect in not providing effective fire drills for his crew, and has been sentenced to ten years in State's prison. He is sixty-eight years of age; his punishment is practically life imprisonment; he will appeal; but he is convicted and sentenced. At the time of the wreck he displayed courage and fidelity; but then it was too late. His punishment ought not to be considered as the less deserved because others have taken the risks he took and have escaped the consequences. Rather his punishment ought to be regarded as an example of what in justice ought to be the fate of every man who, like him, has recklessly put in peril the lives of helpless human beings on the water. If the captain deserves such chastising, what ought to be required of those officers of the company which owned the steamer for permitting such an inflammable vessel to be ill protected and for supplying it, not only with an inadequate number of life-preservers, but with so-called life-preservers which were actually weights dragging their victims more surely to death? Some of these officers have been indicted. The warning has now been given to the captains of excursion steamers; let it be no less clearly sounded in the ears of their owners and managers.



In characteristic fashion Football Reform the West has undertaken in the West the reform of football by proposing constructive measures in a radical spirit. Representatives of nine Western universities—the "Big Nine" they are called in athletic circles-met last week in conference. This is the roll of honor: Chicago, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Michigan, Minnesota, Northwestern, Purdue, Wisconsin. The radical spirit of this conference was shown in passing among its resolutions the following article: "That the game of football, as played at present, is hereby abolished as an intercollegiate and collegiate contest in the conference colleges." itself that resolution would have put those universities in the same category with Columbia and Harvard. That resolution, however, was very far from being by itself. It was incidental to one of eleven resolutions making positive and practical recommendations which will go into effect as soon as they are ratified by the respective universities. The conference describes at length the evils of present-day American football. These it divides into two classes: those inherent in the present rules, and those attendant upon "the general raising of the game into a thing of absorbing and sometimes hysterical public and collegiate interest." These latter in particular it describes as extravagance, multiplicity of games, unreal ideals (engendering intercollegiate bitterness, suspicion, and trickery), professional coaching independent of faculty control (which accounts for the pressure put upon teams to win at all hazards), and false loyalty of alumni exhibited in money contributions and in recruiting of students for the sake of athletic prestige. The conference therefore recommends that intercollegiate contests be greatly reduced in number, limited to the three upper classes of undergraduates, and confined to varsity teams, that the football season be shortened, that admission fees be reduced. that training tables and preliminary training be discontinued, and eligibility be more clearly defined. As to the rules of the game, the conference awaits the conclusions of the Rules Committee recently organized; but in default of sufficient modifications from that source, it recommends that the conference itself appoint a committee to draw up rules of Most important of all, the conference declares that the faculty shall control the conduct of football, both in the matter of coaching (thus establishing the ethical standards of play) and in the matter of financial management (thus establishing the ethical standards of athletic support). The resolutions on this particular subject are as follows:

That hereafter there shall be no coaching except by regularly employed members of the instructional staff, approved by the trustees of the university on recommendation of the faculty; and that the salary attached to the position shall be no greater than that paid to other members of the faculty of similar rank.

That the conference colleges take steps to reduce the receipts and expenditures. That the athletic surplus be devoted, as far as possible, to permanent university improvement. That the financial management of athletics be entirely in the control of the faculty, who shall publish all reports of receipts and expenditures.

It is also stated on the authority of Professor Albion W. Small, of the University of Chicago, that it was understood that hereafter the schedule of games should be so arranged as to do away with a contest for championship. These admirable recommendations will, it is expected, be approved. In that case the abolition of football, or its suspension for two years, as suggested by the conference, would not be operative. The colleges and universities of the East, hampered by a spirit of conservative individualism, ought not only to take courage, but also to derive instruction, from this Western conference.

Preying on the Rich

The acquittal of Mr. Norman Hapgood, the editor of "Collier's Weekly," in the proceedings for criminal libel brought against him on the complaint of Justice Deuel, is a practical conviction of Justice Deuel and "Town Topics" upon the charge that Justice Deuel was "part owner and editor of a publication which disseminated scandals about people who were not cowardly enough to pay for silence." For Mr. Hapgood, the editor, and Mr. Collier, the publisher, assumed full responsibility for this charge, and Mr. Hapgood was acquitted by the jury, after only seven minutes' deliberation, on the ground that the charge was fully proved by the evidence. With this verdict the public agree. The only acceptable course for Justice Deuel is to retire from the bench, and for Colonel Mann is to retire "Town Topics" from publication. That either will do so is not at this writing indicated.

The follies of the silly rich and the cowardice of the criminal rich have long been a theme for satirists; but neither have ever been more effectively exposed than in this trial. And the probabilities are that the exposures are not yet ended, for Colonel Mann, the publisher of "Town Topics," has been arrested on a charge of perjury, and there are intimations that other prosecutions growing out of this publication are to follow. The evidence already before the public has proved that "Town Topics" has depended for its profits, if not for its existence, upon trading on the fears of a few society people in whose lives there have been incidents which they do not desire the public to know, on the apprehensions of some timid people who dreaded lest their names should appear in this disreputable sheet, and on the ignorance of some silly people who imagined that it was a society paper in whose columns it was a social advantage to appear. The criminal and the timid rich paid for silence; the ignorant and silly rich for self-advertisement. Hereafter the words of "Town Topics" will be neither an object of dread to the first nor of desire to the second.

So long as a certain group of people

in so-called society have no other object in life than amusing themselves by inanities, vulgarities, and occasional immoralities, the basis for the prosperity of such journals as "Town Topics" will exist. But the criminal rich, the timid rich, and the silly rich constitute a very small proportion of the entire rich. These people do not in any sense constitute real society; for society in any true sense of the term is the companionship of men and women of wide interests and intelligence. The kind of society with which "Town Topics" has dealt has been mainly the companionship of men and women without education, culture, taste, or character. This group does not represent New York society as a whole; it is only a section of that society. Nor as a section is it confined to New York; it is found in every city of any size in the world; and, if the reports of well-informed people are to be believed, it presents more obnoxious features in some smaller cities than in the metropolis. Such a Yournal as "Town Topics" lives and thrives because supposedly decent men and women are willing to buy and read it. Hereafter the people who buy and read it will not be supposedly decent.

The commendation and gratitude of the public are due to both the editor and the publisher of "Collier's Weekly" for the courageous service which they have rendered to the public.

The English Elections

The membership of the new British Parliament is now substantially made up. and the result is one of the most sweeping victories which any political party has ever secured in Great Britain. The Liberals will have as great a number of men on the benches of the new House as any party has ever succeeded in seating in Westminster Hall. For three years the Liberal leaders have been declaring that the country was steadily coming their way; for the past year men like Mr. Morley and Mr. Bryce, who do not speak except upon mature consideration, have declared that the coming election would return the Liberals to power; but the most optimistic Liberal has not dreamed of so overwhelming a victory, nor has the most pessimistic Conservative imagined so disastrous a defeat. All the members of the Liberal Ministry were seated without the least difficulty, while seven members of the recent Unionist Ministry were defeated, including Mr. Balfour, who will get into the new House of Commons by the courtesy of a Conservative who has resigned a seat in London in order to provide for it. Alone among the leaders of the defeated party Mr. Chamberlain will carry into the new House something of his old prestige. The seven members elected from Birmingham, whom he will head, represent the little group around the leader who were not overborne and swept out of existence by the tremendous tide of Liberalism.

It is too early to interpret the full significance of this sweeping Liberal victory, but there are indications that it is not only a great party success, but that some of its results are likely to be revolutionary. England stands pledged. for the time being at least, to freedom The great principle for which she has stood as a leader she has refused by an overwhelming majority to abandon. Every attempt to put into the back ground the issue which Mr. Chamberlain raised and for which he fought with characteristic courage and audacity, the issue which Mr. Balfour evaded—now to reap the usual fruits of evasion—has disastrously failed. The British voters refused to be misled by the various attempts to divert their attention from the fundamental issue by pushing other issues, like Home Rule, to the fore. was pointed out in these columns several weeks ago, Canada has refused to accept Mr. Chamberlain's protection policy, and now the people of Great Britain, after a long series of local expressions of opinion through by-elections, have answered with a tremendous "no" his proposal to change British commercial policy.

Other elements, of course, contributed to this sweeping decision. The cry of Chinese slavery in the Transvaal has aroused for months past the bitterest antagonism among the Liberals and elicited indignant opposition from many Conservatives as well. What the Con-

servatives in the days of Gladstone used to call derisively the Nonconformist conscience, one of the most valuable political as well as moral assets of Great Britain, has been aroused by the Conservative policy towards coolie labor in South Africa, and that policy has been repudiated as marking a departure from fundamental British principles. educational legislation of the Unionists has called out widespread protest against what Nonconformists of all kinds regard as gross injustice. It must be remembered, moreover, that for two or three years past the lassitude and uncertainty of Mr. Balfour's leadership have been increasingly disappointing to the country. The English love above everything else a clear and definite position; they resent any kind of sophistication; they dislike fine distinctions in politics; they insist upon sharp definition of issues. These were precisely the qualities which Mr. Balfour lacked. man of greater personal charm, except Lord Rosebery, or of more thoroughly trained mind, has ever been at the head of the English Government than Mr. Balfour, but his failure to meet the issue which Mr. Chamberlain raised fairly and squarely broke his political influence. His skill in dialectics and the great personal regard felt for him made him an adroit and generally successful leader on the floor of the House of Commons: but his lack of decision has fatally handicapped him as a leader in the country at large. British voters have grown weary of the lack of decisive and clear leadership in the Conservative To his courage and the definiteness with which he has stated his position Mr. Chamberlain probably owes his re-election by an increased majority from Birmingham.

The revolutionary aspect of the election is brought out by the sweeping change in the personnel of the membership. More than half the men who will sit on the benches of the new House of Commons will be strangers to its customs and habits. The "Daily Mail," commenting editorially on this fact, describes the election as "the revolution of 1906," and declares that what has been called the first club in Europe has gone,

and expresses the hope that the first business house in Europe may take its place. The workingmen, represented in the last House by six members, will be represented in the new House by a solid body of more than fifty. Not since Simon de Montfort summoned the nobles. clergy, and commoners to sit together in the English Parliament, in the reign of King John in 1265, has a more significant change been wrought in the constitution of that historical body. The advent of the workingman marks the latest stage in one of the most notable evolutions in the political history of the world, and practically completes the representation of the English people of all classes in its great representative body. Ten years ago fifty thousand labor votes, representing all shades of opinion from conservative trades-unionism treme Socialism, were cast without returning any members to the House of Commons; this year more than half a million votes were cast, with the result of returning a body of representatives sufficiently large and important to command a hearing and to count as a factor in the legislative history of the day. It must not beforgotten that no small contribution to this result was made by the Irish vote throughout Great Britain, which in many districts was cast solidly for the Labor candidates under the direction of the United Irish League, which recommended, as reported in these columns at the time, that in all cases where a labor candidate who was sound on the question of Home Rule was in the field, the Irish vote should be cast for him, unless he stood against an old and tried friend of the Irish cause. It is impossible to predict the immediate results on legislation of this immense increase of the representation of the working class; but no one in England questions that it will be very great, and that a new epoch in the Parliamentary history of the country has begun. One of the results in the near future will probably be the granting of some degree of Home Rule to Ireland; for, as a class, the labor men are very sympathetic with the movement to remove restrictions from Ireland, and to give that country greater political and economic liberty. The Liberal triumph

promises to be of far greater significance than an ordinary political party victory.

Shall We Legalize Homicide?

Now that the proposal to legalize the killing of men who are adjudged to be hopelessly ill, and thus put them out of a suffering difficult to endure and sometimes more difficult to witness, has been thought worthy of serious consideration by the Legislature of Ohio, it calls for serious consideration by public journals. The fact that a bill to legalize homicide has been introduced into the Legislature indicates nothing, for apparently legislative etiquette requires the legislator to offer to the body of which he is a member any measure, whatever its character, which any of his constituents submit to him. The fact that this bill has been referred to a committee for consideration by a vote of 78 to 22 indicates very little. For aught the public now knows, every member who voted for such reference did so because he believed the surest method of putting an end for all time to this proposal was to have it given careful consideration. But the fact that it has been so referred makes it wise, if not necessary, to state the objections which to most rational thinkers appear conclusive against this proposal to make homicide lawful.

The objections are not merely the practical ones which occur to any thoughtful man on the first consideration of the subject: that it would open the way for cunning, unscrupulous greed to commit murder which would be very difficult to discover, and for which discovery and punishment would furnish no remedy; that it would tempt some guardians of the sick to rid themselves of their burden, sometimes by deceiving themselves, sometimes by deliberate deception of others; that the sentimentalists who could not endure the sight of suffering would be incited to relieve themselves of the heartbreaking sight by accelerating the death of a sufferer whom a wiser, stronger, and less selfish love might recover to life; that it would in

innumerable cases add to the terrors of the sick-bed by stimulating fears that would be natural even when they were wholly groundless; that it would make the patient often look forward to the visit of the physician with dread instead of with hope, and, by authorizing the doctor to decree the death of his patient, would greatly enhance the difficulty of curing him; that it would make it easy for quacks and charlatans to conceal their failures by contriving to put their patient out of his misery by putting him out of life; that it would ask physicians to exercise a judgment which very few right-minded physicians would be willing to exercise, and would put upon them a responsibility which only the unscrupulous, the light-minded, and the incompetent would be willing to assume. No provisions of the law, however carefully framed, no professional education, however ideal, could adequately guard against these dangers. But were it otherwise, more serious objections remain.

If a law authorizing homicide in order to lessen human suffering were passed, we do not doubt that it would be pronounced unconstitutional by the first court which was called upon to adjudicate upon it. Government in America possesses only delegated powers: and power to kill, except as a punishment for crime, has never been delegated to the government of either the State or the Nation. The Constitution assumes that the right to life, as the right to liberty, is, in the language of the Declaration of Independence, "unalienable." No doubt slaves were often more comfortable in slavery than in freedom; but no man can by any deed contract himself into slavery. As little can he consent to his own death. This unalienable right is assumed as fundamental in that article of the Constitution which declares that "the right of the people to be secure in their persons . . . shall not be violated;" and in that other article which, providing that no person shall be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb for the same offense, carries the necessary implication that he cannot by anyact of government be put once in jeopardy when he has committed no offense.

But a law legalizing homicide would not only violate the provisions of the United States Constitution, it would be subversive of the very foundations of government. Government is based on the right of man to use whatever force is necessary to protect his own person and' property, and the person and property of his neighbor, from wrongdoers. To use for the purposes of destruction that power which was given only for the purposes of protection is to overthrow government and loosen all the bonds of loyalty. If a government will not or cannot protect the lives of its citizens, it is no longer entitled to their allegiance. It is true that government sometimes destroys property, as when it blows up a building in order to check the progress of a great fire. But in this case it destroys some property in order to preserve much more property. It is true that the State sometimes puts the murderer to death. But the only justification for capital punishment is that it is necessary to destroy the life of one guilty man in order to make safe the lives of many innocent men. But for government to destroy life in order to lessen suffering is for it to violate the very principle which gives it the right to exist. Man has a right to destroy life to protect other lives. he has no right to destroy life to prevent suffering. The issues of life and death are not in his hands. They are in the hands of One wiser, stronger, more tender than himself. The law of the ancient Table is but the echo of the universal conscience: Thou shalt not kill. To legalize homicide is to make the State an organized offender against the law of God.

We do not see how any Christian can entertain a doubt upon this subject; if he does, a brief reflection upon his Master's example should suffice to dispel it. If ever anticipation of terrible suffering could justify escape from it by suicide, it would have been justified in Christ's case. He looked forward with certain prevision to those hours of prolonged torture upon the cross. He knew that the sword would pierce through his own mother's heart also. But he faced the anguish with calm resolve. "The cup that my Father giveth me, shall I not drink of it?" he said. And by that consummation of his Passion he did not less for the world of men than by all his teaching. Suffering is the world's medicine. To alleviate it, lessen it, succor the suffering from it, is divine. But to flee from it before God's time by suicide is always cowardly; to destroy the sufferer's life before God's time would be murder.

A Great Lay Order

Comparatively few people in this country are aware of the magnitude and importance of the religious forces directed by the Young Men's Christian Associa-They do not know, unless they happen to have relations with these Associations, the vitality of their methods. the increasing skill with which they are using their instruments, and the great and growing need of their work. The Outlook prints this week the third of a series of studies on the organization, present condition, and prospects of the Association in the United States. though not wholly free from criticism, these articles are in the main a record of remarkable advance as regards the underlying idea, method of work, and conception of opportunity. The writer does not exaggerate when he characterizes the Association as a modern lav order, closely related in spirit and by definite attitude to organized Christianity in all its forms. The Association has an independent existence and is doing work outside the churches of an importance and a magnitude quite as great as that done by many of the churches to which it ministers. It long ago allayed the fears of those who dreaded it as a possible rival of the Church, for it has revealed itself everywhere as a feeder of the Church. But what the Church cannot do in many communities the Young Men's Christian Association does; it is able to lay its hand on hosts of men who will not enter the church doors, and, having brought them within the reach of its influence. it ultimately sends them inside the churches. It has rendered a real service to the Church by broadening its conception of the religious man and of religious interests. The great attention which it has given to physical develop-

ment represents one of its best services, not only to young men but to the Church, and has gone a long way towards destroying the last vestige of the atheistic and divisive mediæval conception of the antagonism between the body and the soul—a warfare to be terminated, not by the humiliation of the body, but by bringing it into subjection to the spirit and making it the instrument of a richer and fuller life. If the early Renaissance was the rediscovery of man and of nature, the later Renaissance has been the rediscovery of the body as the habitation of the soul, and its re-establishment in dignity and worth.

The Association has also allayed the fears of those who saw in it the danger of a pietistic, conventional, and unvirile type of religion, a coming together of men of good intentions but weak in native qualities and force, largely free from temptations because lacking in virility. Whatever ground there may have been for the criticism of the membership of the Young Men's Christian Association as "goody-goody" and anæmic has long ago disappeared from most Associations. Nor has the Association succumbed to the danger foreseen in its early career that its influence would tend too strongly to the seeking of material success, and that its standards would be purely commercial. has sometimes yielded to this influence is true; that in some Associations commercial ideals are too strongly urged and commercial success too constantly emphasized as the end of living is also true. There was no reason why the Young Men's Christian Association should not reflect to a certain extent the aims, opinions, movements, and interests of the country as a whole, and those aims and interests have been, and are likely to be for a long time to come, very definitely stamped by the commercial spirit. But the Association has been saved, as the writer of these articles has pointed out, by its embryonic response to the appeal of the pressing industrial and sociological problems of There are, and will continue the hour. to be, members of the Association whose only interest in it arises from the fact that they can learn in its night and

day schools to earn more money; but many members, under the guidance of the most progressive Secretaries, and the Associations as organizations, are taking up the task of interpreting religion in terms of practical service and of the brotherly spirit. The Association has still a long way to go, but so have the churches. It is of the utmost importance, however, that the men who direct the energies and activities of the Association should define more clearly to themselves and to others the higher ideals for which it stands; and while they endeavor to pave the way to success and to open the doors of opportunity to young men, they should make it their business to interpret success in spiritual terms, and to impress on the young men who come under their influence the highest ideals of unselfish living.

The work of the Young Men's Christian Association has now become so vast, its membership so large, its facilities and instruments so well ordered and so finely adapted to their ends, that it has assumed a great responsibility, and those who appreciate most deeply what it has done are most deeply concerned with the question what it can do in the future. Are the men who are responsible for the broad policy of the Association aware of the greatness of their opportunity? Do they realize fully what can be done with the tools in their hands? Do they understand the meaning of their access to the young men of the country. Are they taking a statesmanlike view of their duty and their prospects? These questions are not asked in the spirit of criticism, but from a deep appreciation of what has been done, and in the earnest hope that the Young Men's Christian Association may command and exert an influence in this direction which will utilize to the utmost an opportunity for religious and ethical training the like of which has perhaps never come in the way of any other lay body. Among all the forces which are to-day at work in American society to build the Nation soundly and solidly on immovable foundations, there is perhaps no force greater than that in the hands of the Young Men's Christian Association.

THE MOROCCAN QUESTION

BY PROFESSOR E. MONTET, D.D.

Dean of the Theological Faculty of the University of Geneva, Switzerland, author of "A Journey in Morocco," etc.

N International Conference of the Powers to settle the Moreccan Question is taking place at Algeciras. Will this Conference really solve the Moroccan problem? We may be permitted to doubt it. For one who is acquainted with the history of Morocco since its entrance into relations with the European Powers there can hardly exist any illusions on this subject. The policy of the Sultan of Fez has always been to play off against each other the interests and selfish ambitions of the Christian States, and in this way to neutralize their influence. It will in all likelihood be the same after the Convention of Algeciras.

When the German Emperor so brusquely intervened at Tangier, he wished to arrest the action of France in her Moroccan projects, and, it must be admitted, he has succeeded. But his political course, it must also be said, is a short-sighted one, and, what is more, it is a policy entirely to be condemned from the superior point of view of the interests of civilization, and from a humanitarian standpoint.

Whoever considers the matter from the latter point of view, which is the only true one, whatever may be going on at the present day in Morocco, will recognize that the deplorable state of things in that country can only be corrected by a single will; that is to say, by the intervention of a single European Power

The experience which the writer has acquired during a number of years past in Moroccan affairs, added to the knowledge which he has of that country as the result of an extended journey of study and exploration (1900–1901), qualifies him to posit certain facts as the basis of the affirmations which he ventures to make.

Morocco, which geographically is only a few hours from Europe, is in point of

civilization removed from it by many centuries, and in passing from France or Spain to this corner of Africa you pass from the twentieth century to the Middle Ages; this is said literally and without figure of speech.

There is not in Morocco any avenue of communication, any railway, any road, any telegraph line. The roads the most traveled (Tangier to Fez, Mazagan to Marrakech, etc.) are simple tracks, good in a flat country with firm ground, and detestable in the mountains or in marshy districts. Outside of these "grand roads" the traveler cuts across the fields and passes where it seems to him best. I have journeyed in the Atlas Mountains, trailing after me some fifteen pack animals bearing baggage, tents, and provisions, having as a guide only my compass and the tracks made by the feet of horses and mules which had previously passed that way. The sole bits of road worthy of the name which I encountered in Morocco, between Larache and Rabat in particular, were remains of Roman roads. In Morocco, a country notable for its numerous watercourses and many large rivers, there are few if any bridges. One may count perhaps half a dozen of them, of large size, in a country a third larger than France. These large bridges are of Roman origin or date from the Middle Ages. I had to cross two of them. One was on the route from Fedhala to Casablanca. It would have been more prudent, with the beasts of burden, to pass over by ford-The other was near ing the stream. Marrakèch (Morocco). The great holes in the roadbed of the bridge warned the traveler to proceed with the greatest caution.

Morocco is a country without administration. Outside the custom-houses which in the ports open to Europeans are actually under the control of France, the taxes are collected in an altogether

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arbitrary fashion. When the Sultan is in need of money, he demands it of his Kaids, governors of provinces, cities, or districts; and the Kaids, bringing pressure to bear on their officials, exact from them double or treble the money needed. In December, 1900, passing through the great market of Souk et-telata, where more than three thousand Moroccans from all parts of southern Morocco were gathered to exchange their products, they came to me and inquired inquired of me, the European traveler newly arrived from the seacoast-if it were true that shortly the supervision and control of the Kaids would be superseded by that of European officials. The i. es seemed happy at the prospect of this change, which they believed imminent.

A country which has neither roads of communication nor a well-regulated administration is a country in which security is precarious. When I traveled in Morocco, the country was in the midst of peace. I was able to proceed from Tangier to Mogador along the coast, from Mazagan to Marrakèch, and to penetrate the great Atlas Mountains from Amizuriz to Dar-Ouled-Emplous, in the province of Haha, in comparative safety. I had nevertheless encountered real dangers, had been attacked once in the country of the Zaira, again at the bridge of Marrakech, and had traversed a province in rebellion against its Kaid. To-day it would be altogether impossible for me to make such a journey.

Morocco is a country in which the administration of justice recalls that of the Middle Ages; a justice expeditious but On arriving at Rabat I barbarous. was shown the spot where, some time previous, three thieves, taken in the act, had been punished. They had cut off a hand and a foot of each of these poor wretches, and left them on the spot without succor of any kind. Two were dead; the third had survived his horrible wounds. At Casablanca I saw a Moroccan both of whose ears had been cut off by a Kadi with his own sword and on the open street, for I know not what offense. And what shall I say of the blind man whose eyes had been put out, and of other mutilated witnesses to the justice of the Sultan? And then, finally, the prisons of Morocco! I camped at Mogador at the foot of the walls of the celebrated prison of that city. At the time of the revolt of Rehamna, in 1895-6, twelve hundred political prisoners were crowded together in this horrible place, fastened one to another in human clusters with heavy chains. These unfortunates were decimated by typhus, by filth unspeakable, and miseries of every kind. It was here that Raisouli was for political reasons chained to the wall for three years, and it was here that he nourished the hatred which he afterwards displayed against the Sultan Abd-el-Aziz in the affair Perdicaris. When I encamped at the foot of these gloomy walls, I heard during the night at regular intervals the cries of the jailers guarding the prisoners, and at times also the laments of these unfortunates, invoking Allah or imploring the grace of the Sultan.

Morocco, finally, is a country in which there is neither an army nor a police, in the European sense of those words, to make its authority respected. We have recently seen how the army has defended the Sultan since Bon-Hamana has begun his insurrection. The Sultan does not venture to come out of Fez; at some kilometers from the capital he would be kidnapped. If ever Morocco is invaded by the armies of a European Power, they will drive before them the regulars of the Sultan. The mountaineers only, of the independent tribes, will resist with tenacity and fierceness, and the Europeans will repeat the experience they had with the Kabyles at the time of the conquest of Algeria. I have attended maneuvers of Moroccan soldiers; they were most pitiful. I have even been present at military exercises conducted without arms. A European officer of artillery told me he had seen Moroccan cannoneers sighting their guns by removing the breech and making use of the barrel of the cannon as a telescope! At Tangier, at the time I stayed there, the artillerymen, deeming their pay insufficient, devoured the tallow which had been given them to grease their guns.

Such illustrations, drawn at hazard from various departments of the public life of the people of Morocco, will show what the state of affairs is in that country, and that everything there is yet to be created and done.

One of my best friends in Morocco, a Counselor of State of the Sultan Abd-el-Aziz, said to me recently that it was necessary to begin the era of reforms in that country by the creation of roads and railways, and by establishing a well-regulated administration and an impartial justice. He was right, but this simple programme implies an entire revolution.

Will a federation of Powers be capable of accomplishing these reforms? It does not seem so to me. The manner in which the concert of European Powers is checkmated by Turkey enables one to foresee a similar hold-up of Europe in Morocco.

In order to accomplish anything it needs a strong will, and a single one. The great colonies which the European States have founded in Africa and in Asia have prospered only when they were under the direction of a single power. The same thing has been true of countries under protectorates. Morocco ought to become a protected country, as is Tunis to-day. This rule is best adapted for the present to the Mussulman countries which fall under European domination. In these countries the great obstacle to European control is the religious question, or Islam. This

question can be solved only by leaving the nominal authority in the person of the Sultan, their religious head. Islam ought to be the holy ground which the Christian does not trench upon. The Mussulmans will consent to resign the government and administration of the country in temporal affairs on condition that their religious faith, their worship, their mosques, and all that belongs to their religion is treated with entire respect and not interfered with.

Does this mean that France or any other European Power can effect a peaceable occupation of Morocco? I should be glad to believe it, but I do not think so. An Arabic proverb tells us: "God has created men for war." The experience of mankind since its origin until now tends to confirm this utterance of the Arabian sage. This is to express the belief that to civilize Morocco will require some volleys of musketry and cannon. But what will this matter if justice, if good government, if personal security and all the benefits of civilization, follow in their train and are implanted there forever! Let us invoke, then, with all our might the hour in which Morocco shall pass under the protectorate of a single European Power. On that day, and on that day only, barbarism will cease to reign in that country, and a future will dawn for its unhappy inhabitants.

RADIANCE

BY STEPHEN VAN RENSSELAER TROWBRIDGE

The mighty master Michael Angelo,
While working with his chisel, oft was known
To place above his head a candle prone,
That every stroke should be within its glow,
That he across his art should never throw
The shadow of himself; but carve each stone
In free accord with promptings from the Throne
To his responsive genius here below.

So may Thy love above my forehead shine
That neither shadows of a weary mood
Nor dark reflections of a sorrowed mind
Shall mar the lives God wills me to refine.
But ever may Thy loving spirit brood
O'er all my daily toil for humankind.

A MODERN LAY ORDER'

BY ERNEST HAMLIN ABBOTT

HEN the man at the club discovers what the subject of this article is, he will probably turn over the pages to find something else to read. To him it suggests the dull, the colorless, the vapid. When he thinks of the Young Men's Christian Association, he naturally pictures to himself a room where a group of innocuous young men are playing checkers, or a hall where an anæmic person with a limp Bible in his hands is exhorting a gathering composed of commonplace young men.

Even if such a picture were really representative once, when the Association was more nearly like its prototype, the original society of drapers' clerks, it is by no means representative now. In one city of the Middle West a very different picture comes to the minds of some of the most successful men when the Young Men's Christian Association is mentioned. They are members of a Gymnasium Club. Down a corridor they see doors opening into a series of compartments. Within one of these compartments a man, wrapped in a blanket robe, is resting after his exercise and bath. Other men are preparing for a game on the gymnasium floor and then a plunge in the pool. An attendant is moving about with the air of quiet efficiency. To others the picture is that of a room in which a couple of gasoline motor-cars are raised, by supports under the axles, several inches from the floor. Around each stands a group of men, one or two with wrenches in their hands. Under one of the cars a man is lying face upward examining the mechanism. They are members of the Automobile To a group of boys in a Western city the Young Men's Christian Association means a room in which the furniture

and the fireplace are their own handiwork and where they gather to read, to plan their games, and to receive, perhaps unconsciously, a good part of their moral training. In a big machine shop once a week, just as the wheels begin to slow down for the noon hour, the men greet with a nod of recognition a newcomer who appears with a bundle under his arm. Taking their dinner-pails, some of them begin their lunch where they are: others gather in one end of the shop; still others set to work distributing song While the men are eating, the visitor chats with one and another; then the men join in a song to the accompaniment of a little portable organ, listen to a direct, homely talk on a religious subject of practical import, and, as the machinery begins the creaking that soon is to grow to a din, return to their places and resume their work. To those men that "shop meeting," a welcome diversion, if nothing more, is the Young Men's Christian Association. A railroad fireman leaves his engine after a night run, makes his way to the Association building, orders a hot meal with steaming coffee, has a smoke in the billiardroom, and then goes up to sleep in a clean bed, glad to escape from the dirty, crowded boarding-houses into a place he can call his own: this is the Association as hundreds of railroad men picture it. To the Japanese soldiers in Manchuria the Young Men's Christian Association, the society bearing the name of an alien religion, is the only place put at their disposal where they can in any comfort read and write.

There is little resemblance between any of these pictures and the scene presented by the gathering of a few drygoods clerks in the purlieus of St. Paul's Cathedral, London, in 1844. Yet out of the latter gathering all the activities which I have illustrated, and scores of others, many equally unlike their original, have sprung. On this continent at least it would be difficult to find a society out-

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¹ This is the third and concluding article of the series on the Young Men's Christian Association, written as a result of travel and observation. The other articles appeared under the titles of "Christian Pagans" and "The Exodus from Philistia," in the issues of The Outlook for December 16 and 30, 1905, respectively. Editorial comment on this series will be found on another page.—The Editors.

wardly resembling the first Association. That was little more than a prayer-meeting, composed of young men in the drapery trade. George Williams, its founder, who died only last November, lived to see the Association become a great lay order, masculine in constituency and character, unchanging in religious impulse, elastic in form, indefatigable in experimenting with methods, free from entanglement with any ecclesiastical body, capable of almost indefinite development, adapted to promote by every means individual and social wholesomeness, morality, goodness, righteousness, and prepared to be the instrument of any man or body of men intent on achieving that end.

Like other living bodies, the Young Men's Christian Association has thus been evolved from a very simple organism to one that is complex. At first a society of clerks, it has become adapted to most diverse classes, groups, and com-The Associations established for railroad men soon became a distinct The nature of the railroad species. employee's calling (unless he is an "office man") requires him to live much of his time away from his family. Association provided him with a home away from home. The Army and the Navy branches similarly became differentiated from the ordinary Associations by conforming to the conditions of the soldier's and the sailor's life. College Associations, finding already in colleges certain common instruments used by Associations, such as the gymnasium, the library, and the club-room, met the exigency by developing in other directions. At Harvard, for instance, the Association has been the leader in organizing the philanthropic activities of students. At Yale it is in effect the college undenominational church. Where large factories exist, industrial Associations, so called, have been formed with special reference to the use of workingmen. Associations conducted for colored young men have thrived. Special Associations have also been organized for Indians and for foreigners. Of such as these it is possible for me here only to make mention, to indicate the many modern ramifications of the Association

in America. The City Association, which is the original type, and from which all of these are departures, has been in turn influenced by them, as in the wide adoption of dormitories and the relaxation of arbitrary rules concerning conduct and amusements, both largely due to the example of the Railroad Associations.

One modification in the City Association deserves special mention. This is the development of special departments, and even buildings, for boys. Against this modification one Secretary made to me an emphatic protest. "I advocate the boy's coming into the general building, so that I can see him. He belongs to the organization. I want him to feel that he belongs to it. If a boy has to come in by a back alley entrance or go to a separate building, he'll drop out at sixteen, if he holds on as long as that. In this building the boys have the best rooms." There was no real change of subject when he added: "There is no smoking allowed in the building except in dormitory rooms. don't want any. If we had a public smoking-room, there would be a lot of loafing. It's not very elevating. When a man goes to church, he doesn't claim the right to smoke there; he shouldn't here." This secretary recognized, as most secretaries do, that in dealing with boys he must exercise restraint. Parents who do not want their twelve-vearold son to smoke would justly hold the Association responsible if their son learned to smoke in a public room of a Young Men's Christian Association building. So he applied the same restraint to grown men as to boys, and assumed to decide for everybody what was "elevating" and what was not.

Association secretaries, as a rule, however, are coming to realize that the liberty which it is necessary to deny to the immature it is impertinent to deny to adults. They have already discovered, moreover, that a boy's interests and ideals are not those of a man. Instead of disregarding the men and adjusting their standards to the boys, or of abandoning the boys at the most impressionable age, they have grafted upon the Association trunk another branch, com-

monly called the "junior department." The man in charge of this department is surprisingly often one who has decided talent for gaining the respect and affection of boys. Some of these "junior departments" have acquired a very distinct character of their own. In one the boys have grouped themselves into clubs for various purposes, one of which was composed of the leaders among the boys. In another Association the central interest is provided by the summer camp; material for winter study and recreation is there gathered; esprit de corps is created by preparation for it; and throughout the year the groups of boys are largely determined by their natural grouping as they tent together.

There is an age, however, when the boys are not yet men, though they are no longer boys. It is during this transitional period, which is roughly that of the college undergraduate, that occurs a hiatus in the work of the Young Men's Christian Association. The boy who is entering upon that period is becoming impatient with the restraint that he formerly accepted without question; but as yet he has not acquired the self-control which is expected of the man. It is then, according both to the testimony of secretaries and to the statistics of Associations, that he is most likely to leave the Association, not to return. If, in the attempt to solve the problem of those who, as one secretary expressed it, "are no longer boys and not yet men," the Association should put forth another branch midway between the junior and the senior department, it would act in accordance with its past history.

Coincident with this growth in diversity of forms there has been a growth in organization. This growth amounts to a constitutional change in the Association. By it has been made possible the multiplication of branches. Originally the Young Men's Christian Association was a voluntary organization whose members were its "workers," its officers, its executives. As its interests multiplied the Association employed men to do special tasks. Its first employed officer was called, I believe, a "missionary." Gradually the employed officer became more important. His function, at first

mainly that of a lay preacher and leader of evangelistic meetings, was enlarged. It included clerical duties. He became known, then, as a "secretary"—a title which is still attached to the chief employed officer. To clerical duties were added administrative. As the activities of the Association became more and more involved, these accumulated functions were distributed among several The office of General Secretary was created, charged with the duty of general oversight; the occupant of this office became the chief executive. Subordinate offices were devised-those of Physical Director, Educational Director, Religious Work Director, and the like each charged with some distinct responsibility.

It is this body of employed officers which now really constitutes the Young Men's Christian Associations throughout the land. True, these men are nominally but the employees of a society in which there are many thousands of members; true, certain men elected from these members hold the property and can control its administration. As a matter of fact, however, the members of the Association exercise no authority, and the boards of directors or trustees seldom initiate any plans or guide the development of any project. The active members, who, in distinction from the associate members, have the privilege of voting, are most abstemious in the exercise of that privilege. Indeed, in some Associations their number is not even recorded. The character of the Association is derived almost altogether from the character of the employed officers, its prosperity due almost entirely to their efforts: its limitations are their limitations. I have referred to the Association as a lay order. It would be more accurate, however, to say that the lay order consists not of the members of the Association at large, but of the employed officers. The membership in the Association is fluctuating; the body of employed officers is stable. The members are hardly more than men who pay dues to obtain the privileges which the Association offers, or who engage in the work of the Association incidentally; the employed officers are men who have made. of the work for the Association their calling.

Of the small group of employed officers in a local Association the General Secretary is the head. He is the abbot or prior, as it were. His coadjutors, though nominally chosen by the Board of Directors, are generally selected by him. impresses upon the Association the stamp of his own traits. If he is slovenly, the Association building is in disorder. he is pietistic, the men who gather about him pass the pious phrase like current If he is courageous in making experiments, the Association is permeated with the air of enterprise. If he is broad in his interests and can discern the signs of the times, the Association becomes a stronghold for conspirators on behalf of the public good.

In some Associations the tradition of the old days when the General Secretary and his coadjutors were little else than hired men is still strong. Such an Association I found in one of the important cities of New England. The General Secretary proved to be an amiable man, conscientious in the performance of his routine duties, and as absolutely incapable of doing anything original as he was of doing anything wicked. He was not unaware of the most obvious defects of the Association by which he was em-He deplored its isolation, not ploved. only from the great mass of men, but even from the churches. But he was as helpless in respect of these defects as a coachman is in respect of the domestic infelicities of his employer. He had the special disadvantage of being responsible. not to an individual, but to a society. He was evidently studying to please, not one man's tastes—that is comparatively easy-but the tastes and whims and prejudices of a continually shifting group of people. Personally he may have had the courage of Luther, but officially he displayed the timid caution of a political time-server.

Happily, men of this type are slowly disappearing from the ranks of employed officers. They would disappear more rapidly if it were not for the unconscious influence of the so-called international organization. The fact that the Associations throughout the world are bound

together by a federal organization has made wasteful duplication impossible, and has enabled the Associations to render each other mutual aid: but it has also retarded the growth of independence among the employed officers. officials of the international organization inevitably emphasize the importance of conformity. Uniform reports, which they call for from the secretaries, are impossible without uniform standards; and these standards they exalt. virtue of their position, moreover, they are constantly acting as intermediaries between the Association at large and the public. They are consequently sensitive to any tendency which might temporarily alienate or even trouble their constit-The federal organization has therefore urged upon secretaries the duty of submitting to the authority of their boards of directors. The handbook published sixteen years ago by the International Committee exhorts the secretary to take and keep "a subordinate place," and tells him that "he should studiously avoid making himself prominent in the community, in the press, or in conventions." 1 That such counsel this year would sound somewhat antiquated is due to the constitutional change by which the employed officer is rising out of the position of hired man and becoming a member of a new profession.

This elevation of the employed officer has been the unavoidable result of the process of ramification in the Association itself. When the Association was little more than a permanently organized prayer-meeting, it needed no employed officer; when it became a missionary organization, the only employed officer it needed could very well be a subordinate; but now that it finds itself called upon to solve new problems, to adjust itself to various environments, to become a versatile instrument for social amelioration, it cannot require of the men who are devoting themselves to its service anything less than that they be leaders.

Such a continuously widening experience as the Association has had could not fail to be educative. As the Association has tended to become multiple

¹ Quoted in the Young Men's Christian Association of Chicago Official Bulletin, October, 1905.

in form and more highly organized, it is tending to become broad in spirit. It is now tolerant of much that it once vehemently denounced. The proprietor of a clothing store whose first comment on the Association of his town, when I called to see him, was a condemnation of it for having pool-tables was a survival of a past period. The only real objection to pool and billiards which I could elicit from conservative secretaries was an economic, not a moral, one; the games, they asserted, cost in money and in supervision more than they were worth. But this breadth of spirit is more than a tolerance of what was once thought intolerable. It is not a sign of a loss of convictions, but of the acquirement of new convictions. Perhaps I may indicate the ruling spirit in the Young Men's Christian Association by contrasting its traditional conceptions of democracy and of religion with the conceptions which are now gaining ascendencv.

From the first the Association has been democratic; that is, it has never been deliberately exclusive. Indeed. the more conservative secretaries seem to be the more insistent on democratic methods. One of these told me that in his opinion the Association was losing its democracy. He cited the newer buildings with their marble entrances, their artistic furnishings, their comfort and elegance. Another protested against doing anything for any particular class of men; he wanted everything that was done to be done for all classes. Another criticised the tendency of the Associations to treat men in groups. He would not provide any special accommodation for business men, or for mechanics, or for working boys. "The Association," he argued, "ought to break down class I believe in mixing clerks with feeling. mechanics, especially in social life." On this theory of democracy the Association practically acted for years. The result was that the men who did not care to be mixed with other men indiscriminately, without regard to any common interests, avoided the mixture by avoiding the Association. This was due, not to snobbishness, nor to class feeling, but simply to the fact that men prefer to associate with those who are congenial to them. The Association consequently remained for a long time a class institution. The Associations governed by this traditional view of democracy I found to be the least democratic among Associations; to be, as a rule, composed mainly of clerks, salesmen, small shopkeepers, and the like. If in any such there happened to be a considerable number of artisans, I found on inquiry that they made little use of the building except to patronize the "educational classes," thus remaining a group largely by themselves in spite of the theory under which the Association was managed. The tendency now is to abandon that method of trying to force upon men democracy devoid of class, and in its place to adopt methods which will make the Association a democratic force—that is, a force in which all classes of men can and will participate. In a New England Association where the government had become virtually a close corporation. the secretary proposed that the members be grouped into clubs, each club to be represented on the Board of Directors. In that same Association the "junior department" is organized on that very basis; as a consequence, not only is the membership composed of all kinds of boys-street boys, working boys, and school boys-but the boys themselves direct their department. The experience of other Associations has confirmed the principle that democracy is promoted, not by destroying the barriers that keep the classes distinct, but by providing some service in which men of all classes can share. Association secretaries are. therefore, now more than ever inclined to the practice of forming within the local Association clubs, each composed of men mutually congenial, and at the same time to bring certain men from all these clubs together for certain kinds of service. Men who will never join in a common pastime or mingle naturally on a social occasion will heartily unite in carrying on a series of religious services or in advancing some project for municipal improvement. It is those secretaries who are acting on this idea that have had the greatest success in drawing into their Associations all classes of men.

Of religion, as of democracy, the Young Men's Christian Association is tending to take a broader view. Under the guidance of its employed officers the Association has been far ahead of the churches in practically regarding religion as a matter affecting a man's body as well as his soul. But in its attitude toward all modern intellectual movements in Christianity it has been extraordinarily conservative. It has been afraid of the least intelligent in its constituency. Yet it is growing in courage as it is growing in breadth of view. The narrow, conventional, mechanical, materialistic interpretation of Christianity I have heard in all its baldness presented only once in the various Association meetings I have attended. Then it was at a little noon prayer-meeting in an Association which is almost a byword among secretaries for its depressing lethargy. Less than a score of miles away its reputation for immobility was such that the mention of it was greeted with laughter. other hand. I have heard in several Association meetings interpretations of Christianity given which attempted to make account of the knowledge of the world and the Bible which men have now acquired. Few secretaries with whom I have talked have evinced hostility to the critical study of the Bible; though the opinion of many might be expressed in the words of one: "The religious conservatism of the Association has been its salvation, has kept it out of doctrinal controversy." I think it is very doubtful whether the so-called evangelical test in its present form could be adopted now One Association if presented anew. which I visited has formally discarded it, and is flourishing, though it is deprived of the benefit of the international organization: others have practically ignored

it and have not suffered. The most thoughtful secretaries are very well aware that the Association can no longer afford to disregard those intellectual difficulties which make religion a perplexity to many young men of to-day. Several Associations are supplementing the ordinary classes for "devotional study," as it is called, with courses in the literary study of the Bible. With the increase in the number of secretaries who have had a college training, the Association is less than ever subject to that fear of honest questioning and independent thinking which is the bugaboo of untrained minds. It is finding itself intellectually.

The development of the Young Men's Christian Association has been of the most normal sort. Its present tendencies are the natural product of its past history. Its first period of growth was one of branching out into a variety of forms. Its second period was one of organic development in conformity with the varied functions it was called upon to perform. Its third period, in which it is now entering, is one of intellectual growth in response to the experience it has gathered. These three periods are overlapping. The first is not yet ended. The Association was happily spared in the beginning the incubus of a philosophy or creed. Its capital was, fortunately, not a doctrine, but a religious and moral purpose. Now that the Association is reaching maturity, it can formulate a much truer philosophy than it could have had in the beginning. Its officers are now trying as never before to define its function, to put before its members an ideal. When that function is defined, that ideal formulated, it will not be based on theory and therefore be mechanical, but will be the outcome of experience and therefore be vital and growing.

PRESIDENT JOHNSON'S POLICY

BY JAMES SCHOULER

Author of "A History of the United States," etc., etc.

THE policy initiated by President Johnson upon his accession to office was substantially that which Abraham Lincoln had announced to his counselors and prepared to enter upon before his assassination. this explains readily why Lincoln's Cabinet co-operated with the promoted Vice-President, and—all except Stanton secured for him, despite any misgivings as to his temper or capacity for carrying that policy out, a harmonious and united administration, each member bearing his own share of the obloquy which followed. Some changes in this Cabinet came about naturally. Yet Johnson made no reactionary changes, as various ardent Democrats urged him to do; and his new advisers—Alexander W. Randall, Orville H. Browning, and Henry Stanbery—were Northern men of sound Union affiliations and principle, worthy to be ranked as friends and followers of Abraham Lincoln. For the great Union party of 1864, we should remember, was made up of war Democrats as well as Republicans, and Lincoln was not rechosen, nor even renominated, without a strong factional opposition from most of those radical leaders who now opposed the plans of his associate and lawful successor.

Ward H. Lamon, the friend and former law partner of the murdered President, wrote Andrew Johnson, in February, 1866, that, to his own ample knowledge, as long Marshal of the District, peculiarly intimate at the White House, Lincoln's intended policy of reconstruction was "in exact accordance" with that of his successor; that Lincoln had known well the plans of the Northern radicals and opposed them; that he had meant to bring about "immediate reconciliation" between the sec-

tions, and pursue "a vigorous prosecution of peace." There is other clear testimony, perhaps even more conclusive. to the same effect.1 But how tactfully and patiently, with consummate skill and regard for surrounding circumstances, would President Lincoln have pursued his ends, mingling as he did in his own nature both Northern and Southern sensibilities! He would have held well together his own party support, and avoided to the utmost an open schism. The popular confidence he had gained during his first term would have sustained him. Nor would his guidance have shown inflexibility of methods. He was an ingenious experimenter in politics; yet, having no pride of opinion, he allowed any experiment to fail which was not found feasible. While an emancipator at heart, and, as time proved, a determined one, he had sought first to persuade the loyal border States to emancipate upon the basis of National recompense; he had further proposed colonizing the blacks, when freed, in some jurisdiction abroad; and both these plans he quietly allowed to fail because they proved impracticable.

Andrew Johnson's influence as Chief Executive and reconciler of the sections may be said to have culminated on the Washington's birthday anniversary of February, 1866. He had now been President for more than ten months, and on the whole had administered the Government well, carrying himself with dignity and decorum on official occasions and in the crowded audiences of the White House. Delegations and visitors from all quarters of the Union had been well impressed by his frank and generous utterances, made in the full sincerity of a high official purpose. Once, since Congress had met and measured its majority strength against him, he had met its reconstruction measure with a

¹ See Schouler's History of the United States, vol. 6, page 616, and citations.



¹ Among those suggested for the Cabinet by letter to President Johnson, during his first year of office, were Dickinson, Sumner, Charles Francis Adams, and John A. Dix, for Secretary of State; also General James B. Steedman (whom influential men of all politics indorsed) and Francis P. Blair, Jr., for Secretary of War. 264

veto, and had prevailed. The first Freedmen's Bureau bill, as framed and passed by the two Houses, was liable to objection at the South as fostering something of a military despotism; and the President, when returning the bill, avowed that he shared with Congress a strong desire to give the colored freedmen an adequate security and protection. Good Union men at the North, tried and true, stood with him on this veto; nor was any breach among his sympathizing supporters perceptible.¹

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For the holiday celebration of February 22 various mass-meetings were planned in Northern cities to sustain the President's policy as against Congressional obstructiveness. With Southern States excluded from representation, a majority, but not two-thirds, of each branch was against him. The monster demonstration of this kind—and a notable one indeed—was at the Cooper Institute, New York, in the evening. Francis B. Cutting, a prominent citizen, presided; and among those who figured in an imposing list of officers were Hamilton Fish, William C. Bryant, David Dudley Field, Senator Edwin D. Morgan, and Representatives Henry J. Raymond and William A. Darley. There was an immense crowd and great enthusiasm. Among the chief speakers were Denison, of Ohio-lately war Governor of that State and now the Postmaster-General-Raymond, and Cutting.

But the star speaker of this meeting was Seward, the premier, whose sentiments had been held in reserve and whose commitment at the present time was highly significant. His sickness, his narrow escape from assassination, and a more recent domestic bereavement, enhanced the sympathy of his fellowcitizens upon this first emergence from seclusion. Seward spoke amid a storm of cheers and applause. His speech was a deliberate one, and deserves a close study. Between the lines we may read that he feared an approaching breach in the great Union party; that his effort was to soothe, to reassure, and to keep

down the antagonism now developing between White House and Capitol Hill, among statesmen of fierce and willful temper. He said nothing of vetoes nor of negro rights nor of new guarantees, but he argued most strongly against all vindictive procrastination of peace; he protested against the present disposition in Congress to keep States indefinitely out and unrepresented; he opposed all proconsular or imperial government at the South. To the vindictive of his party associates he quoted with point the two fathers of a familiar comedy whose children, after much tribulation of disobedience, had come into the marriage originally designed for them. "Why not forgive?" says the one: "it has all turned out at last as you wished it." "Damn it," says the other, "because I have not had my own way of having it." "There never was and never can be," said Seward, " any successful process for restoration and harmony among the States except the one which the President has undertaken." At the same time, he contended that the whole difference at the present time was one of pilots. "The country is completely safe," he proclaimed, "and will not be saved over again in this day and generation. It will be safe if you approve what the President says; it will be safe if you approve what the majority in Congress says; safe if you believe what they both say; safe, too, if you disbelieve and reject what they all say."

On this same Washington's birthday, Andrew Johnson in person began undoing all the good that he had thus far accomplished by making a highly imprudent and undignified speech from the White House balcony to a miscellaneous holiday throng of Washington residents who came thither to hear him. an exordium, duly prepared, which set forth the reasons of his reconstruction policy in language unobjectionable, he yielded to various calls from the crowd (some of them probably his personal enemies who meant to shame him), and, with tongue unloosed as his temper rose, he berated by name his political foes. "What has Andy Johnson done?" was the theme of his rambling remarks at the close, as he complained of the fierce

¹General Sherman, February 4, had written him from St. Louis, expressing his hope that radical ideas would not prevail, and wishing that the President might carry out the entire pacification of the Union according to "natural laws." Johnson MSS.

assaults now made upon him by Northern radicals in and out of Congress.¹

Congress now passed its Civil Rights Bill for the negro by a significant twothirds vote in the two Houses, and the question with Andrew Johnson was whether to interpose a veto, likely to prove futile, or to improve his last good opportunity for composing the new political strife and reuniting his support. Two earnest letters reached him while he deliberated, both from prominent men at the North hitherto among his friends. One of these, March 17, was from Henry Ward Beecher, who besought the President to sign the Civil Rights Bill, both "because it is right" and because "it will harmonize the feelings of those who should not differ." The writer realized "the deep tide of moral feeling North," and had suffered among his own friends from being thought a supporter of the Administration policy. The other letter was a long one, March 22, from Governor Jacob D. Cox, of Ohio, a gallant soldier, whose support had been open and constant to the present date. The advice he now tendered confidentially was frank and outspoken, yet judicious and respectful in expression. "The Western sensitiveness," he wrote, "is great lest the advantages of this war be lost now by a mistaken statesmanship. We should conciliate the loyal spirit, wherever we can do so without sacrifice of principle." Since lately returning from Washington he has been impressed with the belief that the Democratic party are hypocritical in supporting the President's policy. And most earnestly he wishes the President to approve the Civil Rights Bill—to "strain a point in order to meet the popular impulse, rather than make a strict construction the other way." "My own view," continues the Governor, "is that ultimately it will be found that a separation of the races will be found necessary; but as no one can tell how long it will take natural causes which are at work to bring about that result, I recognize the necessity and propriety in the meantime of giving to the freedmen a large measure of kindness and protection, rather than in any way to stint the justice they have a right to expect. . . . Though some provisions for enforcing the civil rights bill are objectionable, yet they are civil provisions, under the check of laws and legal responsibility, and not the unrestrained despotism of military power which was embodied in the Freedmen's Bureau bill."

President Johnson, however, returned the Civil Rights Bill to Congress March 27; the two Houses speedily passed it over his veto-even Dixon and Doolittle among his friends failing to sustain him in the Senate on this occasion—and the bill became a law without his signature. And so it was, later in the session, with a new Freedmen's Bureau bill, better framed than the original one for meeting his objections. The breach between the Executive and the present Congress thus became irreparable, with two-thirds in both branches instead of a majority Johnson's now unified against him. obstinate resistance was largely maintained on the argument that they had excluded rightful representatives of the South, who, if admitted, would have reversed results. The Fourteenth Amendment passed Congress presently, in an utter disregard, though constitutional, of the President's wishes or participation, and finally Tennessee alone from the insurrectionary region was admitted to representation. The long session closed with the rupture complete between Executive and Congress, and each prepared to test its strength with the country at the fall elections. Now, as Andrew Iohnson's supporters concluded, the line would be drawn distinctly between friends and foes, and men must take one side or the other in the approaching campaign.

Yet, in justice to Johnson himself, it should be conceded that the new President steered clear of Tylerizing, and would not commit himself to those peace Democrats who now saw the chance for cementing anew their old alliance

¹ It was widely reported and believed at the time that the President had fortified himself for this critical occasion by a glass too much. Such was certainly the case when he was inducted Vice-President and got into the same rambling and undignified vein; for of that fact his own MSS. preserves the proof, and he had doubtless resolved not to repeat the offense. Johnson probably resorted less frequently to alcoholic stimulants than some of our most famous generals; yet the few occasions of such exhibition were highly unfortunate for him and his supporters. He carefully preserved, however, among his papers some newspaper reports of such colloquial speeches, with verbal corrections by the pen, as though not ashamed of them.

with the South. New York Democrats labored in vain with their Washington friends to get Seward turned out of the Cabinet, and to have the whole Government patronage bestowed on their political behalf. In November, 1865, Preston King, Collector of the Port of New York, had died suddenly, but after an interval of many months the successor selected for this chief custom-house and post of local patronage was one whose personal integrity as a financier was regarded, and not his political influence.

Every little while, through all these first twelve months, had come a petition to the President from one quarter or another to appoint Francis P. Blair, Jr., to his Cabinet. Johnson's manuscripts show, as to the three Blairs, that they made strong and mischievous effort to embroil him with his Republican sup-But counter advice reached the President to "keep the Blairs out of his confidence," and such advice went not unheeded. Blair senior is seen in March, 1866, urging the President to veto the Civil Rights Bill. His son Montgomery-ex-Postmaster-General under President Lincoln, and now a leading practitioner in the Supreme Court—was incessant with written advice; and, living as he did near by the White House, he probably had many oral interviews besides. Letters from his own correspondents are in this manuscript collection, indorsed with sharp comment of his And frequently Montgomery Blair is seen seconding the New York efforts to have Johnson make alliance with the Democrats, reorganize National politics, and, displacing Seward as well as Stanton, make up a new set of advisers for his administration.

A letter of April 11, 1866, appears explicit enough on this point. Some had said that Blair bore a grudge against Seward; not so, he replies, and he has no reason for any, for Seward had done him various personal favors. "My strenuous opposition to him arises solely from the conviction that he, more than any one else, is responsible for the Civil

War, and that he is doing all he can to involve us in another by striving to keep the so-called Union party consolidated. . . . Though he is making an effort to keep up a conservative section within the Republican party, it is the avowed purpose of his associates not to break with the party. . . . Democrats are anxious to support you, and hence it is of the first importance to unite the Republicans who agree with you and the masses of the Democrats in order to restore the Union. . . . You should not keep Seward any more than Stanton and others who are known to oppose you. Mr. Stanton is acting in concert with Mr. Seward. The radical press are restrained from attacking Mr. Seward while pouring out their wrath against you."

Possibly it was with reference to this former Cabinet associate rather than to any present co-adviser that Secretary Seward is reported to have said about this time, in the course of a table conversation, that the new President was certainly a wise Executive in this respect—that "he did not tell one Cabinet counselor what another one had said of him."

One more letter is worth quoting in the present summary of President Johnson's first year's correspondence. once more, was supplied to his portfolio through the Blairs, who perhaps had been sounding the writer to find how far he would go in diverting Sumner's hold upon the Republican party in Massachu-John A. Andrew, now ex-Governor of that State, and practicing his legal profession, had visited Washington early in 1866. His letter of March 18, after his return, seems to have been written under some promise made to the elder Blair, but he inclosed it to the son, Montgomery. "My views," he writes, "were as clearly expressed in my valedictory as in my power. Those convictions I had reached after much disinterested and independent study and thought; and everything I have seen since has confirmed me in those conclusions." He was not ready to come out against the radicals of his State at the present time, and although by no means vindictive towards the South, as Sumner was, he plainly favored some experiment of negro suffrage, and otherwise strongly

¹ Thus, a friend writing him early from Florida that the Chief Justice's tour (see The Outlook for January 13, p. 72) was to secure that State for his own succession, with the aid of corrupt agents, Blair turned over the letter, with his written advice that "the Chase vermin should be squelched out."

wished to do the freedmen justice. "The country," he writes, "is settled on one point, viz., that the rebel States ought not and cannot be returned into the Senate and House without conforming to some arrangements made necessary by the rebellion, in order to adapt their constitutions to the changed relation of slaves." The difference between the President and Congress was only one of method, as it seemed to him. "I am myself opposed to public meetings of either interest, of any man, leader, or party, . . . and in this remark I include President Johnson himself." In short, Andrew was for soothing public sentiment and not irritating; and he felt no

doubt that the people would settle down on these points: (1) The extension of suffrage to all qualified therefor, without respect to condition, color, or descent; (2) universal amnesty for engaging in the rebellion; (3) requiring the popular vote of those classes of persons entitled to vote in 1860, and who had carried their own States into rebellion, on the adoption or rejection of the measures proposed as the basis of reconstruction in their States respectively. He saw no possible hope for peace on other conditions; and to him appeared otherwise, as the only final alternative for the South, the extermination of one race or the other.

SOME EXPERIMENTS IN SUNDAY-SCHOOL WORK

BY THOMAS DOANE PERRY

O those who are watching the progress of our Sunday-schools it is gratifying to note the new and improved methods of work that are coming into use and the strong evidences of a determination to better understand and serve the religious needs of immature and growing lives. As a rule, Sunday-schools are far less efficient than most modern educational organizations. The past half-century, it is true, has seen many admirable methods of work, but it has also been characterized by an inability judiciously to eliminate such as have been inadequate to changing conditions and improved standards.

In general, it may be said that the older method of Sunday-school work was to select a series of verses or chapters from the Bible, and search for their applications to the problems of life; the newer way, and one that is rapidly coming into deserved use, is to begin with life problems and find help toward their right solution in Bible truths and characters. This latter method is especially interesting to young people at the time when standards and ideals of life are in their formative period. Between the ages of fifteen and twenty there is a natural reticence that leaves many im-

portant questions unasked, and yet it is a time when the keenest interest may be roused in the discussion of problems relating to Christian manhood and womanhood in the different activities of our complex modern life. Young people of this age need to be shown that religion and life are closely related, and that the practical solution of every-day problems, large and small, may and should be found in the truths of the Bible.

It has been a source of interest and pleasure to the writer to attempt a few experiments in somewhat unconventional lines of Sunday-school work. These have been laid out year by year, as conditions have suggested, and are therefore a gradual growth. Every experiment has been tried and proved workable. They were made upon a class of a dozen boys, ages averaging seventeen, who had the indifference and aversion to Sundayschools characteristic of their age. environment was a small city church, scarcely holding its own against the larger "downtown" churches, and lacking in its ability to reach and hold young people. The boys came from widely differing homes—a few where standards and ideals were high, a few where parents had been able to give them little that starts a boy on the right road in life. About half the boys were still in school, and the rest at work.

The first experiment was a series of informal talks, based on chapters from Dr. Josiah Strong's book, "The Times and Young Men," with such titles as these: Three Universal Laws of Life, Service, Sacrifice, and Love; Present Social Conditions; Value and Use of Time; Bodily Health; True Worth of Education; Amusement Problem; Choosing a Profession; Use and Abuse of Money; Religious Problems of the Twentieth Century. These talks were given by the leader and followed by a discussion, often quite general and engrossing enough so that the superintendent's closing bell failed to attract atten-The appointment of a programme committee by the class, to select and submit courses of work, and the approval of each course in advance by vote, avoided dissatisfaction with the work under consideration.

In the second experiment talks followed by informal discussions were given on some of the prominent Old Testament characters. The introductory themes were: Inspiration of the Bible; Its Literary, Historic, and Scientific Value; Principles of an Evolutionary Creation; Helpful Conceptions of God; Beginnings of the Human Race. Following these were talks on Noah, Abraham, Lot, Isaac, Jacob, Joseph, Moses, Joshua, Gideon, Samson, Samuel, Saul, David, and Solomon. These character sketches dealt more particularly with the human side of these men, the odds against which they struggled, and the success they achieved in spite of obstacles. The treatment was largely new to the boys and held their interest. Little or no direct Bible study was done, and much of the matter presented was that approved by modern Bible students and critics.

Experiment three was an attempt to help the boys in settling the all-important question of a life-work, a problem toward the solution of which too few practical aids are usually given. The course comprised two series of talks on alternate Sunday noons; one by prominent men of the city, eminent in their professions, who explained the opportunities and ob-

stacles in their chosen work and summed up the inducements offered in the various fields to a boy who desires to become a vital Christian force in his life-work. In this way the following professions were presented: Law, Ministry, Teaching, Medicine, Engineering, Finance, Agriculture, Mercantile Life, Railroading, Manufacturing, Insurance, and the like. The boys were eager to improve the opportunities offered to ask questions.

The boys themselves were asked to give the other series on the lives of influential men of modern times, among whom were Edison, Agassiz, Henry Drummond, Cecil Rhodes, Bismarck, Joseph Jefferson. Horace Greeley, Phillips Brooks, Booker T. Washington, Robert E. Lee, Gladstone, Edward Everett Hale, Marshall Field, U. S. Grant, Roosevelt, Charles W. Eliot, and Dwight L. Moody. It was thought that careful preparation for one or two talks during the year would be of greater value to the members of the class than a more or less desultory study of successive lessons.

During this experiment the leader of the class was absent nearly four months on account of sickness. The class, through their president, faithfully carried on the work according to schedule, engaging and assigning speakers, with only slight assistance from the Sunday-school superintendent. All regular meetings were kept up and well attended.

The next experiment was more along the line of Bible study—a course in the life of Christ, considered topically. Theological discussion was avoided so far as possible, and yet such phases of the subject were studied as are puzzling to us all. The following topics were selected for the series of talks, given mostly by the leader: Prophecies Concerning Christ; Birth of Jesus; Education; Young Manhood; Temptation; Parables; Miracles; Disciples; Public Opposition; Last Supper; Betrayal and Trial; Crucifixion; Resurrection; Significance of Christ's Life in History; Christ, the Man; Christ, the Teacher; Christ, the Physician; Christ in Art; Christ in Literature. The effort was made to present these subjects thoughtfully and reverently in the light of modern

research and criticism. Care was taken to discuss both sides of disputed questions, thus giving the boys opportunity to weigh arguments and form decisions for themselves.

Alternating with the above were addresses, given by men active in municipal affairs, on various civic problems, chiefly those of local interest. The aim of this course was to develop in the boys just coming of age an interest in the affairs of the city and a feeling of responsibility for their good conduct, and also to show that the best type of Christian manhood is one that takes an active part in municipal life. The following topics are representative: City Organization, given by the Mayor: Municipal Ownership; Board of Health Problems; School System, given by the Superintendent of Schools; Parks and Boulevards; River Navigation; City Library, given by the Librarian; Board of Trade; What is Done with Tax Money; Young Men's Christian Association; Hospitals; Ideal Newspapers; Liquor Problem; Union Labor. Several of these topics were presented by those of the boys whose regular work put them in touch with that special phase of city life. Close attention was given to these speakers, and the growing interest in anything pertaining to the welfare of the city was quite evident. By unanimous vote of the class this course was continued another year as mentioned below.

The experiment now in progress consists of three distinct courses, the first of which is a series of talks on the history of religions, non-Christian and Christian, given by the leader twice a month. The following topics will give an idea of the course: Beginnings of Religion, Vedic Hymns, Brahmanism, Hinduism. Buddhism, Confucianism, Zoroastrianism, Mohammedanism, Shintoism, Judaism, Catholicism, Episcopalianism, Congregationalism, Other Evangelical Denominations, Salvation Army and Volunteers of America, Community Religions, Christian Science, and Spiritualism. This course was suggested by one of the boys, and, as outlined, indicates the influence of ancient Oriental religions in the shaping of Christianity, as well as the various forms Christianity assumes to-day. The intelligent questions asked and the keen interest shown prove that such material is well suited to rouse interest and stimulate thought in boys of that age.

The second course is a continuation of the civic work by speakers outside the class once a month. The readiness of busy men who are carrying heavy responsibilities to contribute their time and strength for a talk to a class of young men is a fine evidence of the earnest Christian manhood to be found among our representative men in the different departments of professional and business life.

The other is a series of debates by members of the class once a month. The subjects of these debates are drawn chiefly from local civic problems, but include municipal ownership, organized labor, and Sunday observance. In these, as in work previously assigned to members of the class, almost no difficulty has been experienced in persuading the boys to take their parts. They seem to realize the value that such work may be to them, and the need of their contributing something to the work of the class. As one of the last debaters said, "You fellows all ought to debate, because you learn so much doing it."

In addition to the regular class work, a club modeled after the college fraternity was formed for social work among the boys, but the two organizations have been entirely independent of each other. Besides regular meetings the club has given one or two plays, an annual banquet, a dance, and occasional canoe parties and sleigh-rides. The fraternity idea has been of much assistance in holding the boys together.

These five experiments constitute about four years' work, although the last one is not yet finished. During this period the interest and enthusiasm in the class have grown slowly but perma nently. None of the original members of the class have been lost except through removals or death, and the membership has considerably more than trebled. A number of the boys have materially lengthened the time they intended to give to their education, several now being in college. A wholesome respect

has come to the boys for religious work, and many of them are active in the various organizations of the church. In spite of its perplexities, the form of work here described abounds in interest and satisfaction, and the leader is by no means the least of those who receive full value for the time and energy invested.

Books suggested:

The Times and Young Men. Strong. Work and Play. Bradley.

Old Testament Characters. Geikie. Representative Men of the Bible. 2 vols. Matheson.

Old Testament Characters. Whyte.
Careers for Coming Men. Published by
Saalfield Publishing Co., Akron, Ohio.
Life of Jesus of Nazareth. Rees.
Teachings of Jesus. Stevens.
Christ. McConnell.
Burning Questions. Gladden.
Things Fundamental. Jefferson.
History of Religion. Menzie.
Ten Great Religions. Clarke.
Religions of India. Hopkins.

THE IGNORANCE OF "GOOD" CITIZENS

BY J. HORACE McFARLAND

President of the American Civic Association

"I—I don't know."
"Is there a legal limit to the bonded debt, and has it been reached?"

"Indeed, I've forgotten!"

"Do you remember the tax rate?"

"Er—well, it's pretty high."

"What is the total valuation, or assessment, for tax purposes?"

"Let me see; I think it is about—no, I don't remember."

"Do you know what the basis of the assessment is?"

"It seems to me it is about full valuation. Wait; no, it's seventy-five per cent., I think. You see," he added, apologetically, "I don't look after these things. I'm not in politics!"

The speaker was my host in a mid-Western city, in which I was to address the local improvement society that evening upon the necessity for a civic awakening. He had just been telling me how his good wife had been endeavoring to have the Mayor and the city Councilmen come to hear me, and he added, as we drove along in his well-appointed brougham, "I hope you'll stir them up; we need all sorts of improvements."

Then followed my questions; for improvements cost money, and the first thing to be considered is, Where is the money to come from? But my host, active in the forward movement in his

city, a man of intelligence, wealth, and position, a typical "good" citizen, didn't know the first thing about the statistics, the finances, and the taxing plan of his own town. Wait; I wrong him—he did know, and state with pride, the population of the city. "We have thirty-five thousand people here," he said, "and we will surely have fifty thousand by 1910"—all this with great pride. "And we have the greatest implement factory in the State; I tell you, we're growing right along!"

I never knew one to fail on the population! But my friend's ignorance as to the town finances was not at all singular or unusual, and I was in no way surprised. The next day I called on the Mayor of this lively little city, and he told me what I wanted to know, except that even he got the tax rate doubled, correcting himself shamefacedly before I left, after telephoning to the City Clerk.

That evening I was to speak on the same subject in a progressive city claiming more than three hundred thousand inhabitants. At the pleasant dinner before the address my hostess—it is always a good woman who starts these efforts!—introduced me to some representative citizens, fine men all of them. One, an architect of prominence, was also president of a business men's organization. Another noted architect was there, and also the very active secretary

of another trade organization. An exjudge, the senior member of a prominent law firm which represents a large telephone company, sat next to a prosperous leather merchant.

I put the same questions asked above to the whole table. The silence was eloquent until the hostess asked us, "Would we have more of the salad?"

But the judge, when he had reflected, did know the constitutional debt limit, and the secretary added to it the fact that a State law provided for a five per cent. annual sinking-fund tax. No one was entirely sure as to the exact tax rate, and not one of these selected "good" citizens knew enough about the city of his home to tell me how the parks were sustained.

A few weeks before I had visited another and larger city of great progressiveness, having for its Mayor a man of National repute, and the most efficient Chamber of Commerce I have yet learned There was a great civic gathering, of. and my host was the owner and editor of a daily paper of considerable prominence. I catechised him about the city's financial condition, but he was blissfully ignorant, except that "C--- was growing very rapidly, sir!" Pursuing my inquiries at the City Hall, I finally found one man, a Commissioner of Public Works, who was thoroughly well informed. The rest of the officials knew a little, but not enough to hurt!

I might cite many more instances of the ignorance about city business affairs that I have uniformly encountered among the "good" citizens in dozens of cities I have visited in the last three years, but I think my point is plain. I cannot record one instance of even relatively complete primary knowledge-just primary knowledge of city affairs, I mean possessed by any one man I have interrogated, unless he was a city official. Indeed, in one case, that of a Middle States city of about seventy thousand population, in which I had a two hours' informal conference with the Mayor and the Councils about a park system, there was not a man among them who definitely knew the assessed valuation upon which taxes were assessed, or the total of the city's current bonded indebtedness.

Of course I do get interesting sidelights in answer to questions. The ex-judge with whom I dined as above mentioned, and who introduced me later to an audience of his townspeople, told me how he had drafted a bill, and helped have it passed by the State Legislature, permitting his telephone company to erect its poles on any city or town street, or on any country road, without regard to local conditions or objections, and but slightly subject to any regulation! It is in that State just as if in New York the Legislature had given telephone companies the right of eminent domain, permitting them to plant poles at will in Manhattan!

But my desire is to emphasize the danger-indeed, the criminality-of the prevailing ignorance of "good" citizens about the financial affairs of their own home cities and towns. Many a man who reads this can talk luminously about the Panama Canal, upon which he has opinions, but cannot tell the debt or the debt limit of his own city. Another will tell you just how the railroad rates should be regulated, but he will be absolutely ignorant as to the cost of water or of electric lights locally. A sneer will be heard from your friend about the ignorance of the lately resigned president of a great insurance company as to salaries paid to his associates; but can he tell you the salary of the Mayor of his city?

A municipality, large or small, is responsible for its debts, and the citizens thereof supply the money, in the shape of taxes and assessments and rates, to pay those debts and to run the business of the municipality. Every dollar of taxable property the citizen has is liable for the debts of the municipality. That is, the assessed valuation of a city is its capital fund, upon the credit of which it may borrow money on bonds issued, and the taxes provide its working income and its means of repaying loans. most commercial corporations the stockholders know with more or less accuracy the capital stock, the bonded indebtedness, the rate of dividend, and the value of the property; yet in the municipal corporation, of which each taxpayer is a stockholder, with all his property liable to assessment, ignorance of these primary details is the rule, and knowledge the exception.

Really good citizens are intelligent citizens, who are informed at least upon the fundamental facts of the finances of their immediate municipalities. Ignorance always promotes "graft," and for such ignorance the taxpayer, who carelessly pays without knowledge—but often with grumbling—and votes without information, has no excuse.

Whenever business men are businesslike in their relations as citizens to municipal financing; whenever they consider taxes and assessments and bonds and salaries as they would in private or corporate life; in short, whenever "good" citizens are honest in knowledge as well as in criticism, grafting will become a hateful memory only.

I want to suggest a little catechism for citizens to ask themselves, in the hope that where the answers are at first missing, investigation will supply them. Only when these or equivalent queries can be answered from memory with an approximation to accuracy is a "good" citizen really fit to vote upon any local affairs involving the use of money:

What is the assessed valuation of your city or town?

Is it a full valuation, or at an agreedupon discount from the real value—that is, if your property is assessed at \$5,000, would you be willing to sell it for that sum?

How is this valuation determined, and how often is it revised?

What is the city debt, and what rate of interest is paid upon it?

What sinking fund provision is there for the repayment of the bonded debt?

Is there a constitutional debt limit, and if so, to what per cent. of the valuation may your town borrow?

What is the total tax rate, and how is it divided for city, school, and State or county uses?

These are the bare *primary* facts, knowledge of which is essential to honest and intelligent voting. A really efficient citizen will soon want more information, and get it, as to water rates, paving assessments, park maintenance, electric and gas light costs, the granting of public franchises, and other things for which he pays his money. He can't know too much!

with his governmental relations. All

SOME BOOKS ON SOCIOLOGY

HESE volumes treat of different aspects of social questions, and in different methods. We here attempt simply a description of the books for the benefit of the lay student of the social problem.

Professor Small defines sociology as "the process of human association." It includes economics, jurisprudence, ethics, and politics, as these are defined by Professor Seligman. For sociology deals with society as a whole, while economics deals with man's industrial relations, jurisprudence with his legal relations, ethics with his moral relations, politics

these relations have been more or less the subject of action since the days of Moses, and the subject of study, at least, since the days of Plato; but the term sociology Professor Small attributes to Perhaps a more important division of sociology, or at least of sociologists, is one which Professor Small suggests. He puts them in four classes, according to their point of view: 1. The historical sociologists, who inquire how men came to associate as they do now. 2. The scientific sociologists, who inquire how they manage to preserve the status 3. The prophetic sociologists, who are interested in inquiring what are the present indications as to the ways in which men will associate in the future. 4. The practical sociologists, who ask what is the thing to be done to make the association better than it has been and We wish that Professor Small had

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^{&#}x27;General Sociology. By Albion W. Small. The University of Chicago Press, Chicago. \$4, net. Principles of Economics. By Edwin R. A. Seligman, LL.D. Longmans, Green & Co., New York. \$2.25.

The Sociological Theory of Capital. By John Rae, M.A. Edited by Charles Whitney Mixter, Ph.D. The Macmillan Company, New York. \$4.

Trade Unionism and Labor Problems. Edited by John R. Commons. Ginn & Co., Boston. \$2.50, net. The Coal-Mine Workers. By Frank Julian Warne, Ph.D. Longmans, Green & Co., New York. \$1, net.

followed this division in his volume, and told us historically how society has developed, what it is, whither it tends, and what we can do about it. His book indicates that he has the scholarship for the first and second tasks, the vision for the third, and the humanity for the fourth. But this he has not done. stead, he has devoted the first half of his volume to a report, interpretation, and criticism of Spencer, Schäffle, and Ratzenhofer, which may be of great interest to the special student, but are not interesting or valuable to the general reader, and do not appear to us essential to the second half of his volume, which contains his own interpretation of sociological laws. Nor is this portion of his book written so as to be understood of the common people. It is academic both in its structure and its phraseology. one of his sentences he refers to "what we speak of in sociological jargon as the subjective environment." There is more "sociological jargon" than there needs to be in his pages. In brief, his volume is rather for the student, perhaps we might say the advanced student, than for the interested but not especially prepared thinker on sociological problems.

In this respect Professor Seligman's book differs from it radically. treatises on economics are generally made well-nigh unintelligible to the laity by reason of their economical jargon. Professor Seligman's treatise is remarkable for its lucidity of definition and its simplicity of phraseology. nitions at once so clear, so simple, and so accurate we have rarely if ever met in the literature of economics. Take, for example, wealth. Wealth is a commodity or service which possesses three qualities: first, utility—if the thing is of no use it is not a good at all; second, externality-skill, intelligence, virtue, are not wealth: a man is not wealthy until he has transmuted his intellectual qualities into some external object; third, limitation in amount—if it is free to all, its possession may make him happy but not wealthy: enjoyment of sunshine is not possession of wealth. Along with this lucidity and accuracy we find a balanced judgment; as in the author's recognition

of other than economic motives in the inspiration and direction of industry, in his dismissal of the "economic man" as a being that has no real existence and a fiction that is of no service; and in his recognition of the value of both the deductive and the inductive method in the study of economics. His volume is, we take it, intended primarily as a text-book, but it is, what text-books very rarely are, fascinating reading to any man interested in economic problems. Some of the conclusions will surprise uninformed readers of the capitalized press, as, for example, these (we condense): permanent gain from a successful strike often outweighs the temporary loss of all strikes, including the failures. growth of unionism has brought with it amelioration in the conduct of strikes and lessened their number. Unionism has been, on the whole, a conservative force. We commend this volume heartily to any thoughtful layman who desires to get from a responsible authority some grounding in the essential principles of industrial laws.

"The Sociological Theory of Capital" is a new edition, with a valuable introduction and annotations, of a volume published in 1834. The author should not be confounded with the John Rae who is the author of the well-known "Contemporary Socialism." The biographical sketch gives a pathetic picture of the author's struggle with an adverse fate—a picture which exemplifies the truth that it is almost as perilous to attack orthodoxy in economics as orthodoxy in religion. The preface gives the reader an admiration for the moral courage and the intellectual acumen of the author. His book is an attempt to show the fundamental errors in Adam Smith's "Wealth of Nations"-a book which in 1834 was regarded with almost as much reverence by orthodox economists as was the Bible by orthodox Protestants. How radically he differed from Adam Smith is indicated by the following quotation from one of his chapter headings in the Table of Contents: "Instead of there being any grounds for a presumption against legislative interference, from the assumption that nature ought to be allowed to pursue her own plans; the

presumption is, on the contrary, that nature gave man his peculiar faculties for the purpose that universally, and as well here as elsewhere, he might acquire the direction of events, by discovering the laws regulating their successions." We do not remember to have seen more clearly and forcefully stated the argument for protection from its effect in promoting diversified industry and reducing the waste caused by expense of transportation. Mr. Rae's book is neither as radical nor as original as it was in 1834, but it is interesting as a contribution toward modern thought by a bold, original, and independent thinker. fessor Mixter ought not to have given to the public such a volume as this without adding an index.

"Trade Unionism and Labor Problems" we may dismiss with few words because it is impossible to deal with it in detail within our limits, and general criticism is in the nature of the case impossible. For it is composed of twentyeight entirely separate essays on distinct aspects of the labor question, and contributed by different authors. A number of them have primarily seen the light in periodical publications, and all of them may properly be classified as periodical literature. Some of them are of more transient value than others. All of them are written by authors who are in general sympathy with labor organization, but we think none of them are written for the purpose of advocating trade unions and their methods. In other words, they are not partisan papers; but their authors make no pretense to that bloodless and unhuman spirit, miscalled scientific, which can treat problems of human life, in which moral principles are involved, and on which both the moral and the material welfare of the community depend, as though they were problems in algebra or geometry. The volume is full of valuable information, but it is rather material for the student than history, philosophy, or sociology for the general reader.

In this respect "The Coal Mine Workers" differs radically from it. The author, Frank Julian Warne, is known to the readers of The Outlook by his contribution through our pages to their knowledge of the coal situation in Pennsylvania. He is one of that class of students of social and industrial conditions whom science and humanity combined have produced in America, and who are distinctly a product of a democratic country and a scientific age—that is, of a period in which love of humanity and love of truth are mingled in something like equal proportions in its best teachers. In our judgment, this book deserves to be characterized as an authority, and, as far as we know, as the best authority, in the limited field of which it treats—labor organization in the coal fields of the United States.

Comment on Current Books

Apostolic Succession and the Problem of Unity

Except for its untoward bearing upon efforts toward church unity, the majority of

Christian people in English-speaking lands care nothing for the fiction that the clergy of the Anglican, Greek, and Roman Churches, and only they, are the genuine successors of the Apostles, and that these three alone constitute "the Holy Catholic Church." Against this fiction the Rev. Edward McCrady, rector of Grace Church in Canton, Mississippi, argues temperately and cogently with the "Catholic" party, who would commit the Protestant Episcopal Church to its support. Giving historical and documentary proof that neither this Church nor the Church of

England has officially adopted their theory, he contends that it is a mere theory, and one whose consequences are most to be feared by its supporters. "Let us beware lest we to-day, in vainly boasting of a mere outward succession from the Apostles, are not, like the Jews of old, losing the true inward succession that is alone of permanent value." The appropriate typographical style of this volume is highly creditable to Sewanee. (The University Press of Sewanee, Tennessee.)

The Castlecourt
Diamond Case
An amusing detective
story in which the author,
Geraldine Bonner, carries
her reader through many complications by a
compilation of statements supposed to be

made by half a dozen or more people involved in the mystery—a not very probable thing in itself, but one productive of some queer contrasts. The plot is frankly farcical. (Funk & Wagnalls Company, New York. \$1.)

This is one of the books en-The Egyptian larging knowledge for which Sudan the world is debtor to Christian missionaries. The account given of the Southern Sudan by the war correspondent Steevens, in his book "With Kitchener to Khartum," describes it as a worthless land, "a God-accursed wilderness." We have our own "bad lands" in the far West, but an account of these is no fair description of our country as a whole. The same may be said of Steevens's account of what he saw of the Sudan. Dr. J. K. Giffen, a missionary of the American United Presbyterian Church, tells another story of it. It was, indeed, almost depopulated by the Mahdist wars during the last two decades of the nineteenth century, but it is a land of splendid possibilities, the remnant of whose inhabitants is beginning to feel under British protection the healing and uplifting hand of Christian civilization. Dr. Giffen's book has much to say of this, in his interesting account of the people and their traits and customs. It is practically the only reliable and complete account in print of an interesting and promising country, of which the earliest mention is attributed to the eighteenth chapter of Isaiah. (The Fleming H. Revell Company, New York. \$1, net.)

A scrap-book of expert The Empire and opinion concerning the the Century more important problems now confronting the British Empire and its several parts, this remarkable symposium of nearly nine hundred pages brings together a mass of information of substantial value to many classes of readers. Its predominating note is Chamberlainite, but the editor has included papers written by authorities who roundly differ from Mr. Chamberlain. Thus, a lengthy argument for protection by Mr. J. L. Garvin is followed by a defense of free trade from the pen of Mr. J. St. Loe Strachey. In all, the book contains over fifty essays and an imperialistic poem by Mr. Kipling. It is impossible even to mention the names of the various contributors, but an idea of the sound usefulness of this compilation may be gained from the statement that, in addition to papers dealing with the problems of empire in a general way, detailed studies historical, political, economic, and military are made of each of the colonies and dependencies. There are six articles on Canada, ree on Australia and New Zealand, six on

India, six on South Africa, four on Egypt and the Sudan, and one each on the West Indies, Ceylon, Burma, the Straits Settlements, the British possessions in West Africa, and the East African protectorate. In every instance the writers are competent to treat of the themes allotted to them, and if their views are frequently colored by political preferences, they are nevertheless informative and deserving of close attention. Among the more general essays perhaps the most noteworthy are the contributions of Messrs. W. F. Monypenny, Bernard Holland, Richard Jebb, and John Buchan, who write respectively of "The Imperial Ideal," "The Crown and the Empire," "Imperial Organization," and "The Law and the Constitu-tion." The last two deal with the different expedients whereby a closer union of the mother country and the colonies may be effected, and it is interesting to find that both Mr. Jebb and Mr. Buchan (avor the colonial conferences plan as affording the startingpoint for a permanent Imperial Cabinet. (E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. \$6, net.)

Mr. Charles Whibley has provided this new edition George Bentinck of Disraeli's biography of Lord George Bentinck with a vigorous, indeed a forcible, introduction. It smacks of the campaign orator rather than of the essayist, passing from an adroit assault on Cobden and Peel and the principles they represented in the fiscal struggle of sixty years ago to a parallel between the protectionist leader of 1846 and the protectionist leader of to-day. The most thoroughgoing "tariff reformer" of modern England can find nothing to complain of in Mr. Whibley's eloquent flights, although the recent elections must convince him that the optimistic prediction with which the work closes is a trifle rash. From the historical standpoint, too, there is ample room for criticism. The sweeping statements common to campaign documents abound. We are told, for instance, that Cobden and Villiers "had little interest in the masses. They were the champions of the employers, and their end and aim was to reduce the wages of the workmen," and that Cobden "hated factory acts as bitterly as he hated trades unions." Comment on the book which has given occasion to this plea in behalf of the Chamberlain cause is unnecessary at this day. (E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. \$2, net.)

Napoleon's
Love Story

The Count de Soissons, who has translated this romance from the Polish of Waclaw Gasiorowski, points to its author as a "worthy champion of that art of novel-writing

which secured a world-wide renown to Sienkiewicz," and assures us that "he is a very able master of the historic romance, originated by Sir Walter Scott." Without being willing to indorse fully his high opinion of the youthful novelist-Gasiorowski is little more than thirty years old—we must say that " Napoleon's Love Story " has left a decidedly favorable impression on our mind. It is too long and treats of an unpleasant theme—the liaison between Napoleon and the beautiful Countess Walewska-but it is a strong piece of work, with passages of rare dramatic power and some fine characterizations. Gasiorowski, we are told, is an enthusiastic admirer of Napoleon, but the Napoleon of these pages is the reverse of admirable, and the presentation should go far to disenchant undiscriminating heroworshipers. A word of praise is due the translator, whose version is flexible and agreeable, preserving the unique individuality of the original. (E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. \$1.50.)

The Open Church for the Unchurched

The Rev. James E. McCulloch, of Nashwille Tennessee here

ville, Tennessee, here throws upon the problem of city evangelization the light of a great example. Under the leadership of the late Hugh Price Hughes the British Wesleyans have shown in London what can be done in American cities, whose churches are said to be twenty years behind the forward movement now well under way there. Where we have city mission chapels the great central halls of the British Wesleyans are their largest and most costly edifices, and thither the crowds throng. In these strategic points the "open" or "institutional" church has its home, its arsenal, its altruistic supply for needs which other parts of the social organism—the home, the school, the government-fail to supply. What is most to the point, the ablest church leaders are put in command. These methods are worthy, not of entire adoption, but of wise adaptation to American needs. This is an inspiring book. As Bishop Hendrix says in its Introduction, "it is a picture of the firing line." (The Fleming H. Revell Company, New York. \$1, net.)

The Ranch on the Ox-Hide

The author of this young people's story of frontier life is Captain Henry

Inman, whose volume on "The Old Santa Fé Trail" in a more systematic way but with immensely entertaining qualities revived the old days of pack trains, trappers, teamsters, adventurers, and Indian fighters. The same kind of material is here used in describing the hardships, perils, and sport of a group

of four boys and girls thirty years ago, and before the Indian, the buffalo, and the antelope had disappeared. (The Macmillan Company, New York. \$1.50.)

In this book Mr. W. H. The Reconstruction Mallock deals only with of Religious Belief three fundamental articles of religious faith-God, freedom of the will, and immortality. Concerning what is distinctive in Christianity he has nothing to say. The foes he attacks are materialism and determinism. His attempt is to show, first, that faith in all three of the fundamental articles named above is essential to the social organism, and, second, that faith in at least the first two is really implicit in the agnosticism which ignores and the materialism which denies them. This is not an original argument, but it is put by Mr. Mallock in an original way. His book would be a third better if it were a third shorter. It appears to us quite conclusive to any one who is patient to read it and open-minded to give it attention. Simple as they appear to be to the superficial thinker, materialism and determinism are both self-contradictory, and their self-contradictions are by Mr. Mallock effectively exposed, though the process of argumentation is sometimes needlessly elabo-

Dr. Martha Tarbell has Teachers' Guide produced a work for teachers of the International Sunday-School Lessons for 1906 which ranks with the best of its class. It would be difficult to excel it in the line which passes over all critical problems to illustrate and apply to pupils of all ages the teaching of the text as it stands. Aside from its immediate value for the current year, whose lessons are all upon the life of Christ, it has a permanent value for preachers in quest of "sermon-stuff." To these its copious selections from helpful writers and numerous apt anecdotes present a large quarry of illustrative material. (The Bobbs-Merrill Company, Indianapolis.)

rated and complex. (Harper & Brothers,

New York. \$1.75, net.)

The United States in the Twentieth Century

When M. Pierre Leroy-Beaulieu's work first appeared, The Outlook (October 29, 1904) de-

voted considerable space to an account of the scope and conclusions of the book, recognizing it as one of the most important volumes about the United States ever written by a foreign student and observer. The book has now been carefully and admirably translated into English by Mr. H. Addington Bruce, and will undoubtedly take its place as an informative and instructive survey of the industries, resources, and development of the

United States. The author is the son of the eminent economist Paul Leroy-Beaulieu, and has himself published more than one book dealing with economic and industrial topics. He furnishes for this translation an extremely interesting preface, in which his view as to one tendency in this country and the danger of that tendency is thus expressed: "Of the qualities that have co-operated to elevate them [the American people] so rapidly to such a commanding position, the most impressive is a great, a tireless energy. Now that the obstacles raised by nature have been overcome, now that the country is already so wealthy that the individual cannot always hope to see his efforts as richly compensated as was formerly the case, there is danger that this precious quality may be to some degree lost. It seems to me that the first care of the Americans should be to maintain it in all its integrity. Now, the essential condition to the development of energy is liberty. Every restriction on liberty, with however good a purpose, diminishes the sentiment of individual responsibility and initiative. Yet we often hear mooted in America as elsewhere measures which, under the pretext of correcting abuses, would immeasurably extend the State's sphere of action and reduce the liberty of the citizens." Equally interesting is his remark in regard to the future of our great trusts: "I am persuaded that I ought to

adhere to my original opinion that the majority of these unwieldy organizations will be unable to survive an acute and prolonged period of depression. I believe, to put it briefly, that the attempt to monopolize a great industry and to control prices is certain to fail unless it receive direct or indirect governmental aid. And I am convinced that an unduly high opinion has been entertained of the dangers as well as of the strength of the trusts, and of the part they have played in the development of American manufacture." (Funk & Wagnalls, New York. \$2, net.)

No impulse of natural feel-With ing encounters graver diffithe Sorrowing culty than a tactful ministration of sympathy in the home overshadowed by the wing of the death angel. To facilitate it this little book, edited by an experienced pastor, Dr. Frederick W. Palmer, of Auburn, New York, has improved in various ways upon manuals in common use. By its classification of Biblical selections according to their suitability for different circumstances, its prayers, and its choice "songs for faith and comfort," it offers "suggestions for the use of pastors, missionaries, and other visitors in the homes of sorrow," most profitable for the avoidance of monotony and formalism in the effort to discharge a sacred duty. (Fleming H. Revell Co., New York. 75c., net.)

Letters to The Outlook

MORMONISM

Of the letters sent us concerning Mr. Irving's article on "Some Aspects of Mormonism" we here print one entire letter and passages from a second in criticism, and one in approval. Mr. Irving stated quite as frankly as any of our correspondents the evils of the Mormon hierarchy. We cannot understand how his article could have been interpreted as a "defense of Mormonism." Nor do we find anything in the article to imply that "time will effect a natural cure of these evils." The difference between Mr. Irving and his critics seems to have been occasioned by the fact that he urges as a cure for those evils, not denunciation, but education.—The EDITORS.

The amazing defense of Mormonism by G. A. Irving in The Outlook of January 6, 1906, comes as a surprise to many, in view of the startling disclosures made in the trial of the case of Reed Smoot, United States Senator from Utah and Apostle of the Mor-

mon Church, before the Senate Committee of Privileges and Elections.

We must take exception to one premise upon which the article is based—that prejudice against the Mormons exists to a large degree because of the biased reports of Christian workers in Utah, concerning whom the writer says: "From the very nature of his work, and the attitude of suspicion and hostile criticism which he often assumes on engaging in it, he is often blinded to the good of Mormonism." An apparently much more extended acquaintance with Christian workers in Utah allows us to assert that in hundreds of addresses given in the East by such there has not yet been heard one word which has differentiated the average Mormon in his social instincts and his neighborly attitude from other citizens, while each speaker has fully recognized and publicly granted that where hierarchic command does not limit his activities the lay member of the Mormon Church is quite as ready to do the kindly deed and to establish friendly

relations as the man of any creed. In addition, it is without question a fact that many of the strongest opposers of Mormonism, and thus known in Utah where they have lived for years, and who have spoken through the East on this subject, have yet the most pleasant relations with scores of Mormons, and are respected and loved in Mormon as well as Gentile communities. This is so eminently true of numbers of the best known of anti-Mormon Christian workers as scarcely to need repeating. Though they strive to lead him from the hold of a Church the doctrines of which are so notoriously "at odds at many points with Christian doctrine and the highest instincts of religious truth," yet it is not the Mormon as an individual with whom these workers have any quarrel, but rather with that organization whose history has been one long story of conflict with the United States Government, which has again and again broken its pledges to that Government, and which seeks the domination of the State by the Church, claiming its right to the temporal as well as the spiritual control of every member.

Our country is founded upon the absolute separation of Church and State, yet the Mormon Church has placed denominational teaching in the public schools of Utah. "Outside of two or three larger towns, every public school in the State is, in all but name, a Church school." Owing to Gentile agitation following the disclosures on this point at Washington, orders were issued from Church headquarters that such teaching should cease, but Mr. Irving assures us that it continues unchecked. "'Have you given up your religious classes in the schoolhouse?' some weeks afterward I inquired of my Mormon neighbor. 'No, indeed,' said he, with a smile; 'it was never intended that we should.'" We are thus introduced to one of the marked features of the Mormon hierarchy—its duplicity, the public promulgation of orders to be quoted to tourists, to be published in Eastern papers, to mislead the unwary, but accompanied to the faithful by that underground information that informs him that these orders are for effect and not to be taken literally. From the acceptance of the manifesto of 1890 and the steps which finally led to Statehood, to the present, so full has Mormon history been of these examples that the initiated scan closely every order issued, to learn, if it may be, the inward meaning.

Church teaching has been continuously traitorous, and its logical result may be seen in one Mormon town, where last year the public observance of July Fourth was by proclamation of the Mayor set aside in favor of the celebration of July 24—a great Church

holiday; also in a Mormon town of southern Utah, where, on July 4, 1905, the flag was not hoisted on the public flagstaff until late in the afternoon, and was then placed at half-mast.

Hope has come to Utah in the overwhelming success at the polls last November of the new American party formed of those Gentiles and few Mormons who realized the deadening effect of the Church dominance in politics and the downward trend of civic life under its influence. The "Deseret News," official organ of the Mormon Church, published in Salt Lake City, while it does not definitely place the blame where it belongs, upon city officials under the control of the hierarchy, would nevertheless not agree with Mr. Irving, "Nowhere have I found personal safety more secure and property rights more respected," as it has repeatedly during the past few weeks set forth the dangers in the streets of Salt Lake City from thugs and the lack of safety provided by the police. This is, however, quite "another story," as many non-Mormon cities are equally unsafe after nightfall; but if the Church paper, corroborated by other Salt Lake City papers, is to be believed, that community will quite hold its own with the other cities as to robberies, hold-ups, gambling-houses, and brothels. Mr. Irving paints his picture with too flattering a brush.

We are further informed as to polygamy that, "so far as its practical bearing on life is concerned, it is fast becoming derelict." At the trial of Reed Smoot, President Smith, of the Mormon Church, testified that he had five wives, all of whom had borne him children since the manifesto of 1890 forbidding polygamy; a number of the Twelve Apostles, seven, we believe, likewise testified that they were living in polygamous relations with two or more wives, while other high officials of the Church testified to similar conditions in their lives. All of these men, in answer to the questions of the members of the investigating committee, acknowledged that they knew they were living in open defiance of the laws of the State and of the publicly promulgated manifesto of the Church, yet President Smith, a lawbreaker by his own sworn testimony, is looked upon by Mormons as the "mouthpiece of God, a prophet, seer, and revelator." Further, in April, 1905, at the time of the Church conference and after the above disclosures had been made, these men were confirmed in authority by the people. "Of the eight thousand people present, quite half fully understood that certain of those they were called upon to confirm, judged by human or divine laws or under the rules of their own organization, were absolutely unworthy; but all the vast assembly, with only two exceptions, voted to confirm them in their positions."

Is polygamy a "derelict" among a people who deliberately sanction it in the leaders sworn to uphold Church laws, some of whom have taken new wives since Statehood? It is in Utah a notorious fact that younger men desirous of achieving ecclesiastical eminence have become polygamists since Statehood. "Many young women are plural wives to-day who were not fifteen years old at the time the pledge [to abstain from polygamy] was given."

Let us quote in closing from the protest adopted by the American party at its inception on March 14, 1904:

The law-abiding people of Utah have read with amazement, indignation, and disgust the declaration of President Joseph F. Smith, of the Mormon Church [at Washington], that they are broad-minded enough to consent to the shocking violations of law and public decency which he confesses to have committed.

We protest that we are not deserving of this sort of praise; on the contrary, we most emphatically repudiate and repel the statement, which in fact is an allegation that we, knowing of his defiant lawlessness, are accessories to his crime.

We declare, on the contrary, that he and the other polygamists have surrounded themselves with an impenetrable wall of secrecy in their perpetration of the misdeeds testified to, have systematically suppressed the record of births required by law, and it has been impossible, through court process or otherwise, to obtain any exact knowledge of what was being done, much less legal evidence of the offenses; that the public sentiment of the law-abiding people here has at all times been zealous for the punishment of polygamy and polygamous practices, as well as of other crimes.

It has therefore been impossible to know what was being done in this regard, notwithstanding strong suspicion of the facts entertained by many persons. The weil has been lifted in part, for the first time, in the testimony that has just been given by the Church leaders in Washington; and nowhere in the whole country did this testimony occasion so much astonishment and humiliation as in Utah. The investigation thus far has been so fruitful that we call for its rigid continuance, confident that further disclosures equally startling may be expected, as there are certainly deeper depths than have yet been sounded.

Thousands of the leading citizens of Utah indorsed this protest—men and women who know conditions by daily contact therewith, and at the polls vindicated their signatures. In the face of their solemn declarations, will the American people be lulled into fancied security that time will effect a natural cure of these evils?

M. KATHARINE BENNETT,
Corresponding Secretary Interdenominational Council of Women.

As a reader for many years of your magazine, I feel that I am privileged in its interest, and especially that of the country at large, to express my deep regret and surprise that

you should have given circulation and prominence to the Mormon article in the January issue. Surely the recent developments in the Smoot investigation have revealed beyond a doubt the spirit, method, and menace of a system born of fraud, nurtured in deception, and perfected in intrigue!

At the Smoot trial last winter the writer heard Senator Burrows put this question to the custodian of the Marriage Records in the Mormon Temple: "Do you mean to ten me that if the Senate of the United States were to demand those records of you that you would refuse to give them up, if ordered you do by the President of the Mormon Church?" "I could not give them up without authority from the President of the Church," was the prompt reply. Nor did he.

Just here lies the evil of Mormonism, in this belief of its disciples that the authority of the Church is greater and more sacred than that of the State. Upon this claim we base our demand for a legislative, restrictionary power, a Constitutional Amendment which will compel a recognition of Governmental authority and jurisdiction, heretofore utterly and successfully ignored, and that too, with the full knowledge and hearty indorsement of the "Big Twelve," who, Mr. Irving claims, are "the whole thing in Utah."

It is the public ignorance of the real facts in the Mormon problem—procurable to any who honestly desire to know and have the welfare of the country at heart—this apathetic endurance of appalling conditions, which a united public sentiment could speedily overthrow, that is responsible for the growth and vaunted prosperity of the foulest system which ever endangered a nation's safety and honor.

At the request of the President of the Interdenominational Council of Women, and representing also the National Woman's Christian Temperance Union, as lecturer in their joint campaign for an Anti-Polygamy Amendment to our National Constitution, I voice the general, aye universal, protest of the Christian womanhood of the Nation. On their behalf I ask that, in fairness to them and the cause they represent, you generously give publicity to this appeal.

(Mrs.) MARIA C. WEED.

New York City.

I desire to express appreciation of the article, "Some Aspects of Mormonism," by Mr. Irving, appearing in your January 6 number. Many articles are written concerning Mormonism by writers having plainly but a superficial knowledge of the subject matter, and usually from a prejudiced view-point. Mr. Irving comes nearer reciting the situa-

tion as it is known to those intimate with Utah and her people than many who have essayed to treat the subject. A native of New York, for ten years last past resident in Salt Lake, and with a most pronounced opinion regarding the iniquities of polygamy, I am constrained to say that much injustice has been done the masses of the Mormon people in many of the articles condemnatory of them and their religion heretofore written. To my mind, the solution of the question, as Herbert Spencer might put it, in line with his "Synthetic Philosophy," is evolutioni.e., education, not attack—and it is a singular fact that now where Mormons apostatize they seldom if ever embrace another faith. The one man, to the mind of many of us in Utah, who has done more enduring good for the Mormon people than any other, and who seems to have a more comprehensive knowledge of the practical way of handling conditions existent, is the Hon. George Foster Peabody, the New York financier philanthropist, who, in pursuing his altruistic ideas, has accomplished great good in Utah. His large beneficences to the Young Men's Christian Association in Salt Lake have caused a \$200.-000 building to rise, with an Association now having 1,500 members, hundreds Mormon. His inauguration of the traveling library, with dozens of cases of books, which are sent to the most remote parts of Mormon Utah, together with donations to our hospitals throughout the State, and other acts of similar kind, have proven of more real value in furthering the principles sought to be inculcated by non-Mormons than all the antagonistic articles ever written. Charity, patience, and education will prove the panacea for C. P. OVERFIELD. Mormonism.

Salt Lake City.

"THE MODERN CONCEPTION OF FOREIGN MISSIONS"

Dr. Gulick's article with the above title in The Outlook of November 4 has doubtless been read by many, as it has by myself, with deep interest. The article is timely; it is valuable. Does it perhaps invite, not criticism, but the addition of a further thought or two from one who, in the experience of a somewhat prolonged missionary life, has passed from what Dr. Gulick terms the "individualistic" into the "socialistic" conception of what foreign missions aim at and work towards?

1. May it not help us to look less at any theory of humanity, individualistic, socialistic, or other, and observe, the rather, what has been and what now is the practical form of work in the efforts of Christ's disciples to

fulfill our Lord's last command? If we do this, will not the query at once arise whether the conception Dr. Gulick commends can rightly be termed "modern"? The missionary work of the apostolic and of the postapostolic age-and there was an abundance of it-aimed, and that with marked success, at saving men as they were found, in all races, all classes, and also at elevating, purifying, Christianizing the whole social order within and without the Roman Empire. So, later on, the process of the evangelization of the various peoples of Europe, from the time when the first Gregory sent the monk Augustine to England at the end of the sixth century till the conversion of the Bulgarians in the tenth, was that of using the net rather than the hook. The aim was first to convince rulers and leaders of the people of the superior claims of Christianity, and through them to make Christian, and then to instruct in detail the people of the tribes and races subject to the ruler's authority. This method was carried to its extreme length by Charle-

Speaking generally, and it must be confessed somewhat inaccurately, modern missions are about a century old. There is no doubt that the great awakening, a century ago, among Christians of the West, to the duty of fulfilling our Lord's last command, resulted in missionary efforts which showed their results chiefly in individual conversions. "Soul-saving" was the watchword. It is equally true that a result, and a regrettable result, especially in the lower ranks of human life and society amid ancient Oriental civilizations, was often to isolate the converts from their people and render them dependent on their foreign benefactors. If those first missionaries, of saintly and illustrious memory, could now be challenged to answer for the method they adopted, would they not, in turn, challenge us to tell them what other course was then possible? What was the condition of India or China, not a century but half a century ago? China was then literally closed to foreign residents except in well-defined quarters of a few coast cities. India as well as China was closed and sealed and barred against foreign religious and social influence. Human life was thickly incrusted in customs ages old; Eastern civilizations run back into hoary antiquity. Orientals treated with contemptuous superiority religious and social innovations coming from the West. Even fifty years ago it required all the tact and perseverance of Christians fired with a passion for souls for whom Christ died, to get a hearing from one person here and from another there, among Oriental peoples. It is no wonder

that genuine converts were few and that little impression was made upon society. Yet the aim of those pioneer missionaries was to do just what the missionary of to-day can do and is doing. What we see is normal growth and development. We see the fulfillment of our Lord's parable of leaven. We may be grateful, but should not congratulate ourselves, over the fact that we are working nearer to the realization of the missionary ideal cherished by our predecessors. They saw only the rising of the morning star which has already ushered in our day.

We see that the stupendous enterprise we are working at means a spiritual uplifting and remolding of human life and society in all lands, a spiritual regeneration of men, individually and socially, intellectually, morally, politically. It is an enterprise compared with which Brooklyn bridges, Alpine tunnels, gigantic business trusts, are all child's play. But who can measure the responsibility which this knowledge imposes on us? The missionary work in its true idea, in its wide scope, in its stupendous plan and object, is that which makes life worthy of the sons of God, worthy of the brothers of the man of Nazareth, Gethsemane, and Calvary. Read through the Gospel records and observe that Jesus himself never had a shadow of doubt concerning the full accomplishment, in its time, of all for which he came to our world. Is he not seeing of the travail of his soul? Will he not, by and by, be fully satisfied? Recall the zeal of our predecessors in the translation and the widest possible circulation of the Bible, in the establishment of schools, in heralding the glad tidings. Let us rejoice that already many islands of the Pacific, and that at least one large people in the heart of Africa, have become Christian. And what are we going to do with the problem offered us in the Far East of a nation in some respects more Christian than some "Christian" nations, which is not yet Christian in name?

Measured by one human life, the progress of the kingdom of God in our world seems slow; measured by the eternal years into which that kingdom merges, we can both patiently wait its growth in time, and more courageously strive, during our day of labor,

to hasten our Lord's triumph, though it be but by one little hour.

GEORGE F. HERRICK.

Constantinople.

A CLEARING-HOUSE FOR BOYS' WORK

The very interesting articles by Ernest H. Abbott upon the work of the Young Men's Christian Association, and his careful criticism of its methods, make it worth while to call attention to one illustration of Association work which merits notice because it shows a readiness to adapt itself to local needs and a willingness to come into closest relationship to the churches.

In Norfolk County, Massachusetts, some three years ago, a county work was instituted with the purpose of giving to small towns unable to support an Association, some of the benefits of the Young Men's Christian Association. A man was put into the field, and it soon developed that the greatest need was for some effective work with boys. A society for boys, known as the Phi Alpha Pi, was planned and organized in several towns. It was found that the pastors of the churches were greatly interested in this work, and therefore several of the local societies were organized as boys' clubs connected with churches.

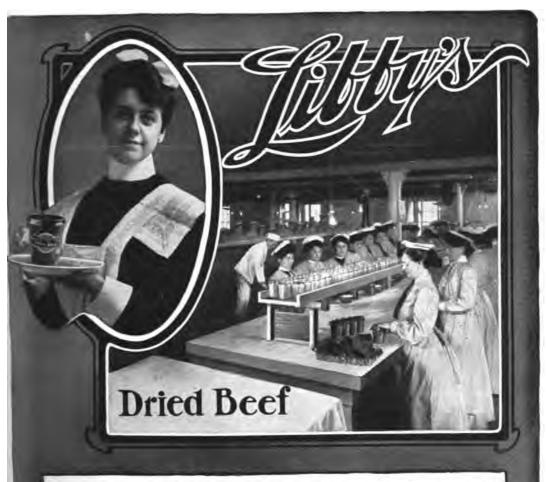
The result is that to-day most of the boys' clubs in Norfolk County, watched over and cared for by the County Secretary of the Young Men's Christian Association, are connected with various churches. The Young Men's Christian Association's Secretary has really taken the position of expert supervisor of boys' work in the churches of Norfolk County. He plans with the pastors and attends the meetings of the different boys' clubs, and his office in Boston is rapidly becoming a sort of clearing-house for the boys' work that is being done in the churches.

This is a valuable and efficient form of co-operation, and is suggestive of other ways in which the church and outside organizations may get together for the common good.

HARRY W. KIMBALL.

Union Congregational Church, South Weymouth, Massachusetts.

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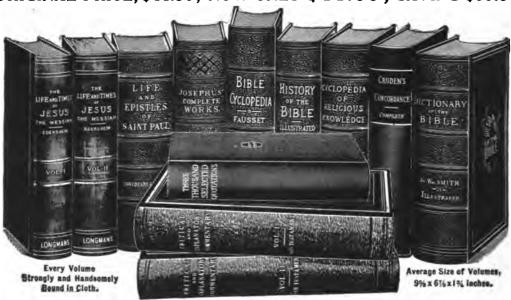
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The Outlook

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PRICE.—The subscription price is Three Dollars a year, payable in advance. Ten cents a copy.

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The Outlook

SATURDAY, FEBRUARY 10, 1906

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The failure on the Strike Prospects part of the Interin the Coal Industry State Joint Conferences of coal operators and mine workers in session at Indianapolis the past several weeks to come to an agreement as to the wages and conditions of employment which are to prevail in the coal industry of many of the States for the scale year following April 1 presents a very serious situation. There still remains a possibility, though slight, that the amicable relations which have existed for the past eight years between the employees and employers in the more important soft-coal fields of the Middle West will not be completely severed, and the country in consequence plunged into a widespread industrial struggle; but from present indications the actual prospect is contrary to the hope expressed. It is true that in 1904 the Inter-State Joint Conference of the central competitive territory adjourned its first meeting without an agreement, presenting somewhat the same situation as the country confronts at present, only to reconvene later and agree upon the terms of a new contract before the old one expired—not, however, before a vote of the mine employees in the States affected was taken upon the issue. Then industrial conditions were regarded by the miners' officials as unpromising, and in consequence, with the indorsement of the members of the union, they accepted a reduction in wages of five and onehalf per cent. They claim now that they did so with the understanding that this reduction was to be restored at the following Conference. As the agreement embodying the reduction was for two years, the Conference of the past several weeks is the first held since the wage reduction was accepted. Not only did the representatives of the mine workers demand the restoration of this five and

one-half per cent. reduction of two years ago, but they asked for an additional increase of seven per cent., or a total increase in wages for the coming year over those paid the past year of twelve and Their demands also one-half per cent. included the prohibition of the labor of boys under sixteen years of age in and around the mines, an eight-hour day where not now in force, and other concessions too technical for mention here. Moreover, most of them are unimportant, inasmuch as all the demands of the mine workers were lost sight of in the debate over the demand for an increase Around this principal dein wages. mand centered practically the entire discussion of the Conference. The operators refused emphatically to grant any demand which carried with it an increase in wages, offering in opposition to the miners' demands that the present wage scale be continued for another year. With these differences clearly marked. the Inter-State Joint Conference of the central competitive fields has adjourned without any agreement, and unless something definite towards this end is accomplished before April 1, the mine workers of western Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois will refuse to sell their labor at the present price, and as a result will quit work on that day, thus suspending mining operations throughout these dis-The situation is even more seritricts. The Inter-State Joint Conference of what is known as the Southwest territory (Missouri, Kansas, Arkansas, Indian Territory, and Texas), meeting in Indianapolis at the same time, has also adjourned without an agreement being entered into. Thus, in nine States, employing over 225,000 mine workers, of which number approximately 175,000 are paid-up members of the United Mine Workers of America, a suspension of soft-coal mining is probable on April 1.

Add to this number the 75,000 mine workers in six other States in which the State agreement contract also expires on the same date, and we have a total of more than 300,000 soft-coal mine employees who may suspend coal production at the end of next month in fifteen of the more important mining States. Nor does this number include the 150,000 anthracite mine employees whose present arrangement under the award of the Anthracite Coal Strike Commission terminates on March 31. For the present the situation in the hard-coal fields is in the hands of the conference of operators and mine workers which has been called for February 15.

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Thus is presented an Where the industrial situation Responsibility Lies in the coal fields of the United States never before confronted in this country. Something analogous to it, although on a much smaller scale, was experienced during the several months preceding the great strike of the mine workers in the central competitive and adjoining soft-coal fields inaugurated on July 4, 1897. On that date more than 100,000 coal-mine employees in eleven States suspended mining operations for eight weeks, affecting seriously the coal production of western Pennsylvania, West Virginia, Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, and a part of the anthracite region of Pennsylvania. At that time the actual paid-up membership of the United Mine Workers of America, which organization directed the strike, did not reach 10,000, whereas to-day it exceeds 300,000. At the inauguration of the 1897 strike the treasury of the union was practically empty; to-day the organization has at its immediate command a defense fund amounting to nearly \$3,000,000. The 1897 strike was one of the consequences flowing out of the breakdown several years previous of the Inter-State Joint Conference, but it succeeded in restoring this industrial machinery to the central competitive territory. Upon its successful operation since then is to be placed the credit for the continuance of industrial peace in the coal industry of those States, for no strike of any serious propor-

tions has taken place since 1897 in any of the districts governed by the Inter-State Joint Conference. We believe the public welfare demands emphatically that every possible means be resorted to by those having in charge the continuance of this industrial machinery before they permit the present crisis to merge into a still greater one by its breakdown. The consequences are so serious and the responsibility resting upon the leaders of the operators and of the mine workers is so great that a strict accountability will be demanded by the public of those who force upon it, or rather do not prevent it from experiencing, the threatened industrial war. That responsibility cannot be laid upon either party alone. For to affirm that the operators alone are responsible is to insist that they must always pay whatever the miners ask, and to affirm that the miners alone are responsible is to insist that they must always take whatever the operators Neither proposition is true. In a case of this kind, in which no vital principle is involved, but only a question of the proper sharing of the profits of an industry between those engaged in it, where agreement is not possible, arbitration should be resorted to. It is intolerable that the general public should be made to suffer a coal famine because the two partners engaged in the work of coal-mining quarrel over their division of the profits.

Judge Holdom, of a A Labor Union Chicago court, has fined in Contempt a Typographical Union for contempt of court, and sentenced two of its members to both fine and imprisonment. A request for jury trial was denied on the ground that "the Court has no doubt about the facts." The question whether an unorganized body (for the Typographical Union is not incorporated) can be punished for contempt because of the conduct of its officials, not specifically described by the body as such, is not even discussed by the Judge. It is a general principle that no person, whether corporate or individual, can be held guilty of a criminal act unless it is brought home to him; and it appears to us that the Judge in this case should either have

shown that the Union did explicitly authorize the acts of its officers which are adjudged to be in contempt of the injunction granted by the Court, or else he should have pointed out under what conditions a partnership—for as such an unincorporated union must be regarded by the law—can be held criminally responsible for the acts of an official not specifically authorized by the body of which he is an officer. In the case of Franklin Union No. 4 vs. The People, the union was incorporated, and there was evidence showing corporate acts of the union in violation of the injunction. In the present case the union was not incorporated, and we fail to discover in the Judge's opinion any indication of any evidence of organic acts by the union in violation of the injunction granted. The Outlook is of the opinion that no such body should be held guilty of contempt for the illegal conduct of its officers without explicit evidence that this conduct was authorized by the body; and it is also of opinion that in all proceedings for contempt for acts not done in the presence of the court, the accused ought to be entitled by law to demand a jury trial prior to the infliction of any penalty as for a crime. The same judge ought not to be permitted to issue the injunction, try the accused, adjudge him guilty, and determine the sentence.

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The prediction of Kansas Oil-Producers' The Outlook sev-Problem eral months ago that the battle of Kansas against the Standard Oil trust was not won when it adopted drastic legislation is being amply fulfilled in the struggle of the independent refineries for business. Eight such institutions have been established, and five of them are in operation. output of refined oil has the advantage of the low freight rates and absence of discrimination, both resulting from the legislation of last winter. These alone, however, as the independent refiners are finding out, do not make large profits. In the first place, the Standard Oil Company quite naturally receives the same rates and sells at the same price, making the retail disposition of inde-

pendent oil to a considerable extent the result of State pride in its new industries. But Kansas has only a million and a half people; in every town of importance the Standard has a thoroughly equipped system of selling by wagons, and the market left for the independents is by no means sufficient for the upbuilding of a profitable business. When the adjoining States and Territories are sought, what happens? An address just issued by the independent refiners and sent to Commissioner Garfield says that the alliance between the railroads and the Standard, together with the latter's extensive network of pipe-lines, practically limits them to the State boundaries. prove this they give these instances: Refined oil can be shipped from Chanute, Kansas, to Weber, Kansas, 254 miles, for 10½ cents per 100 pounds; to ship it seven miles farther on the same road, to Superior, Nebraska, changes the rate to 30 cents. There is no change of routing, of cars, or of road, yet the rate is trebled. From Chanute to Kiowa, Kansas, 181 miles, the rate is 9 cents; from Chanute to Alva, Oklahoma, 199 miles, it is 35 cents. The Kansas rates are the result of State legislation, but of course are not operative outside the State lines. "We are hemmed in on all sides." say the refiners; "like prison guards, the railroads and the Standard Oil Company lurk on the borders of the State, gun in hand, ready to call a halt on any man who has the temerity to try to ship his oil, either crude or refined, outside the borders of the State. If we are going to have any independent competition in petroleum worthy the name, we must have a wider market than the State of Kansas."

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The Demand for Federal Aid

Following this address came a meeting of oil-producers at Kansas City to consider ways and means of selling crude oil. The product of the Kansas-Indian Territory field is now over 60,000 barrels a day; the independent refineries take 3,000 barrels; the Standard is buying about 35,000 barrels a day, and already has more than 10,000,000 barrels stored in the territory covered by the conference. Since the attack by the Missouri

authorities on its organization in that State it has stopped work on a second pipe-line to Whiting, Indiana, from which the producers hoped relief. Oil prices, when the product can be sold at all, are practically the same as last spring, approximately 50 cents a barrel. Under these conditions it is evident that the owner of an oil well or refinery has no flattering prospect, and it is difficult to see how Kansas can add to its statutes in such way as to help matters. Naturally, the producers and refiners turn to the Federal authorities as their only refuge—for they refuse to believe the Standard's excuse that over-production has caused the low prices of oil. Up to this time the Standard has been little affected financially by the Kansas agitation. It has filled its immense tanks with oil at the lowest price ever known in the field, barely enough to pay for pumping it to the surface, and has reduced its cost to Kansas consumers (who are the only ones benefited) by barely the amount of the lessened freight. It has, however, been greatly the loser through public disapproval, and the Kansas strife has set other commonwealths so vigorous an example that, even if the Government does not take drastic action, enough States may join the movement to extend the market of both refined and crude oil to the extent necessary for permanent and satisfactory profit. This is the hope of the producers of the Western field, and they are waiting eagerly for Commissioner Garfield's promised report on the oil industry as a working basis and as an impetus toward effective legislation elsewhere. The facts emphasize the truth that the railroads can make or mar communities and even States as well as individuals, and that industrial liberty depends on some far more effective regulation of freight rates than present laws afford.

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Reform Measures in Pennsylvania erno

The reform legislation made possible by Governor Pennypacker's

call for a special session of the Legislature is in various stages of progress. The repeal of the notorious Ripper Bill has been finally passed and approved by the Governor, and so one bit of iniquitous work of the regular session of 1905 has been undone. This bill transferred the power to appoint the Director of Public Safety and the Director of Public Works from the Mayor to the Council. By its repeal the scandal of divided responsibility has been put to an The personal registration bill has been reported out of committee practically as introduced by Mr. Sheatz, who represents the election reform element on the floor of the House. The present prospects indicate that the bill, which is a comprehensive and satisfactory one, will pass. The same forces have prepared and introduced a uniform primary bill (also introduced by Mr. Sheatz), providing for the holding of the primaries of all parties on the same day and under the supervision of the regular election officers. The ballot is furnished by the State, but each elector must ask for the ticket he wishes to vote, and, if challenged, must declare the party he expects to support at the next election. A very satisfactory civil service bill applying to Philadelphia has been introduced at Mayor Weaver's request. In a forceful speech before the legislative committee having the matter in charge Mayor Weaver declared:

The power which has heretofore been exercised by the Mayor, or those behind the Mayor, has made it possible to build up a great big machine, whose power was not confined to the city of Philadelphia. It is that power that this bill should take away from the Mayor. . . . I think the only way to apply the merit system is to give the Mayor absolute power to establish an absolutely independent Civil Service Commission. As far as I am concerned, I do not care who shall appoint the commissioners, or how they shall serve. I do not care whether this bill is to be operated under me or the next Mayor. I do want a merit system established in Philadelphia that will give every department the best service that can be obtained, absolutely regardless of politics. . . You talk about having three names certified. What would you think of one thousand men on the eligible list, as was the old custom, and not one being able to be appointed because some other man had the indorsement of forty politicians because he had performed some political service for a political boss, who did not care whether the city of Philadelphia got good service or not?

The prosecution of ballot-box frauds in Philadelphia continues. Last week three

election officers in the Twenty-sixth Ward were convicted of stealing the regular ballot-box and substituting for it The Commonone stuffed to order. wealth proved that the substituted box was stuffed with ballots which had been previously marked and tied up in packages of ten. The announcement that 195 ballots had been cast was a cue to those in the other room to place that number in the second box. In their haste, however, the conspirators threw in one package too many, making 205 instead of 195. A set of officials from a Fifteenth Ward Division were convicted for falsifying the count at the February, 1905, election. The conviction of these men indicates that the changed frame of mind of the people of Philadelphia on this subject continues.

In Democratic Sen-**Treaties** atorial caucus last Not Party Measures week Senator Patterson, of Colorado, resenting an attempt to enforce party discipline in opposition to the San Domingo treaty, declared that never before had action on a treaty been made a question of party consideration. This is certainly in accord with reason and justice, and we have not seen any allegation that as to actual historical practice Senator Patterson was in error. The reply made by Senator Culberson avoided entirely the principle involved and attempted to make a special and exceptional case of the San Domingo matter, by asking if there had ever been known "a treaty which departed so far, not only from the tenets of the party, but from the traditions of the country, and one which had been negotiated in such an extraordinary way." It cannot be too positively asserted that international peace and friendly relations must not be endangered by dealing with treaty proposals and obligations as fit subjects for factional, partisan fights in caucus or on the floor of Congress. In the Senate itself Senator Patterson had already declared openly that he was in favor of the President's policy as to San Domingo. Senator Morgan had given a similar intimation, and other Democratic Senators were known to have the like inclination. The caucus was an attempt to bind al! Democratic Senators by the two-thirds vote adopted as an authoritative caucus method by the party in the Senate two or three years ago. This was carried through; with only four negative votes the caucus formally resolved that it was the duty of every Democratic Senator to vote against ratification. Later on Senator Patterson introduced a resolution in the Senate declaring that the action of the Democratic caucus, in dictating to Senators how they should vote on the San Domingo treaty, was a plain violation of the spirit and intent of the Constitution of the United States. It remains to be seen whether the five Democratic votes necessary, according to the general estimate, to insure the ratification will be cast regardless of caucus tyranny. Press discussion seems to foreshadow the success of the treaty; and Secretary Root's thorough exposition of Domingan complications and of the need of prompt action, before the Senate's Foreign Relations Committee last week, made a decided impression.——We are glad to note that the bill to preserve Niagara Falls by joining with Canada in fixing practical measures of restraint has been favorably reported to the House, and that Mr. Lodge's bill for improvement of the consular service has passed the Senate—a measure already characterized in The Outlook as acceptable only on the "half-loaf" principle, and one that might well be improved in the House with even the faint hope that the Senate might in conference accept such betterment.

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On more than one occasion Reprisal, the American Government Not Revision has irritated the rest of the world by the establishment of extreme tariffs. America has now a chance to know how it feels. On March 1 the new German high tariff goes into effect. Under its provisions there is an important increase in the rates on various products, notably breadstuffs, for which we have hitherto found a large market in Germany. Exports of manufactures to Germany will also be affected-in the

growing shoe trade, for instance, the present rates are to be doubled and trebled. By the new tariff, however, minimum rates—which would largely continue our trade on its present basis—are offered to nations giving similar favors. The concessions offered by the Dingley tariff do not, of course, answer for such "similar favors." The German Government, therefore, has been hoping that a treaty of reciprocity might be established between it and the American Government. Concerning this Prince von Bülow, the Imperial Chancellor, said recently:

We have, naturally, a lively interest to reach a new agreement with the United States, and this wish corresponds not only with the friendly political relations of the two peoples, but also with the economic needs of both. Of course we wish in our new agreement with the United States to maintain the same points of view as those that controlled us in recasting our general commercial relationships and in the new commercial treaties already negotiated. We have, accordingly, drawn our proposals after a careful examination of the German interests affected. Our proposition will, we think, be quite within practicable limits, and certainly we shall approach the American Government with no requests that would injure the vital features of the American economic organism.

The Chancellor's view as to the means for bringing the two nations together in a new trade agreement is that ten tariff experts on either side shall meet for a frank exchange of friendly explanations. It is, of course, always possible to recognize contrary views when the general advantages of real reciprocity are kept in mind. Instead of this, what is proposed by the leaders in Congress? An increase of twenty-five per cent. over the Dingley schedules is to be assessed on imports from every country which fails to give to American products mostfavored-nation treatment, and a duty of twenty-five per cent. is to be imposed on all imports now on the free list when coming from countries which fail to give their lowest duties to the United States. This is the negation of reciprocity and revision. It is reprisal.

German
State-Owned Railways

The advantages and disadvantages of government ownership of railways as exemplified in Germany are set forth in a popular.

The advantages much taken from the taxes needed to pay Government expenses. The traveler helps pay the taxes, and the contribution even from foreign travelers is no inconsiderable amount. It is certain that

and interesting way by Mr. Charles Edward Russell in the current number of "Everybody's Magazine." In point of speed American railways are undoubtedly superior, and there is a great deal about the military discipline and excessive formality and rigidness of system in the German management that would seem irksome and absurd to Americans. A most amusing pen-picture, for instance, is given by Mr. Russell of the pompous station-master of "Bomburg-Homburg," with his magnificent uniform and grandiose supervision of the departure of a train. But in the essentials of comfort. cheapness, and convenience there is much to praise in the German roads. Mr. Russell says, "As nothing need be scrimped or stolen to make up dividends on watered stock and fraudulent bonds, the outfit is uniformly good, the roadbeds and track are in excellent condition, and the stations great roomy places, often of elaborate and handsome design." The trains are seldom late, and accidents are almost unknown. Russell asserts that although the German roads carry nine hundred million passengers a year, almost none meet with accidents, and that in America more people are killed in a week by the railways than in Germany in a year. The cheapness of passenger rates may be judged from the fact that there are fourth-class cars in which the peasantry may travel at the rate of less than a cent a mile. ing-car compartment with two berths closed off by itself, from Berlin to Frankfort, costs only \$2.50. There are liberal reductions for round trips, circular tours, and workmen's tickets. Private ownership of railways in Germany has almost passed away since 1871, when the first experiment in this direction was made. To-day twenty-nine out of every thirty-two miles of railway in Germany are owned by Government. Moreover, the business is made to pay. It is computed that the net annual profits of all State-owned railways for ten years have been between This is just so five and six per cent. much taken from the taxes needed to pay The traveler Government expenses. helps pay the taxes, and the contribution even from foreign travelers is no incon-

Germany in acquiring railways was not actuated by the desire of putting into practice any theory of State Socialism, but by the wish to get money to help pay her enormous military and other Government charges. Moreover, as Mr. Russell puts it, "The Government woke up in 1871 to recognize two facts: first, that whoever owns a country's transportation service owns the country; and, second, that it needed the national highway for national use." Prussia took the lead, and at the outset all the objections advanced by opponents of the idea in America were strenuously urged—that it would be a wrongful interference with private rights, that the vested interests of private companies could not be ignored nor purchased cheaply, that widows and orphans who owned railway stock and bonds would suffer. According to the account given by Mr. Russell, all this was overcome by one man—a " man with iron will, unbeatable and unturnable, who kept hammering away until he got what he wanted." Albert von Maybach, of the Prussian Ministry, "went quietly into the stock market and bought the control of one or two railroads. On these he instantly slashed all rates and reached out for all the business." brought the private companies to terms one by one, and a fair system of compensation was carried out. At present an Imperial Railway Department at Berlin harmonizes and co-ordinates the work of the different roads and enforces uniformity of method and fairness of charges-just as our Inter-State Commerce Commission should do if it had the power. Freight rates are probably a little higher than in America, but the classification is simple, the rates are the same to everybody, and are not changed arbitrarily or through favoritism. quote once more from Mr. Russell's conclusions: "So far as any outsider can discover, there is no grafting, and assuredly there is no stock juggling, bond juggling, rate juggling, rebates, discriminations, thefts, underbilling, wrong classifications, skin games, and frauds on shippers. Every shipper knows exactly what he pays and what his competitors pay, and the chief plaint of the American shipper is absolutely unknown

in Germany." American railways should make such a contrast impossible.



The Russian revolu-The Revolution in tion has been parthe Baltic Provinces ticularly devastating in the Baltic provinces. There distress has been the lot of people who are in sympathy with neither the revolutionists nor the autocracy. Generations ago this region was settled by German families, many of them of lordly wealth and station. In the course of the years they have become patriotic Russians, though they have kept their Teutonic blood They comprise the great landowners, soldiers, bankers, merchants, scholars, and rulers of the region. With their loyalty to Russia they have a Teutonic sense of the right to their own traditions, customs, and privileges, and they cling to the German language. They long ago obtained and have until recently preserved inviolate certain concessions which the autocracy has granted to no other portion of the Empire. The university at Dorpat, for instance, has had its own police and court, and its members have not been answerable to the local officials of the Czar. It is these people of German descent, therefore, who have given character to the Baltic provinces. Some of the Czar's most trusted Ministers have always come from this German element, which has been a strong force in the Empire. Russians proper in these provinces are, as a rule, bureaucrats and officials; the Germans, for the most part, constitute the landed aristocracy, and are still largely imbued with the spirit of feudal-The Letts, on the other hand, as the Slavic people in that region are called, are generally of the lower classes; they are the peasantry, the small dealers, and the tenantry. It is the Letts who have been engaged in a violent and destructive uprising in the Baltic provinces, and the object of their attack is mainly the Teutonic upper classes. In the meantime this German population has had many of its ancient privileges revoked by the Imperial Government. Its traditions have been violated and its feelings flouted. Even the name of the city of

Dorpat has been changed to Yuryev. Between the Letts on one side and the autocracy on the other, the people of wealth, cultivation, and high spirit in this part of Russia have been thrust into a condition of misery and helplessness. In the region around Reval they have been driven from their homes, which have been burned and wasted; some of them have lost their lives, and others are crowded into the fortified portion of the city called the Dom, there to face death from hunger and destitution. The Letts now are in turn suffering; for the Imperial Government has been characteristically unfeeling in visiting reprisals upon them. Action has already been taken for the raising of a fund in the United States to relieve the distress among the Germans and the Letts, and the Merchants' Exchange National Bank of New York is acting as the depository and forwarder of contributions. The experience of the Baltic provinces is an illustration of the fearful waste, not only of property, but also of human life, energy, and character, which is the penalty of such a convulsion as that through which Russia is now passing.

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Last week two important Russian congresses were held in Congresses Russia—one by revolutionists, one by conservatives. The Congress of Revolutionists was held at Imatra, Finland, and lasted two days. Ninety delegates were in attendance, representing the central committees of the Social Democratic Revolutionists, the Peasant League, the Council of Workmen, the Polish Socialists, and the Finnish Revolutionists. The collapse of the December risings had apparently disheartened all except the Poles, who wished to make another immediate at-This desire was voted down, and the conference decided to postpone further revolutionary operations until spring, when agrarian troubles are expected to begin again. As to the Duma, or proposed parliament, the Congress thus put itself on record:

Owing to restricted and unequal suffrage, the arbitrary rule of the satraps of martial law throughout the Empire, and the countless arrests and repressions of the true defenders of political freedom and of the interests of workmen, the latter are able to enter the National Assembly only accidentally and in small numbers. The existence of such a caricature of a National Assembly as a feature of constitutionalism will only serve to interest the autocratic and bureaucratic systems, extend their calamitous rule, help to improve the credit of Europe, and forge new financial chains for the nation.

At Moscow the Congress of Noblemen They demanded (1) a strong was held. power, using sensible measures to suppress revolution and to protect peaceful Russians from violence; (2) the immediate announcement by the Emperor of the date of the convocation of the Duma, not later than April 28; (3) the sacrifice of the dreams of the Poles and other border nationalities to the interests of the whole nation, for Russia is one and indivisible; (4) the maintenance of the inviolability of private property, but (to enable peasants to buy private holdings) the sale of unoccupied Government lands on easy terms, and the establishment of a system of easy credit. Two days later the Emperor showed his heed of the first of the statements regarding In receiving a deputation from the Government of the Province of Kursk he said, as reported:

My brothers, I am most glad to see you. You must know very well that every right of property is sacred to the State. The owner has the same right to his land as you peasants have to yours. Communicate this to your fellows in the villages. In my solicitude for you I do not forget the peasants, whose needs are dear to me, and I will look after them continually, as did my late father. The National Assembly will soon assemble, and, in co-operation with me, discuss the best measures for your relief. Have confidence in me. I will assist you. But I repeat, remember always that right of property is holy and inviolable.

As helping to solve the agrarian problem, the Government is now considering appropriating a huge sum to compensate private owners for land which the Government would like to expropriate for distribution to the peasants. The operation would be accomplished by the Peasants' Bank's purchase of the lands and their sale to the peasantry on the installment plan. The difficulty in all this, of course, is the size of the sum necessary, the impossibility of obtaining it in Russia, and the well-nigh impossibility of adding to the already great sums borrowed from abroad and those which must still be borrowed in order to meet the deficiency in the budget.

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The Danes have again Frederick VIII. a "Frederik" on the of Denmark In the list of throne. Danish kings since 1513 there has been an uninterrupted alternation between the two names Christian and Frederik. Throughout Denmark last week, while Frederick VIII.'s accession was hailed with appropriate satisfaction, sorrow at the death of Christian IX. was, of course, the dominant sentiment. The affecting grief of the members of the remarkably united royal family was reflected everywhere in the little kingdom. From the whole world, too, there came unanimous eulogy, finding expression in the public press of whatever political opinion and in the thousands of despatches sent to the Amalienborg, the palace where the late King died. Family services had already been held over his body. The interment takes place at the cathedral of Roskilde, about twenty miles from Copenhagen, and the ancient capital of Denmark. Once the town had a hundred thousand inhabitants; now it contains only about six thousand. cathedral shelters the tombs of most of the Danish kings, from the time of Harald I., who died in 987. The bodies of a number of the early monarchs are entombed perpendicularly in the huge columns of the old cathedral, doubtless emphasizing the sentiment that the kings were veritable "pillars of the Church." The Danish crown worthily descends to Frederick VIII., who, in character, ability, and popularity, strikingly resembles his exemplary father. The new King is sixty-three years old. At the age of twenty-six he married Princess Lowisa (Louise), the daughter of Karl XV. of Sweden, the tallest princess in Europe, and at the time of her marriage perhaps the wealthiest, as inheriting the property of her mother, a sister of the late King of Holland. The King and Queen have eight children. The eldest is Prince Christian, now Crown Prince, who married the beautiful Princess "Adiny"—as she is

affectionately called—or Alexandrine of Mecklenburg-Schwerin. The King's second son, Prince Karl, is now Haakon VII., King of Norway. Prior to the proclamation of his accession King Frederick held a council of state, at which the Ministers tendered their resignations and were requested to retain their posts. Afterward the new ruler, surrounded by the princes, received the Cabinet Ministers, the presidents of the Landsthing and the Folkething—the two houses of the Danish Riksdag, or Parliament—and the chief court, civil, and military officers. Then the Premier, Jens Christian Christiansen, stepped out on the balcony of the palace and shouted to the throng of fifty thousand people below, "His Majesty King Christian IX. is dead! Long live his Majesty King Frederick VIII.!" Hurrahs broke from the crowd, the flags on all the public buildings were run up, and a royal salute thundered from the city's forts. The King then appeared on the balcony and addressed his people as follows:

Our old King, my dearly beloved father, has closed his eyes. He fell asleep peacefully and calmly, having faithfully discharged his royal duties to the last. In taking over the heavy heritage placed on my shoulders, I cherish the confident hope, and offer a sincere prayer, that the Almighty may grant me strength and happiness to carry on the government in the spirit of my dearly beloved father, and that I may have the good fortune to reach an understanding with the people and their chosen representatives on all that tends to the good of the people and the happiness of our beloved fatherland. Let us join in the cry, "Long live the fatherland!"

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There may not be so much The Chinese about partitioning Army China if future military reviews there continue to mark such progress as did the one recently held near the city of Hosien. The scheme of the maneuvers was the assumed invasion of the metropolitan province of Chili by a southern force from the province of Shantung. During the entire maneuvers some thirty thousand men-threequarters of the Northern Army-were engaged: the final parade showed 20,000 infantry, 1,200 cavalry, 1,300 artillery, with 120 field and mountain guns, and, finally, 1,100 engineers. The infantry

was armed with Mauser magazine rifles of the 1888 pattern, with a short dagger bayonet, many having been made at the Chinese arsenal at Hanyang. The cavalry was armed with Mauser carbines and swords; the men were mounted on Mongolian ponies, which, though small, were in good condition; the saddlery and accouterments were bad and the men had no spurs. The Chinese cavalry is proportionately much weaker than the infantry, and years will be required to perfect it. On the invitation of the Imperial authorities, thirty officers, representing foreign armies, attended the maneuvers. These guests sharply criticised the generalship displayed; for instance, the absence of proper support for the artillery, which they thought was injudiciously placed. But the foreign officers gave abundant praise for the control of the troops and the steadiness of discipline exhibited, the latter bearing favorable comparison with that of European troops. For example, an observer, while riding behind some of the Chinese soldiers lying in cover, noticed that not one turned his head from attention to his work. Even the very critical correspondent of the London "Times" remarks in that paper: "Better fire discipline could scarcely be conceived. The manner in which the drivers handled their teams and brought the guns out of line one by one was a sight for gods." He adds that the commissariat arrangements were admirable. All this may be said to be the creation of the past four years, and is due to the genius of Yuan-Shi-Kai, Viceroy of the Province of Chili, probably the most influential man in China to-day. There was a time, not so far back either, when the appearance of Chinese troops meant mostly a display of banners and parasols. But those military experts present at the recent maneuvers who were familiar with military conditions in China even five years ago were astonished at the revelation of military efficiency, especially in the infantry. Progress in that branch of the service is not astonishing, however, when it is remembered that under Gordon the Chinese marched with seeming tirelessness and fought with courage. From such material Yuan-Shi-Kai has created a provincial army which will be the nucleus of an imperial military reorganization.

In the task of building up Foreign Aid an army in China the great need is not men but officers. In consequence, Yuan-Shi-Kai and the other viceroys who have imitated him have obtained officers from Japan; the troops already give many evidences of Japanese training. But China needs something besides officers; she needs the Japanese samurai spirit—that military tradition which has made Japan an incredibly easy victor, first over China and now over Russia. China has now to overcome the opinions which for centuries have caused the profession of arms to be a little esteemed one. Consequently ambitious young men have shunned it. They can hardly do so in the future, now that the Government has established military colleges at many of the capitals of the eighteen provinces. Americans have a peculiar interest in the military college at Ngangking, the capital of the province of Nganhwei, for its students and those of the training camp are treated free at the clinic of the American St. James's Hospital. In addition, a year ago Dr. MacWillie, in charge of the hospital, offered to Commander Tan, of the military college, to train an ambulance The offer was eagerly accepted. Twenty-four men were thereupon taught by regular lectures and given practical experience at our hospital clinics. course included instruction in the treatment of wounds and fractures, in asepsis, in bandaging, and in the handling of stretchers. The Chinese were not long in attaining creditable proficiency. This ambulance corps was the first ever organized in the Chinese army. It marked a new and definite departure in the Empire's annals, not only of militarism but of humanity. In these times of anti-American feeling in China, due largely to our harsh application of the Exclusion Act, it is a satisfaction to know that in the Chinese army itself—the outward expression of an awakened nationalism-American influence of another and better kind has made itself felt.

Last week the Protestant A Significant Missionary Boards united Dinner in giving in New York a dinner to the Chinese Commissioners. Something over five hundred guests were present, and more would have been there if they could have been accommodated. The event was doubly notable. Fifty years ago the Christian churches would certainly not have offered this honor to representatives of a pagan nation, and probably the pagan representatives would not have accepted the dinner, if offered. Missionary service has educated both Christians and pagans. The lews in the first century looked upon pagans with commingled hatred and contempt. They would fellowship no pagan unless he were "born again" and became a Jew. When they commended a Roman centurion, it was not for his value as a man, but because "he hath built us a synagogue." Jesus Christ inculcated a different spirit. He commended the centurion for his spiritual worth. Paul, first to catch his Master's spirit, told the idolworshipers at Athens that they were the offspring of God and that their idol-worship was a praiseworthy seeking after God; and Peter was explicitly taught in a vision that he was not to refuse to eat with pagan commissioners. These two tendencies—the Jewish and the Christian—have contended in the Church ever since: and the dinner to the Chinese Commissioners is a striking evidence that the Christian spirit of fellowship with pagan peoples at last dominates in the Christian Church. Nor is the testimony of the Chinese Commissioners to the value of Christian missions, as measured by Chinese standards, less remarkable. Witness this extract from the address of the Viceroy Tuan:

We take pleasure this evening in bearing testimony to the part taken by American missionaries in promoting the progress of the Chinese people. They have borne the light of Western civilization into every nook and corner of the Empire. They have rendered inestimable service to China by the laborious task of translating into the Chinese language religious and scientific works of the West. They help us to bring happiness and comfort to the poor and the suffering by the establishment of hospitals and schools. The awakening of China, which now seems to be at hand, may be traced in no small

measure to the hand of the missionary. For this service you will find China not ungrateful. Protestant missionary work in China has not created Chinese prejudice against America; but it has done much to counteract the hostility excited, not unjustly, by some commercial boors abroad and some political boors at home.

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The resignation of the The Achievement Rev. William S. Rainsof Dr. Rainsford ford from the rectorship of St. George's Church, New York, happily does not bring to an end the distinctive work which he there initiated and maintained. For twenty years and more he has brought the power of a vigorous and electric personality to bear upon the lives of thousands of individuals; but he has also organized an idea and embodied it in a church. For over a year Dr. Rainsford has been in Europe; but the church which he has brought to life by teaching it how to spend its life for the community has been doing its work with continued vigor, under the Rev. Hugh Birckhead, his assistant-incharge, now chosen as his successor. St. George's is as great a monument to a man's faith as could well be imagined. Dr. Rainsford found it decadent; instead of engaging in the business of getting support for it, he set it to work. He made it go into the boarding-houses and tenement-houses; he set it the task of maintaining a trade school; he put before it problem after problem, showed it the way to find the solutions, and then committed to it the labor of working out those solutions in practical, visible form. As a result he has in twenty years built up one of the busiest and one of the richest churches in the land. It is busy in practical work for the good of humanity, it is rich in resources some of which may be measured in money, and others measured only in personal devotion and activity. Dr. Rainsford has now had the wisdom to see the limit of his own strength. The marvel is not that he cannot bear the burden longer, but that he has borne it so long and so erectly. He has set before all the churches of the land an example which they will find it difficult but exhilarating

to follow. He has preached not only with words, but with deeds, a sermon on the text, "He that loseth his life shall find it;" and he has written that sermon in enduring stone and in still more enduring institutions.

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Reform Needed in Sunday-School Instruction

The Outlook agrees with the "Pilgrim

Teacher" in its criticism of the course of study presented by the International Lesson Committee intended to cover the next three years. "This course," says the "Pilgrim Teacher," "seems to us to be a failure, and lacking in the very elements necessary to make such a course succeed. It is simply forty selected passages, brought together without attempt to group the teachings under main heads, and failing to show any real progress of thought. It is not an advanced course in any sense, and seems to us decidedly inferior to the regular lessons, except in this respect—that most of the selections are longer than those assigned in the regular course." The International Committee has never receded from the original idea of making lessons which are texts for conversational sermonets to be preached by lay teachers, male and female, to their pupils. The conception of a systematic graded course in the study of the Bible, pursued along the lines and in accordance with the methods of modern education, is one which they have never perceived, or perceived only to reject. The result is that the International Course is gradually being abandoned, and churches are substituting their own courses or lamely attempting to use the International Course as a basis for systematic study by various supplementary devices. The "Pilgrim Teacher" calls for a radical change in the International Lesson Committee, and we suspect that it is right in thinking that only thus can an international course be secured which will serve the purposes of a real Biblical education. According to the official report, this Committee directs the Bible study of nearly twentysix millions of people. It should be composed of men who are familiar with modern pedagogic methods and in harmony with the best spirit of the Church of to-day.

Definition by the diction-

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The Nuisance ary shows that a nuisance of Noise is that which annovs or injures. The excessive noises of a great modern city do both, and in a majority of cases the nuisance is quite unnecessary and often malicious or willfully perverse. Whenever a citizen has the courage and determination to stand up for the public comfort and rights in such a matter, commendation and assistance should be forthcoming. This is true of the brave fight now being made by Mrs. Isaac L. Rice, of New York City, against the shriekings, in season and out of season, legal and illegal, excessive, repeated, and continuous, from the whistles of tugs and steamboats in the rivers and harbors of the metropolis. Mrs. Rice had an exact record made of the number and length of these blasts in the night, and found that at least twice they exceeded twenty-five hundred. One can imagine the distress caused to sick or wakeful people in hospital or out. Several hospital superintendents have indorsed the attempt to reduce this injurious practice, and have declared positively that serious harm was done to many patients thereby. Dr. Gregory, of Bellevue Hospital, for instance, points out that often an hour's sleep to a delirious patient may mean life, and that its disturbance by shrill or hoarse or incessant whistles may mean Mrs. Rice has also gathered abundant proof that most of this noise is unnecessary and some of it illegal. Why, for example, should an insignificant tug carry an enormous whistle with a steam pressure of two hundred pounds? Why should tugboat masters be allowed to call their absent crews or wake up stevedores on a wharf by midnight screaming from the middle of the river? Why should tugboat captains be allowed to gratify their idea of sportiveness and sociability by "tooting" without visible cause, so that an Albany boat captain declares that eighty per cent. of the whistling is sheer rowdyism? The extent of the evil and urgent need of reform have been proved abundantly by Mrs. Rice's investigations, and, indeed, " The Pipe of

trothed.

and curses God:

are matter of general knowledge. But when the question comes up as to whom we should look for remedy, inaction and indifference are met. The United States Government, although it has control over navigable waters, appears not to possess the right to regulate steam whistles; the Police Department refers complaints to the Board of Health; the Board of Health is spending all its appropriations in other ways. So nerves continue to be shattered, sleep to be made impossible, suffering of sick people to be unrelieved. Ultimately this will be seen to be part of a larger question of municipal comfort and health, and all wearing and nerveracking noise will be obviated or reduced to a minimum.

What may be termed an

experiment in the music-

Desire '' drama form is the "Pipe of Desire," performed in Boston last week. It is called an opera; it is rather an imaginative portrayal, in verse, acting, and music, of a very human experience. A peasant, Iolan, who has earned his home "by the might of his strong arm," encounters on the eve of his wedding a company of friendly elves. Contrary to the ancient law, they permit themselves to be seen by him. At their demand the Old-One, their king, plays against his will on the magic pipe for them to dance. Iolan, amused, laughs at the king and the pipe; he boasts of his strength and of the money he has earned; in requital, he is made to dance by the magic of the pipe. Then, in spite of warning, he seizes in self-confidence the pipe himself, and plays upon it; and the music rouses in him a desire for his be-

"Where is this God?
Where dwelleth He?
For I would take Him in my hands
And throttle Him.
You God, if you have heard me on my knees
Give thanks for every pittance
Won by reeking toil,
See, as I hurl the gold you've turned to lead

him; but her feverish journey over rocks,

through thorn bushes, across icy streams,

ends with her death in his arms. Iolan,

in his rage of grief, hurls away his money

His cries for her bring her to

Back in your mocking face, And hear me curse you! No, fool, there is no God, And—I am all alone."

Then the Old-One speaks:

"There is a God whose laws unchanging No man may hope to disobey. Upon His Pipe you blew your one desire, Forced your own will upon the ordained way. Man has his will, Man pays the penalty."

All that he had won now become worthless in his hands, Iolan, humbled, confesses his willfulness and dies, while the elves in the forest chant, "All is not amiss—nothing is wasted." Both the author of the text, Mr. G. E. Barton, a Boston architect, and the composer of the music, Mr. Frederick S. Converse, who is Assistant Professor of Music at Harvard, are Americans. Their joint work is American in the freedom of its structure; and in symbolizing lawless strength and the Nemesis which follows the lawless use of strength is peculiarly applicable to America. Mr. Converse has given this theme a setting of genuinely dramatic music. He has used the Wagnerian idiom with its melos and its leading motives. If in a single hearing the music does not seem to be marked by a distinct style which is recognizable as the composer's own, it is by no means marked by the insincerity of mere imitation; it is spontaneous and expressive of the progression of dramatic feeling from beginning to end. Mr. Converse has written what musicians call a good " score." Both orchestrally and vocally it is the work of a man who understands his medium. This was, so far as we know, the first performance in America of a music-drama by a native American composer, and is notable for that if for no other reason. Mr. Walter Damrosch's "Scarlet Letter" was composed and performed in America, but Mr. Damrosch is not a native American. Mr. J. K. Paine's "Azara" is an opera by a native American, but it has not been performed in this country. The "Pipe of Desire," moreover, is less an opera and more consistently a music drama than either of these compositions, and also more than either of these displays the spirit of the innovator. It is not likely to prove popular; but it marks

a point in the development of American music worth recording.

A Remarkable
Bit of Acting

In its own way—and that way may without misapplication of a much-abused

word be called unique-Mr. Henry de Vries's impersonations in the play "A Case of Arson," which has now been seen for some weeks in New York City. form a notable piece of acting. When one is told that this actor presents in his own person seven different characters. as unalike as can be imagined, and that these succeed one another on the stage with intervals of less than a minute. one exclaims, "Oh, yes! a remarkable tour de force, a clever example of the ' lightning change 'act familiar to the variety stage." But this is very far from the mark. Not only are the seven men distinct as regards appearance—costume, height, size, hair, and the like-and not only does each in facial expression seem individual and consistent with the part played, but the characters are rendered with artistic sincerity and with convincing force. Were they to follow one another at intervals of half an hour instead of half a minute, they would still be honest and vivid acting. The main situation of the play has real emotional power and holds one in its grip somewhat as did that of Irving's "Matthias" in "The Bells." Two brothers, suspected of collusion in the burning of a tobacco factory owned by one of them whose little daughter has perished in the building, are brought before the magistrate for examination, and after them five other witnesses. timid and weak-minded brother who tries to screen the guilty man, and the defiant, passionate culprit who is half-crazed by his child's unforeseen death, yet struggles against the net of evidence skillfully drawn about him until at last he is forced to confess the crime, and breaks down in remorseful anguish, are charactercreations worthy of any stage or any authorship. The play has the disadvantage of being too brief for an evening's entertainment and of being preceded by a silly and rather vulgar farce, but in itself it is one of the most artistic dramatic achievements of the season, and Mr. de Vries in it shows that he has qualities that belong to a great actor.

Last week's session of the inter-Morocco national conference at Algeciras, Spain, concerning Morocco, was important in freeing the Conference from most of the minor questions before it. The Conference now finds itself facing the graver issue which caused the serious strain last summer in the relations between France and Germany. The question is, Who shall control the Moroccan police? France objects to an international control; Germany objects French control, which, according to France, is necessary, owing to the troubles constantly arising by reason of the long Franco-Algerian frontier.

Church and State in France

By the operation of the new law the State assumes a certain control of ecclesiastical buildings in France. The riots in the churches last week in Paris call renewed attention to the great historical event last year in France, the separation of Church and State—a larger historic event, in our opinion, than a change in the form of government.

Any deplorable lack of tact or ridicu lous excess of zeal on the part of Government agents can hardly detract from the great fact that last year France found herself at a turning-point in her intellectual, moral, and religious evolution. In decreeing the separation of Church and State, the French Parliament only confirmed this condition of fact and sought a corresponding modus vivendi. This was the reason for the surprisingly calm tone of the debate in Parliament over the Government's measure. Had parliamentarians been in advance of public opinion, the debate would certainly have been an excited one. But the often excitable members of the Chamber of Deputies and of the Senate followed the discussion for the most part with tranquil attention, regarding that discussion as practically a register of what had already been decided by the people at large.

Yet that discussion concerned a more solemn question of conscience to the French people than any which they had been called upon to answer since 1789, that other year of deliverance. For more than a century from 1801 the French Government had enjoyed the right of nominating Roman Catholic priests to the bishoprics of France in return for the assurance of financial support. The Government also lent such support to Protestant churches and to Jewish synagogues. The main differences which arose in regard to State support had to do, naturally, with the Roman Catholic Church, since the overwhelming majority of the French people belong nominally to that communion. If the State has only just now formally denounced the Concordat with the Vatican, the actions of some of the representatives of the Roman Catholic Church in France have long indicated what was coming. Ever since the establishment of the present Republic, troops for an assault on that form of government have come from Roman Catholic ranks, particularly from the monastic orders. The members of many of these orders are not only conservatives in politics, but violent reactionaries, ready to enroll themselves under any banner so long as it promised to deliver the country from a detested democratic régime. Even the praiseworthy intervention of that broad-minded statesman, Leo XIII., had a result in many ways diametrically opposed to that which the Pope desired. Of course there are many loyal, liberal Roman Catholics in France, whether belonging to the clergy or the laity, who never dream of addressing themselves to Church authorities except on matters religious; but there are others who act otherwise, moving blindly along the grooves of the narrow, century-old tradition which makes religion not only a spiritual but also a political power. Such Roman Catholics in France, as elsewhere on the Continent, are called Clericals. Years ago Gambetta truly warned his country: "Clericalism! There is your enemy!" The events since Gambetta's death have impressively justified his opinion then so urgently expressed.

The fruits of Clericalism in France have been especially seen in our time in the year-long, scandalous negation of justice in the Dreyfus case, in the absurd imposition on a credulous public of a Léo Taxil with his crusade against the Freemasons, in the astounding circulation of that scurrilous sheet "La Croix," and, above all, in the treasonable enterprises of the monastic order of the Assumptionists against the very life of the State. These were followed by a quarrel concerning the right of nomination for vacant sees and of the duty of recalcitrant bishops to the State, events not so much noted by the public as were those of which mention has just been made, but which brought home to the consciences of many of the faithful whether to Church or State—the question of the proper supremacy of one and the other. This question was both political and religious, as will be readily seen, but it is an error to see only politics in its solution, despite the fact that certain prominent French politicians are boasting that they provoked the crisis which has resulted in the rupture of the Concordat. Such politicians are, as M. Paul Sabatier says in his just published volume, like a child who one year plants seed and the next points to giant forest trees as the fruit of that seed. This may be accepted as the view of not only a foremost French Protestant, but also of a man of larger mold. For the author of the standard Life of St. Francis of Assisi belongs emphatically to the Church universal. A sturdy Protestant, his is so large a creed that it includes a real reverence for the many benefits which the Roman Catholic Church has conferred, and for the other great men besides St. Francis whom she has inspired. Hence it is that liberal Roman Catholics of our day delight to do him honor.

M. Sabatier carefully entitles his work, not "The Separation of Church and State" in France, but "The Separation of the Churches and the State." The separation, as voted last year, has proportionately as much to do with Protestants and Jews as with Catholics; in the

¹ La Séparation des Eglises et de l'Etat. Par Paul Sabatier. Librairie Fishbacher, Paris.

opinion of many Protestants, the new law works greater injustice to their own communion than it does to the Catholic. With the history of the improper practices of the monastic and teaching orders fresh in mind, M. Sabatier justly protests that if there were only Protestant churches and Jewish synagogues in France, the question of separation between the churches and the State would not have imposed itself so soon. However, as he adds, in twenty years or in fifty years the problem would have arisen just the same, and have been solved in the same way. For, with all due credit to the waves of feeling provoked by particular acts, such as the Dreyfus injustice, the rupture with the churches was, we believe, in its ultimate analysis, the normal and necessary outcome of democratic laicization.

Again, coincidentally with the above, Roman Catholic internal growth in the direction of free thought should be noted. The shameful record of the Assumptionists and the other traitors to the body politic does not, of course, constitute the record of the Roman Catholic Church in France. Despite such misrepresentation, there exists in France not only a loyalty to the Government on the part of most Roman Catholic priests, but also a growing spiritual breadth, seen, perhaps, more than anywhere else in the circulation of the works of the erudite and liberal Abbé Loisy-even if his books are not addressed to the great Though almost a Protestant, public. this priest remains a Catholic, yet he may be said to have reconquered the liberty of exegetical teaching. He has been followed by such men as Canon Chevalier, Monsignor Duchesne, and Abbé Houtin. Such ecclesiastics are as far from orthodox Clericalism as from the extremes of Calvinism. But, in M. Sa- (batier's opinion and in ours, their appearance marks the end of one kind of Catholicism and the beginning of another. This is borne in upon us more than ever when another of their followers, M. Le Roy, writes:

No authority can make me find, or prevent me from finding, that a certain reasoning is solid or weak; above all, whether a certain notion shall or shall not appeal to my common sense. I say not only that it has not this right, but that the thing is radically impossible; for it is I who think, and not the authority which thinks for me. Against this fact nothing can prevail.

Thus, to-day in the Roman Catholic Church in France there are two Catholicisms—that of yesterday and that of tomorrow. The abolition of the Concordat marks, we hope, the end of Clericalism, or the Catholicism of yesterday, even if we shall still see certain sporadic explosions of fanaticism. The Catholicism of to-morrow, as M. Sabatier prophesies, will, we believe, seek more and more an alliance both with democracy and with free thought-indeed, we have already seen notable open, mutual, friendly discussions assuring this tendency. Though the new Catholicism may not resemble the old any more than the butterfly resembles the chrysalis, it will be the old, after all, in the sense of One who said, "I came not to destroy, but to fulfill."

Is Railway Rate Regulation Constitutional?

Now that public opinion has unmistakably crystallized in favor of rate regulation by Congress, the opponents of Governmental interference have thrown up a second line of defense—namely, that such rate regulation is unconstitutional. The unconstitutionality is urged on two grounds: first, that the Constitution confers on Congress no power to bring inter-State traffic under any such regulation as is proposed; and, second, that, if it has such power, it must exercise it directly—it cannot delegate the power to a Railway Commission.

The United States Constitution provides that Congress shall have power "to regulate commerce with foreign nations and among the several States and with the Indian tribes." It is under this general provision that the bill now before Congress for the regulation of inter-State commerce has been drawn. But it is contended that this general provision confers on Congress no power to enact such a law. This position, carelessly assumed without argument by certain of the daily journals, is presented

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with historical and legal arguments in its support by Mr. E. Parmalee Prentice in the January "Harvard Review." He contends (1) that this "power to regulate commerce was not given as an indefinite jurisdiction, but was intended as a specific authority to effect certain well-understood ends," such as to raise revenue by Federal taxation and to prevent vexatious interference with inter-State commerce by State regulations; and (2) that the Fifth Amendment to the Constitution, providing that no person shall "be deprived of life, liberty, or property without due process of law," prohibits Congress from interfering with the commercial liberty of the person, whether individual or corporate, except for—he does not specify the exceptions, but let us say except for such purposes as the raising of revenue or the prohibition of vexatious interference with commercial liberty. An instance of the latter is furnished by the charges, reported elsewhere in this issue, preferred by the Kansas oil refineries against the railroads passing through Kansas, that they have purposely adjusted their freight rates so as to prevent Kansas refineries from selling oil outside the State. Without attempting here to summarize Mr. Prentice's argument, we may state his conclusions in his own words, thus:

The right to engage in inter-State commerce is part of the inalienable liberty which, according to the philosophy of that time (1787), has a higher source than the Constitution itself, and whose protection is one of the chief purposes for which government is instituted

Or, again:

The right to engage in commerce is, then, part of the liberty derived from the States which neither the United States nor the States may deny. There is no process of law by which the right may be taken. As the right is derived from State law, it belongs to those to whom the State gives it, whether citizen, alien, or corporation.

He even goes so far as to affirm that the provision of the Constitution that "no tax or duty shall be laid on articles exported from any State" "should forbid taxation of inter-State transportation," though he admits that on this point the practically uniform course of all the later decisions of the Supreme Court of the United States is opposed to his contention. He regards transportation from one State to another State as exportation, whereas the Supreme Court regards only transportation to a foreign country as exportation. On this point the decision of the United States Supreme Court is final. (Woodruff vs. Parham, Thayer's Cases on Constitutional Law, p. 1922.)

And it is equally final upon the general point that the authority of the Congress over inter-State commerce is the ultimate authority, and is subject only to those limitations which either the explicit provisions of the Constitution or its necessary implications put upon the exercise of that power. "This power," said Chief Justice Marshall, in the famous case of Gibbons vs. Ogden (1824), "like all others vested in Congress, is complete in itself, may be exercised to its utmost extent, and acknowledges no limitations other than are prescribed in the Constitution. . . . The power over commerce with foreign nations, and among the several States, is vested in Congress as absolutely as it would be in a single government, having in its constitution the same restrictions on the exercise of the power as are found in the Constitution of the United States." Sixty-three years later Mr. Justice Bradley (Robbins vs. Shelby Co., etc., 120 U. S., Thayer's Cases on Constitutional Law, 2056), for the Court, reaffirmed the same principle in language equally explicit: "In the matter of inter-State commerce the United States are but one country, and are and must be subject to one system of regulations." In view of these decisions by the Supreme Court of the United States, the notion that the powers of Congress over inter-State commerce are limited to specific objects, such as the raising of revenue, or the prevention of restrictions by the States, may be dismissed as a purely academic proposition, Whether those powers should have been so limited or not it is not important to consider. The Supreme Court has decided that they are not so limited.

Furthermore, certain specific declarations of the United States Supreme Court are of value as showing what the Congress can do and what the States cannot do in the matter of inter-State commerce. Thus, Congress can give a franchise to an inter-State railroad and the State cannot tax such a franchise (California vs. Pacific Railroad Company, 127 U.S.); impliedly it can levy a tax on goods transported from one State to another. for the State cannot levy such a tax, because to do so would be to usurp the power of Congress to regulate inter-State commerce (Reading Railroad Company vs. Pennsylvania, 15 Wall, U. S.); under its power to regulate commerce it can "without doubt provide for granting coasting licenses, licenses to pilots, licenses to trade with Indians. and any other licenses necessary or proper for the exercise of that great and extensive power" (License Tax Cases, Thayer's Cases on Constitutional Law, p. 1276).

The Outlook does not question that the liberty safeguarded by the Constitution includes industrial liberty, nor that the right to engage in inter-State commerce is a right which the Congress cannot arbitrarily deny to the citizens of the country. But this right must be exercised subject to such regulations, general in their character, as are intended to promote the public welfare. Congress can create inter-State commerce railroads and exempt their franchise from State taxation; it can require any person, whether corporate or individual, to take out a license as a condition precedent to engaging in such inter-State commerce, as it requires coasting vessels to do; it can protect its citizens from unjust or unequal freight charges which interfere with the free and untrammeled carrying on of the inter-State commerce. In short, it can exercise all the power which any government can exercise in providing such regulations for inter-State commerce as may in its judgment be necessary for the general welfare, provided its regulations are not in violation of explicit provisions or necessary implications of the Constitution.

Whatever powers any theorist harking back to the time of Thomas Jefferson may think Congress ought to possess, Congress does, in fact, possess those powers which the Supreme Court has declared that the Constitution confers upon it; and they are entirely ample for all the purposes of any legislation at present proposed. How far those powers can be delegated to a Commission is a more difficult question and one which we reserve for future consideration.

The Recovery of Faith

When I was a boy, I was quite religiously inclined. I believed everything in the Bible from Genesis to Revelation. It was the source of all my strength, comfort, and inspiration; and by obeying the precepts and injunctions of it I expected to be justified and saved. Jesus Christ, to me, was a living reality, a being whom I believed had actually come from heaven, was crucified, and rose from the dead, and who sat on the sight hand of God making intercession for right hand of God, making intercession for all his followers here below. God was One to whom I regularly prayed, and with whom I communed as with a personal friend. When I sinned I fell upon my knees and tremblingly begged his forgiveness; a being, of human attributes, whom I feared and loved, and who had the power to raise me up or strike me dead. All these things were not myths, nor even matters of faith alone. I believed in them as much as I believed in my own existence. And from this faith came a joy, even the memory of which is enough to make life worth living. Whether my faith was false, or whether from reaction, I became a blatant and reviling infidel. Having an ear attuned to the harmony and melody of beautiful language, and especially of prose-poetry, I was attracted by the rhet-oric of Ingersoll. His sophistry did not influence me much, but it led me to other works which did. Influenced more by form than substance, I read and re-read the pompous and stately language of the famous sixteenth and seventeenth chapters of Gibbon's "Roman Empire," which shook my faith in the authenticity of the Gospels. From Gibbon I passed to Darwin, Huxley, Wallace, Haeckel, and the materialists, whose conclusions, I foolishly believed, completely upset and destroyed all reality in revelation, and took away all my remaining faith in the Bible, Jesus Christ, or God. I am glad to say, however, that the faith of my younger days had left such an imperious influence upon my soul that, while I professed myself an infidel, I was still unsatisfied; and after groping in the dark for two or three years, I finally became convinced that I was wrong. I became reconstructions of the state of lieve the Bible to be the Word of God, but not with the warmth and feeling with which I used to believe it. I believe in Jesus Christ, but he is to me merely a historical personage, who means but little more to me than Plato or Aristotle. I believe in the existence of God, but this belief is purely

intellectual. It has no more influence over my life than the belief in the law of gravitation. He is a vague abstraction whom I neither fear nor love. My mind, from reading works of science, has become so analytical and dissecting, even in matters of faith, that I even criticise the grammar and logic of prayers. All this I regard as a misfortune. I crave for the faith of my boyhood days; I have struggled for it; on my knees I have begged and implored for it, but it has not come.

This pathetic letter portrays a common experience. But the longing it expresses can never be satisfied. It is but the old cry in a new form, "I would I were a boy again," and the man never can be a boy again. We cannot go back; we must go forward. It is as impossible to recover the lost faith of one's childhood as to recover the lost joys and hopes and loves.

The joys of childhood can never return to the mature man. In the Christmas just past the father and mother had their Christmas joy no less than did their children; but it was not the same. The eager expectation, the bubbling merriment, the ecstasy of delight in the new possession—these were impossible to the onlookers. There was both a quieter and a deeper joy, in which were strangely mingled with the reflected gayety of the children the sorrows and joys of the years that are gone. The grandfather who sat down on the floor beside the baby and showed her how to put her new doll to sleep had a deeper joy in the child's possession than she had in her own; but it was not the same.

The hopes of childhood never can return to the mature man. He also has hopes, but they are not a child's hopes. The one flash and fade with brilliant but evanescent glory like the aurora borealis; the other glow with growing light like the dawn. The one is born of inexperience that has known no trouble and expects none. Stevenson has well interpreted this childhood hope:

"The world is so full of a number of things, I'm sure we should all be as happy as kings."

The other is born of experience; an experience that has met trouble, vanquished it, and made it a minister to a joy and peace that childhood cannot know. Paul has expressed this manhood hope: "We glory in tribulations also,

knowing that tribulation worketh patience; and patience, experience; and experience, hope."

The love of youth can never return to the mature man. Youth has its love and old age has its love, but they are not the same. There is a glory of the spring and a glory of the autumn; for season differeth from season in glory. There is in man's life but one honeymoon. The orange-tree sometimes bears blossoms and fruit at the same time: but in life the blossoms fall before the fruit comes; the blossoms will turn to fruit, but never the fruit to blossoms. Youth and age have each its song of love; but not the same song. From the ample treasures of song we select one interpretation of youthful love, the closing verses of Coleridge's "Genevieve:"

"Her bosom heaved,—she stepped aside,
As conscious of my look she stept,—
Then suddenly, with timorous eye,
She fled to me and wept.

She half enclosed me with her arms,
She pressed me with a meek embrace;
And, bending back her head, looked up,
And gazed upon my face.

'Twas partly love, and partly fear, And partly 'twas a bashful art That I might rather feel than see The swelling of her heart.

I calmed her fears, and she was calm, And told her love with virgin pride; And so I won my Genevieve, My bright and beauteous Bride."

Compare with this the well-known verse of Burns's "John Anderson, my jo, John:"

" John Anderson, my jo, John,
We clamb the hill thegither;
And monie a canty day, John,
We've had wi' ane anither.

Now we maun totter down, John, But hand in hand we'll go; And sleep thegither at the foot, John Anderson, my jo."

The love of old age, the love that goes down the hill that the two climbed together in youth, is not less sacred, and to our thinking not less full of deep and divine joy, than that of the youthful lover in the first rapture of the newly discovered love. But they are not the same; and it would be as idle for John Anderson to attempt to recover the rapture of youthful love as for Genevieve's

lover to anticipate the peacefulness of the love of old age.

What is true of joy and hope and love is true of faith. The faith of childhood once lost can never be recovered. sometimes kept, but at too great a sacrifice. For he who boasts of a childhood faith simply bears witness against himself that, while he has grown in muscular strength, in nerve power, in intellectual capacity, in executive energy, he has not grown in his religious experience. A childhood faith is beautiful in a child; it is a dwarfed and stunted faculty in a mature man or woman. The faith of childhood is born of the child's imagination. It is an unquestioning and therefore an unreasoning faith. He makes no distinction in his own mind between what he has seen and what he has imagined. The perplexed mother need not be perplexed at his nursery tales told with such serious assurance that it is "true, mamma." To him what he has imagined is "true." He is as ready to believe in Santa Claus as in Jesus Christ, in the Arabian Nights as in the miracles of the New Testament. The reindeer and the sleigh-bells are as real to him as the Wise Men and the Shepherds. Do not undeceive him. Life will undeceive him in due time.

But do not envy him. Do not try to go back and recapture that nursery experience. The faith of manhood is of a different sort. It is not an unquestioning but a questioned faith. It is not founded on reason; but it dares submit itself to all the tests to which reason can subject it. The crucible never yet created gold; but it tries the gold and rejects the dross. Reason never yet created faith: but it separates the true from the false. After the crucible appears but little gold, but it is pure. After the reason there appears a shorter creed, but it is vital. Credulity has done the world more harm than skepticism. The only way to know anything is to dare to question everything.

We look back across the years and recall our childhood piety. Heaven was close at hand, just above the clouds, which were its draperies, or just above the starry dome, which was its floor. In heaven was the great white throne, and

the great God, awful or benignant as our fancy happened to paint him, and to him we addressed our childish petitions, sometimes wondering how he heard them, sometimes audaciously wondering whether he heard them at all. This vision of our childhood imagination is gone. It were as easy to reconstruct the castellated glory of the sunrise after the sun has reached the meridian as to rebuild this fabled heaven of our childhood faith. Some try to retain it, and seek in an imaginary world, which they know has no existence, a refuge from a real world of which they are too painfully aware. Some abandon their faith with the imagination with which it was connected, and live as best they can, ruled by conscience but not inspired by faith. But some look back without regret, because the faith of their early fancy has given place to the stronger and more inspiring faith of their manhood. To them God has become the Perpetual Presence; the One who is "never so far as even to be near:" the Great All Their childhood faith in a and in all. Celestial God has grown into the Hebrew psalmist's faith in the Ever-Present God:

"Whither shall I go from thy spirit? Or whither shall I flee from thy presence? If I ascend up into heaven, thou art there; If I make my bed in hell, behold, thou art

there;
If I take the wings of the morning,
And dwell in the uttermost parts of the sea,
Even there shall thy hand lead me,
And thy right hand shall hold me."

The vision of a celestial city and a sceptered and enthroned God has faded and will never return; but in its place has come Whittier's spiritual vision:

" I know not where His islands lift Their fronded palms in air; I only know I cannot drift Beyond His love and care."

Such souls would not exchange the faith of their manhood for their child-hood faith. This manhood faith is indefinable because it is infinite; it is mystical because it is spiritual; it is real because it is unsensuous.

If one's education has been almost exclusively in courses which have whetted his analytical faculties to exceeding sharpness and left his spiritual nature atrophied, he cannot undo the mischief by endeavoring to retrace his steps and go back to his childhood experiences, nor yet by turning from natural science to theological science, that is, by undertaking a new and enlarged course in argumentative literature. He will best find his way to a real, a manly faith, by mingling in literature and in life with men of faith, and by always being obedient to such heavenly vision as is afforded to him. So doing, he will find the light within him, which neglect has dimmed but not wholly extinguished, gradually, and to him almost unconsciously, reviving to re-illumine his life.

The Spectator

Among the many good stories told of General Grant, one has always appealed to the Spectator every time he has heard It is the story of the small "stag" party, where a member started to tell an objectionable story, when he was stopped by General Grant's forbidding look. In surprise he explained or apologized: "But there are no ladies present." "No," was the General's reply, "but there are gentlemen present." This story was twice recalled to the Spectator during a short trip abroad made last summer with a friend, a man of the world, an ex-army officer, now a university professor-a friend whose rule of life is short but inclusive, and, better yet, is vigorously lived up to. This personal code consists of four articles:

> Play your game straight. Do not injure another. Lend a helping hand. Be clean and decent.

It was the last article which received special exemplification.

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On board the steamer going over was an otherwise attractive young man, whose bright talk was often offensive because of the character of the stories he was constantly telling. He kept a certain smoking-room crowd uproariously laughing, and thus forced these stories on the attention of others who had occasion to frequent the place. The Spectator's

friend put up with it in silence for perhaps a day and a half, when he found, being both a smoker and a card-player, the situation intolerable, or, as Artemus Ward used to say, "2 mutch." Choosing a chance encounter on deck when no one was at hand to overhear, the man of the code kindly but firmly interviewed the objectionable story-teller. The interviewer acknowledged frankly that, a smoking-room being the sort of institution it is popularly held to be, the "interviewee" was probably "within his rights" in telling there the sort of stories he chose to tell—that is, that no appeal would probably lie to the captain. the same time, added the Spectator's friend, he did not believe it was the story-teller's purpose or wish to deprive any fellow-passengers of the privilege of the smoking-room, as would certainly be the case if he persisted. In short, the Spectator's friend appealed to the young man's sense of consideration for the rights of others in that manly, straightforward way which is almost sure to command respect. The result was that the intervention was taken, not as a rebuke, but as a friendly protest. The young man even attached himself to the little coterie that stood for clean fun in the smoking-room, and gave his own good qualities "a square deal," much to his own self-respecting enjoyment. fact, when he parted from the coterie in London, the young man volunteered the confession that it had been one of the pleasantest voyages he had ever made. The moral courage of the Spectator's friend had vindicated the vitality of the innate virtue of good breeding.

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Perhaps the Spectator has made too much of the incident, and yet two comments passed on it at the end of the voyage seemed to give it significance. One came from a clergyman who thanked the Spectator's friend for what he had done to make the smoking-room tolerable and also for "giving a well-meaning chap a taste of decency." The other came from a supercilious stickler for the proprieties, evidently a solid citizen of acknowledged place in his home town, who said, "I do not understand how it

was possible for you, Mr. Blank, a gentleman and a professor in a university, with young men in your charge, to have anything to do with that foul-mouthed fellow with whom you so constantly associated." In vain the Spectator's friend tried to explain without in any sense making an apology, and urged that the young man had been misjudged. The censor but stiffened in his censoriousness—a type of complacent moral exclusiveness that still survives despite widening appreciation of the fact that "the contagion of suggestion," as the sociologists call it, may be as potent for good as for evil.

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The other incident, that of the home voyage, concerned a very different sort of person, a "hero of the ring," a lightweight champion pugilist, well known in the "sporting world." The boat was crowded with that army of returning tourists who all seek to reach America together in early September. At the table assigned to the Spectator and his friend all but one were men, the exception being the meek-looking wife of a yet meeker-looking husband. The pugilist sat next the wife, and his ordinary talk, unrestrained by the proximity, was the most dreadful in constant profanity and vulgarity the Spectator has ever heard. After two meals, lunch and dinner, the Spectator's friend decided that, if the meek husband did not protest, he must. So, with some natural trepidation as to possibilities, he sought an interview with the pugilist and informed him that he must either reform his conversation or dine in his cabin by himself, as the captain would, on appeal, certainly compel him to do. The naïve surprise of the pugilist that he had been offensive was as unexpected as was his willingness to do anything suggested, even to taking his meals by himself. On consideration, however, he acknowledged that that might prove to be—let his word be rendered-"lonesome." "But what shall I cut out?" he asked the Spectator's friend in all sincerity. The latter named a conspicuous phrase or two to begin with. "How's a kid to know there's any harm in them?" he next asked,

"What's the others?" So the Spectator's friend actually made out a list—an index expurgatorius—of twenty phrases that must be "cut out," the pugilist receiving it with thankfulness. It was good to see him conning the list diligently with moving lips until lunch hour, as he sat on deck by himself, foregoing his usual game of poker in the smoking-And he mastered that list—an inclusive list. Not once again, wonderful as it may seem, did he use one shockingly offensive phrase until the boat reached her New York dock. His parting words to the Spectator's friend were, "I thank you for teaching me how to behave among decent folks."

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Now, the Spectator has no claim of ethical thaumaturgy to put forward for his friend. That friend is simply a type of an aggressive good breeding, a militant decency, which the Spectator rejoices to believe is becoming more and more a characteristic of the gentleman of the future. It is the type of healthy cleanliness that, without pose or pietistic convention, is almost sure of response, sometimes through the mere potency of personal presence, and sometimes through straightforward but tactful intervention for the sanitation of social life. As he counts to-day the many boys' schools where manliness is a cult, where all contamination of evil is excluded on detection regardless of the social standing of the boy's parents, he feels justified in his optimism. It is those schools that are largely giving the leaders to college life, which in generations must mean leadership in the world. These are "select" schools, but not in the sense of the advertisement; schools of high breeding, which run, of course, a certain risk of losing the American tradition of democracy but for the manliness which dominates them. what, I sometimes wonder," said a master in one such school during a chat with the Spectator, "becomes of the boys who by right should be with us but have to be excluded for the sake of the others? Do they all turn to degenerates? For they have lost the chance of early association which they once had,"

REACTION, LIBERTY, OR LICENSE IN RUSSIA

BY E. 7. DILLON

Dr. Dillon, as most of our readers know, is recognized as one of the best-informed writers on Russian topics, and this article from St. Petersburg is the result of observation on the spot as well as of a long study of the divergent currents of Russian agitation and political movements. Dr. Dillon's paper on "The Duma in Russia," printed in The Outlook of September 30 last, may well be read in connection with the present article, and with it will be found a sketch of the literary and journalistic life of the author.—The Editors.

F revolutions are shaped by general laws, they are also marked by national characteristics, and the political upheaval of Muscovy offers us racial traits for which we should vainly seek in the struggles for liberty waged by the English, American, or French peoples. One of these is precisely that rare idealism which I pointed out in a former article. The Russians share the capacity of Oriental races for useless self-abnegation, and are for that reason the stuff of which martyrs and fanatics are made. And that capacity more than anything else gives us a clue to the origin, suddenness, and success of the outbreak which startled the world last fall.

The truth is, a large section of the Russian people had long outgrown its Government. A group of narrow-minded officials ruled one hundred and forty millions, including hundreds of thousands who were wiser and better than themselves. This bureaucracy kept the millions in mental and moral darkness, while it condemned those among the hundreds of thousands who strove to emancipate the rest either to silence or to loss of liberty and exile. That was the state of things when the war with Japan broke out, and it might have gone on unchanged for another ten or twenty years if the Czar's advisers had only kept the peace. But the unsuccessful campaign deprived the autocracy of its prestige and won a hearing for the malcontents, whose name was legion. These men raised their voices against the system which had led to national disaster, and they asserted the people's right to some influence in staving off similar calamities in the future.

If the Emperor had been advised to recognize the fairness of that claim, and to grant it, even at the eleventh hour, all might perhaps have been well. But the only man who had the courage to offer this advice was Witte, and he was no longer a member of the Government nor a trusted adviser of the Czar. Nicholas II. therefore turned to friends of the unregenerate autocracy, and, following their advice, sought to stem the current, but only increased its force.

The people were told that as a revolution was impossible—because they could not hope to struggle with a vast armythey had better resign themselves to the inevitable. But they struck out a line of action of their own-or rather a line of inaction. They ceased to work. Inured to hardship, they underwent the consequent discomfort cheerfully: fearless of risks, they incurred that of famine unhesitatingly. Almost the whole population went out on strike, the wealthy helping the needy. It was an unprecedented spectacle for the onlooker and a novel problem for the monarch. partisans of absolutism were not unanimous as to the means of solving it. Some counseled grim patience: "The strikers must resume work," they reasoned, "because hunger, our ally, will compel them, if only we wait long But could any government wait until its subjects were stricken with famine? Certainly no Russian Ministers could, because the Slav character would not brook the cold, calculating ferocity presupposed by this Fabian policy. Therefore the Czar yielded, the revolution was accomplished, the autocracy

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abolished. The liberal movement was thus shaped by the national characteristics.

But the end of absolutism was the beginning of chaos. Liberty having been promised, men demanded license. The Czar's officers were publicly summoned, and several actually forced to salute the red flag. A party of "intellectuals" and workmen exhorted the people to strike again, and they struck. A group of anonymous laborers ordered them to strike a third time, and to rise up in armed insurrection against the authorities. And hundreds of thousands obeyed the first behest, while scores of thousands executed the second.

There was no cool calculation, no practical forethought, no wholesome egotism, to serve as a corrective to this ruinous selflessness. The Slav can get intoxicated with an idea which he is utterly unable to grasp, and die a martyr's death for a principle which he cannot formulate. Many of the battle-cries of the Russian revolution are mere book notions. The crowd echoes them, individuals get arrested, wounded, killed for them, but many of those who speak and fancy they also understand are merely calling words to mind. The heroism with which mere striplings and women threw up barricades and died defending them was splendid; but the wild character of the demands in defense of which they fell was pathetical: an eight hours' working day, the abolition of property in land, the bestowal upon soldiers and sailors of the right of choosing their own It was nominally in pursuit of this will-o'-the-wisp that thousands in Moscow and other cities met their death.

This morbid idealism on the one hand, joined with an utter lack of the critical sense on the other, render a revolution far more formidable in Russia than elsewhere. For the suggestibility of the people is almost unlimited. You can tell the Russian masses almost absurdity and move them to make costly sacrifices for the acquisition of the unattainable. I saw many peasants who volunteered to go to South Africa during the war there to fight for the Boers because "the English pagans were forcing them to quit the Orthodox Church." I knew several

who told each other that, as Witte was President of the Russian Republic, henceforth the "Little Father," the Czar, would have it in his power to benefit his children unimpeded by officials. With these men one can do almost anything, especially by offering them land without rent and wages without labor; and as the parties of order neither educate nor bribe them, the factions of disorder are more likely to carry the day. The degree to which the average Russian peasant is plastic would surprise the European or American: Christian sects can make a man of him, Anarchists a wild beast.

A few instances of peasant character taken from incidents of the revolution may show the reader how difficult it is to make a forecast of what may be expected of the average Russian in the near future.

In the Province of Saratoff there is an estate belonging to the Ministry of Agriculture, which existed solely for the behoof of the peasants. It supplied them with models of every improvement in methods of tilling the soil that could be introduced into the district, lent them all kinds of implements, and helped them to buy some for themselves. It was in charge of a man who himself was a peasant, and had been the village elder.

Now, a few weeks ago a band of riotous peasants came to this manager and said, "We are going to pillage and burn your farm." "But," he replied, "this is not my farm, as you know. I am not a landowner." They answered, "It doesn't matter in the least; we are going to burn it down all the same." "You must be mad," he answered; "it is your own, lads." "That may be; but the fact is, we have received the order, and we are going to carry it out." Thereupon they took away the implements, drove off the cattle, pillaged the whole estate, stuffed a lot of things into the houses and set them on fire. And then they went away contented. Surely that was idealism with a vengeance!

But before going away, an official said to them: "Send a message, lads, to the representative of the Ministry, and say that you have set fire to the houses, and that Cossacks ought to be sent out at once to stop the rioting." And they

actually sent a courier of their own party with this verbal message. Immediately orders were given to the Cossacks to rush off and do what they could to quench the fire and punish the rioters. They galloped away, found the peasants, ordered them to give back the things stolen, and were obeyed without a murmur. And one of the peasants then said to them: "Instead of sending us to Siberia, let us have a good flogging." And they had it there and then. The Cossacks flogged them thoroughly with their whips, and they submitted to it almost cheerfully, and when it was over went away grateful.

That occurrence, which is truly typical, proves how easy it is to hypnotize the Russian peasant and enlist him in any cause, even though it be a movement against his own class interests, and how readily he may be fendered either meek and docile or brutal and cruel. Another striking instance may be found in the burning of Tomsk.

From an early hour the inhabitants of the famous Siberian city were astir. Mischief of some kind was brewing, and everybody had a presentiment, but few possessed any knowledge of what was coming—it might be an attack on the intellectuals, people alleged. It was the day of the month on which all salaries are paid throughout the Russian Empire, and the railway directors had fixed three in the afternoon for the payment of their officials, many of whom had meanwhile entered the theater hard by, where a liberal meeting was being held. At one o'clock a boy wearing a high fur hat darted in at the theater door and yelled: "The Black Hundred is coming here, and there are two hundred of them. Look out!" And the next moment over three hundred persons present at the meeting crowded to the doors, squeezing. crushing, and killing each other. Some hastened home, panting, trembling. Others, fearing to trust themselves on the streets, sought refuge in the railway building near the theater. Meanwhile the Black Hundred were advanc-They had killed five men who had met them on the way and refused to uncover. Further on they killed five more, whereupon the newly formed militia fired at them, scattered them, and then entered the railway building.

But the Black Hundred, rallying, moved ever steadily forward, along streets which were deserted. Finally they entered the cathedral, which was soon ablaze with wax lights, musical with solemn chants such as may well have come down from the Apostles. The Archbishop, standing at the altar, was singing a Te Deum and administering his blessing to the longbearded fanatics, who stood there attentive, earnest, eager to die for the cause of God and the Czar, as they understood They might have been crusaders about to go into battle, or martyrs on the point of sacrificing their lives. To the liberals and intellectuals they were known as men of the Black Hundred, partisans of the old régime, haters of the

Fortified with the archiepiscopal blessing, the band left the shrine, surrounded the railway house, and began to smash the windows with stones. A perfect hail of bullets from the second and third stories was the response to this. intellectuals inside were minded to sell their lives dearly. The Governor, informed of what was going on, despatched a hundred Cossacks and a company of regular soldiers, who encircled the house, but could do little against the thousands of people. Shots were for some time exchanged between the besiegers and the besieged. Terror seized the souls of the confined railway men, and they tried to get away. Engineer Klianoffsky came out first; a bullet entered his foot, he fell, and the crusaders killed him on the spot. Engineer Schwarze next tried his luck, actually got away from the doomed house, and ran nearly twenty paces forward, when he, too, was overtaken and killed. Uliashoff and Wolffson then made a rush for it, but were murdered near the theater. Others who followed were caught and slain in various ways. And the corpses lay there as a warning.

"The women and children may go if they will," shouted the men of the Black Hundred. But the women had beheld the bloody scenes from the windows and were afraid to move. This refusal infuriated the mob, who brought up torches and set fire to the house. And now the last act of the drama began.

The street was no longer wholly dark. Irregular tongues of fire shot upward and sideward from the edifice in which the railway men were besieged—tongues of fire which now illumined awful scenes and now seemed quenched in clouds of gray smoke. The stern crusaders who were lately praying in God's stone-built temple stood cheerfully around the beleaguered house, armed fantastically with pitchforks, pikes, shillalahs. Men, women, children, rushed to the windows of the house and shouted for help, throwing suasion and pathos and maddening terror into the modulation of their voices, which died away in the hum of the bloodthirsty mob or the crackling of the spreading flames. Rescue! Help! Mercy! Nobody in that dense crowd knew the meaning of the words.

Nobody? Surely some few. But the majority, too, had lost their character of human beings. They now seemed to delight in the spectacle of men, women, children, caught as in a rat-trap, and tortured diabolically for the pleasure of a mob. They also amused themselves by firing from time to time at the beseeching figures in the windows, "potting" now this one, now that. Homo homini lupus. "Have pity, dearest brothers, have pity on us! Oh, save us!"

Yet one of the witnesses hastened away, sought out the Archbishop and implored him in God's name to allay the passions of the mob, to save the victims whose forms were now gliding quickly, often, across the windows, whose cries were growing more piercing, whose terror was more intense. But the prelate was deaf or hard-hearted. He moved not. But the intercessor was persevering; he pleaded, he urged, he remonstrated, he adjured. Finally the spokesman of the Almighty arose slowly, went forth into the street, surveyed from afar the concourse of men made beasts, to whom his word might perhaps have given back their human character, and, raising his hands aloft, invoked a blessing. it for the victims? God knew. beasts who had once been men could only guess, and, claiming the blessing for themselves, they went mad with the intoxication of cruelty. There was no hope more for the beleaguered.

At one of the windows is a longbearded man. His hands are lifted up-He stands with part of his body projecting; his voice, pitched in the highest key, is shrill and piercing. His words are few, quickly spoken, accompanied by gestures. Pity! Mercy! Life! The mob moves nearer to the burning house, looks up with interest. Has he then touched their bowels of pity? Truly, for six of them hold out their hands to catch him and encourage him to jump. It is risky, for he stands three stories from the street, but there is no rescue. now without danger. The venerable old citizen lowers the upper part of his body till he is almost in sitting posture and then jumps. He falls, not into the arms of the six, which were suddenly withdrawn, but on the pavement—hurt, but not dead nor perhaps dying. The six who had deluded him with hope now surround him and beat him fiercely until he is dead and has ceased to resemble a man. Was the bishop's blessing for them?

Now it is a student who is making his escape from this hell upon earth, running wildly, headlong into the ghastly shadows of the night. One of the crowd espies him. Down with the student! After him! Fear runs well, but hate is quicker. One man coming up hits him on the head with a pole. The youth falls, and several figures stoop down over him. shout and laugh and seize hold and lift the stripling, manipulating the long stick. The crowd opens, and the scene is visible. They are stuffing the pole into his mouth and down his throat, and now they have split open his skull. . . . Alleluiah! another criminal is punished. Welcome the next! Thus, clubs, poles, forks, knives, did their work. And the executioners then plundered their victims, taking rings from their fingers and robbing them in every way.

By six o'clock the blood-soaked ground was strewn with corpses, naked and deformed. The space in front of the railway house and theater was thronged with over forty thousand people, against whom the soldiers felt themselves power-

For a long time all hope for the besieged had vanished. At first the fire was choked with smoke and died out; then petroleum was poured on the smoldering embers, and the flames burst out as before. And hours passed in these vicissitudes, ages to the victims, minutes to their torturers. The cries of the women and of some of the men for pity would have melted hearts of stone. By ten o'clock the second and third stories were like fiery furnaces. Wild figures flitted before the windows; terrible voices pleaded for life. Rifle-bullets brought down some to the pavement, where they were beaten to death by the joyous crowd. Others in despair flung themselves into the street, and were finished off in turn. Some climbed down by the rain-spouts, and on their arrival below were hammered to death amid shrieks of delight. tongues of fire grew longer, the crackling of rafters louder, the moans of the sufferers more continuous, until they mingled in one blood-curdling wail. Then from

within the doomed building came the sounds of revolver-shots. Some of the victims were putting each other out of pain; for any death is better than to be tortured by the mob. Gradually the cries grew fainter, and the crackling of beams and woodwork drowned all other sounds, until, with a terrific crash, the ceilings and roof were sucked into the sea of fire, and bury the bodies of sixty-five human beings.¹

And the men who played the part of demons in this pandemonium of Tomsk were mostly Russian peasants, of whom there are over eighty millions in Muscovy. It is their attitude that will shape the destinies of the Russian nation. And their attitude depends upon the strong will of the few who shall first succeed in hypnotizing them. If the Anarchists are successful, the new year comes fraught with ruin to Muscovy; but if the friends of order are first in the field, Russia may soon be herself again.

St. Petersburg.

NEED OF AN INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE

BY EDWIN MAXEY, M.DIP., LL.D.

TERE there ever any doubt as to the need of a conference of the nations for the purpose of arriving at a better understanding as to several questions of international law, the Russo-Japanese War should have dispelled such doubt. Nor were the unsettled questions which gave rise to disputes confined to the relations of the belligerents; in several instances the tension between the belligerents and neutrals approached the breaking point. With the rapidly increasing interdependence of nations, due to the modern organization of industry, there is an ever-increasing need of a definite agreement as to the rules governing international relations. That the need of definite rules is far greater now than when nations were to a great extent agricultural, and hence self-sufficing, and the means of communication were such as to bring them rarely into contact with one another, is clear. This is merely another way of saying that there was by no means the same need of international law a few centuries ago that exists to-day.

Nor is the close of a great war an inopportune time for an international conference. War always puts a severe strain upon law and lays bare the weak and faulty parts which until the test came were unnoticed. The necessity for amendment is fresh in the minds of There has been a rapid accumulation of experience, and to some extent a new spirit is prevalent. While the lesson of the cost of war is still fresh in the mind, nations are more impressed with the advisability of avoiding it, and take more kindly to suggestions which look to the attainment of this end.

¹ A thousand was the first estimate. It was, however, greatly exaggerated.

That we may the better appreciate the need and the opportuneness of the time for an international conference, it is fitting that we turn from general considerations to an examination of some of the specific questions which should receive the most careful thought of the conference and upon which, if possible, an agreement should be reached.

Having in mind the experience of the recent war, there is little room for doubt that among the questions to be discussed, concerning which there is urgent need of a definite agreement, are the rights of belligerent vessels in neutral ports and waters, the extent to which the neutral may furnish them coal and provisions, the length of time they may lawfully re main when not in urgent need of repairs in order to make them seaworthy, and under what circumstances they should be required to disarm.

The twenty-four-hour rule set forth by England in 1861, and followed by it, the United States, and some other countries, is perhaps sufficiently definite; but as this rule has never been adopted by France and some other leading Powers, the question cannot be said to be satisfactorily settled. Remembering the amount of friction caused by the indefiniteness of the French rule, there would be a strong incentive to fix upon a definite one, and it is not unreasonable to suppose that a definite agreement could be reached. France would not be under the same temptation to adhere to her interpretation of her duty as when that interpretation enabled her to render very material assistance to a needy ally. The rule as to coaling, repairs, and internment followed by most of the neutrals during the recent war could profitably be crystallized into a definite rule of law. The rule as to the latter would then be substantially the same in naval warfare as it is in warfare on land, and there seems to be no good reason why it should not be the same.

The Russo-Japanese War has also developed the fact that the limits of the right of visit and search should be more clearly defined. The need of some restrictions upon this right was proved by the acts of the volunteer fleet in the Red Sea. While there is no likelihood of

reaching an agreement to surrender the belligerent right of visit and search. there is a prospect of being able so to restrict the right that it will be far less annoying to neutral commerce. It would certainly not be unreasonable to restrict the area within which the right could be exercised, so that it might not be exercised at a distance of thousands of miles from the scene of hostilities, as was done in the recent war. A reasonable radius within which the right might be exercised could, we think, be agreed upon. The mails carried by regular mail steamships should be exempt from search, as interference with these causes a disturbance to neutrals' business which is out of all proportion to the advantage likely to be derived by the belligerent. News that is of much use to the belligerent is now sent by cable or wireless telegraphy, not by mail. Nor should it be at all impossible to reach an agreement that ships leaving neutral ports in which there were consuls of the belligerents might be examined and a certificate furnished them by such consuls which would be conclusive evidence that they carried no contraband, and would exempt them from search by the belligerent war-There is also need of a more definite agreement as to what are contraband goods. To reach this agreement by the slow process of treaties between the different States will take too long, and the disputes arising in the meantime may result in war. That a complete agreement will be reached which will be good for all time it is useless to hope: but it is not unreasonable to expect that substantial improvement can be made in the direction of greater definiteness. Upon this point the chances are at least sufficient to warrant the attempt.

But of greater importance than revising the list of contraband goods is the establishment of an international court for hearing and deciding upon questions of prizes. At present the situation is this: The belligerents each establish prize courts, and to these the property of neutrals, as well as that of the enemy, is taken for the purpose of determining whether or not it has been rightfully captured by the war-ships of the belligerent whose court is deciding the question.

When we consider the excitement which war always produces, the weight likely to be attached to interests as against abstract justice, and that the judge is virtually an interested party, it is useless to expect impartiality under such circumstances. For, no matter how good the intentions of the judge, he is but human, and it is useless to expect from human nature a character of service for which human nature was never designed. Inasmuch, therefore, as men do not make good judges in their own case, and as patriotic men are too apt to make their country's case their own case, it would seem that it is a mere matter of justice to neutrals that a court be established for the hearing of prize cases, in which the judges in a given case would not be citizens of either the belligerent or the neutral State which is concerned in the controversy. This would be no hardship or injustice to either party to the controversy, and would increase immensely the chances of securing an impartial trial.

There is nothing a priori unreasonable or impractical about such a proposition, and it has justice to commend it. Nor does it seem likely that the proposal would meet with insurmountable opposition in an international conference. States are gradually coming to see that their greatest interests are as neutrals, not as belligerents. And a State would not have the same incentive to oppose the establishment of such a court that it has to avail itself of its present right to establish its own prize courts after it becomes a belligerent and feels, as belligerents generally feel, that its interests and perhaps its national existence are so endangered that it should yield no legal right the exercise of which would be a substantial advantage to it at that particular time. There may be some difference of opinion as to the details of this plan, but that it should be adopted in principle seems entirely clear.

Equally clear is it that there should be, in the interest of neutrals, an agreement as to the restrictions which should be placed upon the right of belligerents to make use of submarine or floating mines. This is a relatively new question, and, though there has been consid-

erable expression of opinion, there cannot as yet be said to be an established legal rule. To argue that the belligerent may sow the seas broadcast with these agencies of destruction, in the hope that the war-ships of the other belligerent may come into contact with them and be thereby destroyed, is to lose sight entirely of the fact that neutral commerce has some rights on the open seas which must not be wholly disregarded. Such an extreme view is highly untenable. what restrictions are to be placed which will at once preserve to the belligerent his legitimate right to injure his enemy and also to the neutral his rights upon the common highway of all nations, is a question in the settlement of which the neutral as well as the belligerent is entitled to be heard. Whether a settlement is reached by way of a compromise or by either side yielding, it is important that a conclusion be reached, so that each side may know the rights of both sides in advance, instead of being compelled to await a settlement of the matter until a controversy forces the question upon them and both are irritated and likely to appeal to the arbitrament of the sword.

There is another standpoint from which this question of the legitimate use of floating or submarine mines may be considered, and that is from the standpoint of the rights of non-combatant enemies. Undoubtedly the belligerent has a right to resort to such means for the purpose of destroying his enemy's fighting vessels, but has he the right to subject the crews and passengers of the merchant vessels of his enemy to such dangers? To answer this question in the affirmative is to disregard the principle that war is a contest between States, and to revert to the theory and practice of barbarism. To one who is convinced that the change in the conception of war as a contest between the armed forces of the contending States, rather than between all the individuals, marks a distinct stage of progress in the laws and usages of war, a reversion to the old conception would be anything but gratifying.

The right of belligerents to destroy neutral vessels instead of taking them in for adjudication has again been raised by the action of Russia in sinking the Knight Commander, the Thea, and the Hipsang. That extreme circumstances may excuse the exercise of so harsh a means of protecting the rights of belligerents has for some time been claimed, conditional, however, upon compensation to the neutral for his loss. was the decision of Lord Stowell in the case of the Acteon (2 Dodson 48) and the Felicity (ibid., 281). But as there is divergence of opinion and practice as to the facts which furnish the basis for the exercise of the right, and as it is contended by some that compensation is not necessary, it is evident that there is need of a definite agreement. Nor is the need of such agreement confined to the question of the right to compensation; it should include also provision for the ascertainment of this by an impartial tribunal. Though it would, of course, be exceedingly difficult, if not impossible, to fix in advance the circumstances justifying the right of destruction, agreement as to an equitable method of redress through an impartial tribunal should offer no insurmountable obstacles. least this much should, therefore, be accomplished.

The use of wireless telegraphy by neutrals in or near the zone of hostile operations presents a new and difficult problem—one concerning which there is need of an agreement for the purpose of avoiding friction and preserving, in so far as possible, the rights of both neutrals and belligerents. Though the pretensions of Russia were entirely untenable that she had the right to treat as spies the newspaper correspondents seized on the Haimun, who were using this means of conveying intelligence,

yet these pretensions serve to show the danger and inconvenience of having no legal provision governing the case.

Scarcely less urgent, though not so new, is the need of determining the rights of belligerents over submarine cables owned by neutrals. This question was raised during the Spanish-American War, when Admiral Dewey cut the cable of the Eastern Extension Company within the territorial waters of the Philippines. This company, which was neutral, owned the cable between Hongkong and Manila. It demanded of the American Government compensation for its loss, and included in this the loss of income during the time the cable was cut. The Attorney-General of the United States replied that neutral property in enemy's territory is, "from its location alone, liable to damage from lawful operations of war, which this cutting is conceded to have been, and no compensation is due for such damage." But this cannot be said to have established a rule. The question may fairly be said to be still an open one, and is worthy the consideration of an international conference, in the hope of reaching an agreement which will be at once equitable to both parties.

We are aware that we have by no means exhausted the list of questions of international law concerning which there is need of a more definite understanding, but we trust that we have called attention to a sufficient number to make it clear that the advantage to be gained by reaching an agreement with reference to some or all of them, and thus removing causes of friction and perchance of war, is ample to warrant the most serious effort of an international conference.

FRANZ SCHUBERT, ROMANTICIST

BY DANIEL GREGORY MASON

SCHUBERT is usually considered to have been the earliest full-fledged representative of that romantic school of composers which succeeded Beethoven. His position in the history of music is thus a peculiar one. He forms the link between two great schools, the classical school of Haydn-Mozart-Beethoven, and the romantic school of Schumann-Mendelssohn-Chopin. Traditions, training, and environment allied him with the older order; but instinct, opportunity, and even native limitation combined to lead him into new paths. He was a born romanticist.

Romanticism is a term of many meanings, standing for a fact of many aspects. For our present purpose, however, we may take it as describing a kind of music the chief concern of which is with special expression, with particular, isolated effects. In classical music emotion is general, pervasive, unparticularized, and sensuous effect is kept everywhere subordinate to the entire scheme of design. Salient, individually conspicuous elements, whether sensuous or emotional, are rare; the effort of the composer is toward a unitary, thoroughly harmonized impression. Romanticism seeks more striking features, even if they are less satisfactorily interfused. Sensuously, for example, romanticism, as practiced by the composers after Beethoven, meant increasing interest in charming effects of color, gained largely either by lavish use of chromatic harmony or by ingenious mixtures of different tone-qualities or timbres, as in the piano writing of Schumann and Chopin, the orchestral writing of Berlioz, and the chamber-music writing of Schu-Emotionally it meant concern with lyrical rather than with epical ranges of feeling, emphasis on each special feeling in all its unique quality rather than on a harmony of all. Structurally, its results were rather negative than positive; it meant here a reversion to simple types of design, a loss of the complexity of organization that had been Beethoven's supreme glory, and a substitution for it of the song-forms of Schubert and the mosaic forms of Schumann. Behind all these changes, as the effective force producing them, stood the desire for increased specialization of expression. Romanticism is thus in essence merely the appearance of the characteristic modern tendency to specialize, to individuate, in the sphere of art.

Schubert's romantic impulse appears primarily in his songs. Before his time the song for single voice, with piano accompaniment, had been a form not favored by the great composers; Mozart's and Beethoven's songs, as some critic has remarked, were merely the chips thrown off in a great workshop. But Schubert took a new interest in the song because he was a new kind of man among composers, a man of sentiment. His temperament was a very pure example of the sentimental type. His music bears all the hall-marks of this temperament—the preference for short pieces, each the monument of a mood: the prevailing ground-tone of tender sadness, frequently irradiated by charming fancifulness, but seldom swept aside by virile passion and energy; the fondness for minor keys, delicious modulations, and persistent, hypnotizing rhythms; the incapacity for logical, sustained The same character is tracethought. able, too, in what little we know of his life. His contentedly ambling, unbuttoned existence, among bachelor friends. in the bohemian world of beer-cellars and suburban picnics; his combination of sweetness and a sort of involuntary nobility of aim with an utter lack of intellectual distinction; his innocence in business matters and practical affairs: his devotion to day-dream and reverie; even his indolence and resulting sponginess of physique, which earned him the nickname of "Schwammerl"—all point in the same direction.

Schubert was the man of sentiment in music; and his songs are the spontane-

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ous outpourings of such a nature, each an incomparably vivid presentment of a single, isolated feeling, a "moment's monument." And this is precisely what a song should be. As in a short story, of the kind that Kipling, Stevenson, and others have made familiar to us, we do not demand that evolution of character. that complex nodation of plot, that subtle action and reaction of motive, which every great novel must have, but simply vividness, brilliant depiction of a single person, idea, or situation, so in a song we desire no symphonic grandeur of scope and wealth of ordered detail, but rather perfect utterance of a single, highly specialized emotion. Schubert's best songs fulfill this requirement in an almost inimitable degree. Simple in style and design, wonderfully direct, spontaneous, and sincere, conceived as idealizations of the beautiful old German Volkslieder, and carried out with all the artistic perfection and appropriateness of detail that good craftsmanship could give, they are among the few things in music that are absolutely achieved. See, for example, how in such songs as "Hark, hark! the Lark," "Who is Sylvia," "Am Meer," "Du bist die Ruh," "Die Forelle," "Heiden-Röslein," and perhaps a dozen others, Schubert strikes at once, in each case, the exact tone and style needed to transfigure the particular feeling with all the magic of music, and throughout the song maintains the mood perfectly, with no mixture or clouding. And this, too, with the greatest actual diversity of mood in the different songs, to which his art flexibly responds. This group of his fifteen or twenty best songs is not only the crown of his own work, but one of the brightest iewels in the crown of romanticism.

In another group of his songs, even more popular than this supreme one, his romanticism inspired him less happily. Whenever, giving free rein to his passion for detailed expression, he directed his effort less towards reproducing an emotional mood than towards illustrating actual incidents, whenever, that is, he allowed dramatic rather than musical considerations to sway him, he produced a type of song which, in spite of its popularity, is intrinsically inferior, and hence

likely to lose favor as musical taste develops. The most famous examples of this type are "The Erl-King" and "The Wanderer;" others scarcely less known are "Der Atlas," "Die Doppelgänger," "Die Junge Nonne," "Die Allmacht," "Kolma's Klage," and "Hagar's Klage." Such songs, with their physically exciting tremolos, crashing diminished-seventh chords, chromatic climaxes, mysterious staccato octaves, pianissimo, in the bass, and other such claptrap effects, are better suited to accompany the drowning of the heroine of melodrama by the villain than to edify the sense of musical beauty. They reveal pitilessly the seamy side of romanticism. and make us wish that Schubert's fecund imagination had been controlled by a more fastidious taste.

But even after we have set aside such departures from his highest musical ideal as these, together with the several hundred songs in which his simplicity, untouched by genius, degenerated to mere triteness and platitude, we have left, out of the more than six hundred songs he wrote, about twenty or thirty of such incomparable quality as to give him a secure place among the masters of the musical lyric.

The careful discrimination between quantity and quality in Schubert's work, so obviously important in judging his songs, becomes perhaps even more indispensable to criticism when we come to deal with his instrumental works. facts that here present themselves to the intending student on his first approach to the subject are entirely misleading. Schubert wrote, he learns, ten symphonies and twenty string quartets, besides much other chamber and orchestral Remembering that Beethoven, for example, wrote nine symphonies and sixteen string quartets, he is likely to assume that the essential Schubert is to be found permeating the one set of works just as the essential Beethoven permeates the other, and that if he can take, so to speak, a critical average of them all, he will come at the true musical personality of their author. Nothing could be more erroneous. For it must be borne in mind that while the works of Beethoven mentioned were written

during the entire period of his artistic maturity, from his twenty-fifth to his fifty-sixth year, and with the most laborious care, those of Schubert are largely youthful exercises, and were in many cases thrown off as one would write a letter. Schubert wrote voluminously and carelessly, and died at thirty-one, just as he was entering the prime of life. His works are thus, if one may say so, like his person, embedded in superfluous flesh. The bulk of them are, so far as representing him goes, pure surplusage, to be stripped off and thrown aside before we can see the outline and stature of his genius. The compositions produced before the early 1820's, however interesting as documents for the study of his growth, can only confuse a final estimate. The Unfinished Symphony, written in 1822, is almost the first of the entirely characteristic orchestral works, and even that is not free from youthful turgidity and a certain cloying richness of color. The two greatest string quartets, in D-minor and G-major, date from 1826. In 1827 he wrote the two fine pianoforte trios. The great string quintet, and the C-major Symphony, his supreme masterpieces, were composed in 1828, the year of his death. These things reveal the true, the mature Schubert; and only by taking them, and them alone, as the basis of criticism, can justice be done him.

An inspection of the works thus selected as the nucleus and essence of Schubert's instrumental music will reveal, as their most salient character, the same lyrical quality that pervades his vocal compositions. Here, as there, the striking thing is the subjectivity, the strong personal flavor, of the expression. If the songs of the classicists seem often like condensed symphonies, the symphonies and quartets of this romanticist are in many respects magnified songs. In several of his instrumental movements Schubert actually transcribes his themes from songs already written, as for example in the Variations of the D-minor Quartet, founded on "Death and the Maiden," and those of the "Forellen" Quintet, founded on "Die Forelle." When he uses entirely new material, he is apt to conceive it in the lyrical style,

and even to cast it in the lyrical form, with an exact balance of phrases of equal length. Short, musically incomplete and therefore suggestive motives seldom occur to him. The second subject in the Unfinished Symphony, for instance, is like a stanza or strophe; the imagination easily adds words to it; it is an instrumental song. And, like a song, it is complete in itself, not subjected to development. Most of Schubert's more emotional themes share this quality of utterances, and seem, appropriately to their romantic origin and purpose, rather communications of personal feeling than objects of abstract beauty. Even in the later works, like the D-minor and G-major Quartets and the C-major Ouintet, in which the romance is tinged with tragedy, it is still, one feels, romantic tragedy, the tragedy of sentiment and sensibility, and not universal cosmic tragedy like Beethoven's or Bach's.

The interest of the romanticist in color, in richness of the fabric, in the primary sensuous charm of the tonecombinations, characteristic of all the romantic composers, is the source of much of what is most individual in the work of Schubert. He has the keen sense of the impressionist for the varieties of color of the orchestral instruments, and for their effective combination and opposition. He knows how to make the oboe acid, sultry, or menacing, the clarinet mellow and liquid, the horn hollow, vague, mystical, the 'cellos passionate, and the violins clear, aspiring, and ethereal. The score of his C-major Symphony is a marvel of ingenuity and felicity in the weaving of various colors and modes of playing, as staccato and legato, pizzicato, etc. Look, for instance, at page 162 of Eulenberg's miniature score, and see how the woodwind instruments chatter in staccato against the long rise and fall of the strings playing in octaves, legato; or at page 139, noting how, after a powerful climax and a moment of complete silence, the 'cello, against plucked chords by the other strings, sings a languorous melody, which is presently taken up by the oboe; or at pages 30-35, where, under the shimmering veil of the strings, the trombones gradually work out their

sinister call, rising ever higher and higher, and finally precipitating all into the sounding turmoil of the climax on page 36. In such passages as these every tone sounds; and all the tones unite harmoniously and co-operatively to produce the intended effect. In few scores will one find at once such richness and such clear transparency of tone-fabric

Nor is Schubert dependent for variety of color, as unimaginative composers are, on the richly diversified palette of the full orchestra. His chamber-music shows what wizardry he can accomplish with limited means. In his two trios, op, 99 and 100, by making the most of the percussion quality of the piano as well as of both the pizzicato and the sustained tones of the strings, he evolves a surprising variety from the three instruments. Even with the string quartet, the most monochromatic of chamber combinations, he achieves great differentiation and contrast, largely by rhythmically individualizing each voice. opening of the A-minor Quartet is a good example: viola and 'cello give a drone bass in a peculiar and striking rhythm (a dotted half-note followed by a group of four sixteenths); the second violin holds the tone-mass together by means of a graceful, legato, running figure in eighth-notes; the first violin sings a melody that follows its own free and untrammeled rhythm. One is reminded by such a passage of Dvořák, who is of close artistic kin to Schubert. Both men secure fascinating texture, in their writing for strings, by opposing many diverse rhythms simultaneously. The device has been assailed as being a mask to cover a poverty of real polyphony (inner melodiousness); but though it may to a certain extent be that, there can be no doubt of its sensuous effectiveness.

Another similarity between Schubert and Dvořák, also indicative of their romantic interest in special, momentary features, is their coloristic use of harmony, and especially of modulation. Sudden transitions to remote keys are no commoner perhaps in Schubert than in Beethoven, but in Schubert they are prompted by considerations of color rather than of design. Like Dvořák, he loves un-

expected recrystallizations of tone. He shakes the kaleidoscope of his fancy, and all the bits of glass fall into a new pattern (tonality). Such a fascinating change as that immediately after the forte chord of D, in the second entre-act of "Rosamunde," is an illustration. Even better ones, because showing so clearly the lack of any element of formal design in these changes, are those casual alternations of major and minor mode which are so frequent as to constitute a mannerism. At the close of the first movement of the G-major Quartet is an extreme case. Four measures consist entirely of abrupt alternations of the major and minor tonic chords, with no melodic binding together. This is obviously purely a "color-effect," and its motive is of course unequivocally romantic.

The chief faults of Schubert's instrumental works—and they are grave ones -result in part from his way of composing and in part from the insurmountable opposition between the lyrical expression native to him and the modes of construction suitable to extended movements. Schubert was an easy-going, careless, and indolent writer. He wrote music as most people write letters; often he would scribble off half a dozen songs in a single day; he thought nothing of making an overture in three hours, or a whole operetta in a week; and to a friend who asked him how he composed, he replied, "As soon as I finish one thing I begin another." What all this means, practically, is that he did not "compose" at all in the strict sense of placing together tones with care and forethought, but merely improvised on paper. And as a result, while he certainly attained a delightul spontaneity of effect, he also fell into the pitfalls of monotony and diffuseness. constantly becoming hypnotized by a rhythm, keeping it up relentlessly, page on page, without relief. When he has once hit upon a phrase that appeals to him, such, for example, as the second subject in the G-major Quartet, he is apt to adhere to it pretty closely through a whole section of the piece. Such insistence, in contrast to the variety of phraseology of composers like Mozart,

is comparable in effect to the singsong couplets of Pope or Dryden, as contrasted with the pliant versification of Shelley. This weaker aspect of Schubert, connected with his lack of intellectual vigor and possibly with a certain flabbiness of moral fiber, has been exhaustively discussed by Mr. H. H. Statham, an English critic, who reaches the conclusions that "in music, as in literature, easy writing is hard reading," and that in Schubert's larger pieces "lovely melodies follow each other, but nothing comes of them." Whether or not we agree with so extreme a view, we cannot deny Schubert's weakness in musical construction.

But the defects here considered spring in part, it may be pointed out, from the very nature of the musical ideas dealt with. Most of Schubert's themes, even in quartets and symphonies, are essentially songs. Now, it is the nature of a song to be complete in itself, a single vivid presentation of a special emotion. Hence a song is essentially unfitted to the thematic development that short, emphatic, pregnant motives so obviously permit of and require. When, therefore, Schubert comes to the end of his songlike theme, he finds little to do, if he would go on, but to repeat it, with new coloring or accompaniment, or to write a new theme, also very likely lyrical. As a matter of fact, we usually find in his music five pages of repetition to one of real development. Mr. Statham is quite right in contrasting the "vain repetitions" in the Andante of the C-major Symphony with the logical evolution of matter in the Allegretto of Beethoven's Seventh Symphony. And even where, as in the fine coda of the Finale of the C-major Symphony, Schubert has a truly broad design to work out, he fills in his detail in the easiest, least exacting way, by repeating identical phrases at a higher and higher pitch. The effect of the long, gradual climax is intensely dramatic, but when upon familiarity we realize that the ideas generate, so to speak, by fission, or exact reduplication,

rather than by organic evolution, we are left æsthetically unsatisfied. The truth seems to be that Schubert, being essentially a lyrical writer, makes beautiful symphonies and quartets in spite of, rather than by means of, the natural conditions of these epic musical forms. His symphonies are expanded songs, delightful, as songs are delightful, for their directness of feeling, their beauty of detail, their warmth of color and sensuous charm.

His last work, however, the great C-major Symphony, has enough of the heroic about it to make us cautious in saying what he might or might not have done had he not died at thirty-one, when he was just entering the period of artistic maturity. There is a grandeur of scale and intention, a deliberation and solidity, a sustained power, large touch, and freedom of execution about this symphony that place it above all his other works. The long climaxes bespeak a reserve power not associated with Schubert the song-writer; the themes wear their possibilities less upon the surface, and unfold them more cumulatively; the harmony is firmer, plainer, and stronger; the scoring is done as it were with a larger brush, the colors laid on in wider spaces and bigger patterns; and in the last movement the romantic note is for once well drowned in a deeper cry of tragic heroism. It is not a mere coincidence that the theme at the beginning of the Development section so strongly suggests Beethoven's Hymn of Joy; the spirit here is Beethoven's, and the spaciousness of the scheme of construction, if not the detail with which it is filled in, are worthy of the greatest symphonist. Here surely the graciousness of childhood and the romantic dalliance of youth are laid aside, and Schubert speaks with the deep, deliberate voice of manhood. Death never came to an artist more untimely. Had he lived, we cannot tell what new and even profounder expressions of the ripe earnestness that lies beyond romance he might not have planned and achieved.

RELIGIOUS AND MORAL TEACH-ING IN THE SCHOOL'

BY WALTER L. HERVEY

THE whole matter of the religious and moral side of public education is so vital and yet so vexed, so clear and definite in respect of general aim and so befogged and vague in respect of means, that while it emphatically needs to be threshed out, it is very difficult to treat in a way satisfactory to all parties concerned, and impossible at present to settle finally. There are probably few persons who would not agree that the common schools should have some share—and a very considerable share—in religious education. But when it comes to defining just what is meant by religious education, and determining just what share in it properly belongs to the common schools, grave difficulties and disagreements at once arise. And as for moral education, the fact that a bill was recently introduced into the New York Legislature making mandatory in the schools of the State the teaching of ethics, under penalty of withdrawal of the public funds, shows how seriously the question of moral training is regarded by the public, how gravely it may be possible to err if resort be had to external mandatory measures, and how urgently there are demanded from those within the schools a clearly defined position, a working programme, and, above all, such palpably effective results as shall defy just criticism.

It is significant that religious and moral teaching should be so often lumped together. Very early in our history as a Nation it was proclaimed that "religion, morality, and knowledge being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall forever be encouraged." And it is now commonly agreed that while religion and morals are, for purposes of clear thinking, neces-

sarily to be distinguished, in education, as in life, they are "inextricably involved." The highest form of religion issues in human service; the highest form of morality invokes the aid of the Infinite; and in the public school we should have no use for a lower form of religion or of morality than the highest.

But for purposes of thought we must, as I said, divide them, and so I shall first consider what, if any, teaching of religion is possible or necessary in the elementary public school. The only wise answer to that question is, in my judgment: The formal teaching of religion is impossible and unnecessary in the elementary public school. By the formal teaching of religion I mean all direct and explicit teaching of doctrine, dogma, creed, tenet, or belief concerning Bible, church, God, Christ, devil, angel, prayer, penance, immortality, heaven, hell, purgatory, sacrament, pope, bishop, priest, nun, or deaconess, or any like matter. Such teaching is, in the United States, legally impossible. But even if it were possible legally, it would not, in my judgment, be possible morally or professionally. The formal teaching of religion is the deepest and most delicate of all kinds of teaching. It requires on the part of the teacher the greatest skill, judgment, and wisdom. In such work the view-point is vital; selection and emphasis are vital; the turns of expression and the imagery back of the language are vital. Your way in these things is not my way, and still less is it the way of the teacher under whom your child happens to fall from year to year in the public schools. You and I differ so radically in temperament, heredity, and modes of conceiving that, without mutual consent and agreement, neither of us would be willing to instruct the child of the other in religion. Are we then to permit, without the possibility of specific agreement or consent, our children to be instructed in element-

¹ From a paper read before the Department of Elementary Schools of the Religious Education Association

ary theology by a teacher in the public school, whose views, imaginations, and convictions in such matters differ from those of us both? And should we require that teacher to do for our children what we would be unwilling ourselves to do for others' children? I put the point personally, for it is at bottom the most intimately personal question with which we can possibly have to deal. And I believe that Professor Paulsen hits the nerve of the matter when he concludes his discussion of religious education in these words: "What can we do to preserve the religion of the people? I am sure I do not know, unless it be that when you consider the question of preserving religion you first think of yourselves.

But even if it were possible to make the schools more formally religious and less untheological than they now are, it would not be necessary to do so. First, because such instruction can be given outside of the schools without loss, and even with positive gain. And, secondly, because the public schools can meet every legitimate and reasonable tlemand for religious teaching without such instruction. It is an abuse of language to say that because the public schools do not explicitly teach the existence of a God they are therefore "godless," and to affirm that because they do not teach anything about Christ and the Church they are therefore unchristian, and to imply that if they do not teach ethics they are therefore im-There is a vital distinction to moral. be made here—the distinction between "knowledge about" and "acquaintance with;" between the imperfect, controverted, misleading utterance of the lips and the vital experience of the soul; between ethics and morality, theology and religion. Is it to be supposed that there is no religion where there are no phrases, or that there is no recognition of God except by verbal acknowledgment in set terms, or that there is no danger of loss in "raising God from that region where he is clung to by the whole soul with all its spontaneous energy and conferring on him the honor of exactly demonstrating his existence"? Pestalozzi beautifully distinguishes between the

direct and the indirect method when he says of Gertrude: "She taught the child about his ear, not by saying, 'This is your ear,' but by saying, 'Now, child, I will wash your little ear.' "Similarly, I should not particularly care to have my child formally told at school, "There is a God." But I should think it a strange school indeed in which there would not be many times heartfelt and vital recognition of the fact.

In reply, then, to the question, What is the content of formal religious instruction in the elementary public school? we answer, Nothing. But in answer to the question, What is the real content of religious teaching? we answer, Every-There is no subject in the curthing. riculum, there is no relation in the life of the school, which is not packed with potential divinity and may not make for morality. Each study and each experience has its roots in the infinite, and this basic fact may be felt, may be seen, may be lived, without formal instruction The essential principles of therein. Christianity—the fatherhood of God, human brotherhood, the infinite worth of a man, loving service, the abundant life—all these can in every school-room be lived, felt, and with increasing clearness known, without claims, without formal credit, and without the inevitable controversies that spring therefrom.

When we stop to think of it, it is precisely of this living experience that there is deficiency, and of claims, credit, and controversy that there is excess. Whatever may be the function of other educative agencies as regards religion, it is the function of the public school to supply the materials and the occasion of a rich and real religious experience. If it do this well, it will, as far as religion is concerned, have done enough. How can it do this?

Let me answer this in the first instance by an example. I wish that those who decry the schools as godless and as fadridden could, on a certain occasion, have visited with me one of the schools of a great city—a city where the problem of building character, of molding American citizens out of the most heterogeneous and apparently unpromising materials, is met with in its acutest

The school was not an ideal one. form. The teacher in charge was not an ideal person to be in charge of moral and religious instruction. The children were of many nations and of many sects. If one were obliged to commit to any teacher the task of the formal religious instruction of such children, one might well tremble at his responsibility. But listen! There is the reading of a Psalm without note or comment. There is the soul-stirring and tremendously earnest salute to the flag, which by its dignity suggests a sacrament, and which, to those who look on and who know what the flag means even to those children, is a most solemn and moving spectacle. And then there is the singing. visitor is impressed with the manner of singing—in soft, pure tones (for there is a vast difference, from the view-point of moral and religious training, between singing and physical shouting, and that difference is appreciated by the director of music). And still more impressive is the matter sung. It is what might be, if written in prose and said instead of sung, an extract from a revised shorter catechism. The refrain, often repeated by the sweet childish voices, is still singing itself in my ears-" God is wisdom, God is love; God is wisdom, God is love."

So long as such informal religious teaching and such real religious experience are found in the schools unchallenged—and no one was ever known to challenge such exercises, except, perhaps, as fads—the public schools cannot justly be called "godless," "irreligious," "madly perverted," "enemies of Christ," senders forth of "a lusty set of young pagans."

But the public schools can also provide the materials of a rich and real religious development through the subjects of instruction. First, by nourishing and cultivating the spirit of wonder, and the reverence which is the child of wonder. Any study, generally speaking, whether it concern man or nature, which leaves the mind self-satisfied at being able to see clear through the subject, and of knowing all there is to be known about it, is ill taught. Secondly, by cultivating the sense of dependence, of imperfection, and, naturally, of humility.

All nature rightly studied is one continuous lesson in dependence; nothing selfsufficient, nothing causeless, nothing fully explained. All study of man has also its side of dependence. We find this expressed nowhere more wonderfully than in the Psalms, but we do not have to go to the Psalms to find its expression. The words and acts of Washington, Lincoln, and of many another great man in the presence of overburdening responsibilities, irresistibly, and in ways too deep for words, teach the lesson of dependence. Thirdly, by nourishing and cultivating the sense of spiritual mastery, which in its highest form finds expression in the words of Jesus, "I have overcome the world," but which in kindred forms appears in the life of every one who plays the man, however unconscious he may be of the source of his power. For it is not given to any one to play the man except by the power of God; and no one can himself play the man, or enter into the experience of one who does, without coming closer to the source of infinite power. The realization of this source as source is secondary, not primary, just as a person first falls in love, then discovers that he has fallen in love.

Wonder and reverence, dependence and humility, spiritual mastery and faith—to nourish and exercise these is as truly the work of the school as to prepare for the care of the body, for wage-earning, for voting, for rearing a family. And it is possible to provide that nurture and exercise without adding a single subject to the present curriculum of the common schools.

Before leaving this part of my subject I wish to call attention to the fact that the problem of religious education is by no means identical, though sometimes confounded, with that of the proper use of the Bible in the public schools. Nothing that I have said can properly be interpreted to mean that the Bible, intelligently and judiciously used, may not and should not be employed as an invaluable instrument of public education.

The cry for more effective moral instruction in the schools, and for a better moral output from the schools, is

waxing more and more insistent. It is pointed out that crime is on the increase; that the ratio of criminals in the United States has risen in forty years from one in three thousand to one in seven hundred; that in the United States the number of murders increased in the ten years from 1886 to 1896, from 1,146 to nearly 14,000; that, in general, the moral strength of the present generation is unequal to the moral over-strain of our modern life. The blame for it all is, by some who write to the papers, placed on the public schools; and while it is manifestly unfair to place the whole blame for imperfect education on only one of the many educational agencies, it must be admitted that the public schools are in some measure responsible for the present gravely unsatisfactory and disturbing conditions. Granting this heavy and unshirkable responsibility of the schools, what is to be done?

At the outset it may safely be affirmed that the problem is one that does not admit of a rough and ready solution. The proposals of those who would settle the whole trouble by passing a law or by teaching commandments are pitifully ineffective.

Of serious and reputable theories for the teaching of morality there are two general types, corresponding to the two ways of teaching religion; namely, the formal teaching of ethics, and the informal inculcation of morality. On the one hand, Professor Felix Adler and his co-laborers, whose words and works are worthy of the most profound respect and careful study, hold that incidental. teaching does not suffice; that it deals with the negative rather than with the positive aspect of morality; that the incidental method in morals is as faulty as is the incidental method in geography or spelling; and, above all, that the systematic method is practicable, for it has been and is being successfully employed. The accounts of the formal instruction in ethics successfully carried on for many years in the Ethical Culture Schools of New York, and the accounts of similar work done in Anderson, Indiana, under Superintendent J. W. Carr, are worthy of the most careful attention. But the work of these experiment stations

has brought out in stronger relief the difficulty and delicacy of the task of formal ethical instruction; it has clearly shown that such instruction should not be undertaken without the most careful preparation on the part of the teacher.

On the other side, it is vigorously contended, notably by Professor George H. Palmer (Forum, 14: 673), that the attempt to secure morality by instruction is not only futile but pernicious; that behavior can no more be taught by rule than can correct speech, and that the attempt to do either results in demoralization. The two great means of moral education are individuals and institutions—the former working by example, the latter through that "unnoticed pressure of a moral world" which it is their special function to exert.

It cannot be doubted that most American teachers occupy a place between these two extremes, but nearer the latter than the former. And it is well that such is the case. The formal or systematic teaching of ethics in the elementary school, even though it prove desirable, is not at present to any extent practicable. The teachers are not now able to teach it, and they will not soon be able to do so. The dangers of mere textbook ethics in the schools cannot be overestimated. Meanwhile, and indeed in any case, the mainstay of characterbuilding and moralization must, so far as the elementary school is concerned, be sought and found in the means already at hand: in the personal character of the teacher, in such a choice of the subjects of study and such methods of teaching as will produce a "responsive respect for institutions" and cultivate social imagination, and in such an organization of the school as will give the fullest play to social forces.

This view appears to be embodied in the "Syllabus on Ethics" which has been adopted for the public schools in the city of New York. Parts of this syllabus are here given as indicating the lines on which, by many thousands of teachers, the problems of moral education are being worked out in the classrooms of a great city system:

It should be the aim of every teacher to make each part of the life of the school

count for moral education. This aim should be present not only in formal instruction and training, but also in the general atmosphere and spirit of the class-room and of the school. In working toward this aim the following suggestions, based on the experience of practical teachers, will be found helpful:

1. The personality of the teacher is at the root of all moral education in the school. The teacher's ideals, sincerity, poise, selfcontrol, courtesy, voice, manner, dress, and

general attitude toward life are potent forces for character-building.

2. Reverence is vital to morality. Whatever quickens in children the feeling of dependence on a Higher Power, whatever leads them devoutly to wonder at the order, beauty, or mystery of the universe, whatever arouses in them the sentiment of worship or fills them with admiration of true greatness, pro-motes reverence. There is no subject studied in school which, reverently taught, may not yield its contribution to this feeling.

3. Self-respect, which is also fundamental to moral development, is engendered in a child when he does his best at tasks that are worth while and within his power to do well, with proper recognition by teacher and

schoolfellows of work well done.

 The corner-stone of a self-respecting character is principle—the will to be true to the right because it is right, whatever the consequences, to act "with firmness in the right as God gives us to see the right." The essential difference between principle and mere self-interest should be vividly brought home to each child.

5. The spirit of the class-room and of the school—the spirit that makes children say with pride "my class" and "our school" is one of the strongest of moral forces. Where there exists a proper esprit du corps, the problem of discipline is largely solved.

Public opinion as a moral force should be molded and utilized in every school.

6. The child should early gain the idea of social membership. The truth that co-oper-. ation and unselfishness are essential to true social living should be made real and vital. This truth is brought home through "group work," where the work of each is necessary to the work of all; and through the feeling in a school or class that the honor of all is in the keeping of each.

The child should also learn that he is a member, not only of the school, but of the family, of the neighborhood, of the city, and of the State and Nation. The meaning of loyal membership of these social institutions should be made clear. The naturalness and the necessity of obedience and helpfulness The moral aspect of home should be shown. tasks and of working with and not against the departments of health, street-cleaning, police, and education, should be enforced by concrete applications. In general, the truth should be impressed that without loyal and effective social membership no individual can wholly live.

7. No person has a fully developed moral

character until there has been a transfer of the seat of authority from without to within himself: a moral man obeys himself. Each child in every grade should be steadily helped towards self-direction and self-government. Effective means to this end are: appeals to initiative and resourcefulness; the development of such a sense of honor as will preserve order without surveillance; and some form of organization designed to quicken and exercise the sense of responsi-bility. The "school city," when wisely applied and shorn of unnecessary machinery, has been found effective in many schools. But the form of the organization is immaterial. The essential point is that the teacher himself a member of the community, should make his pupils sharers to a certain extent in the problems arising out of their com-munity life; and that he should intrust to them, as members in their own right of the social body, the performance of certain func-

9. In connection with the regular studies of the school, certain aspects of contemporary civilization which are of value for developing the social spirit should receive atten-tion. Hospitals, societies for the prevention of cruelty to children and to animals, homes for orphans and for the aged and infirm, fresh air funds, and similar agencies for social service, should be brought within the child's comprehension at the proper stage. Deeds of heroism and self-sacrifice done by firemen, policemen, soldiers, inventors, and persons in the ordinary walks of life should be presented and dwelt on. The truth that success in life means more than mere money getting can thus be brought home again and again. The contemplation of deeds of cruelty, dishonor, and shame has a necessary, though subordinate, place in molding moral

11. In all such moral instruction and guidance the following principles should be observed: (a) the course of moral training is a

development. . . . (b) The culture of the imagination is a powerful aid in moral instruction; first, as the power vividly to picture consequencesto put yourself in your own place later on (foresight); secondly, as the power to "put yourself in his place" (social imagination, sympathy).

(c) In using literature and similar material for purposes of moral education, the teacher should not violate the law of selfactivity. The child properly resents having a moral drawn for him which he could draw for himself, and he is the more likely to follow the principle which he himself discovers or

formulates, because it is his own.

(d) The most effective method in moral education is positive rather than negative. A mind filled with good interests, high ideals, and helpful activities has no room for evil. Love is a stronger and a better motive than



IBSEN'S LETTERS'

"HOSE who read Ibsen's "Brand" for the first time are apt to feel as if they had been plunged unexpectedly into an icy bath. The sensation is invigorating, but far from pleasant. Other writers pay the conventional deference to sentiment; but here is one who will have none of it, or who at least will not allow its claims when it comes into conflict with either duty or justice. So the passionate idealist who is the protagonist of the mighty drama sacrifices in turn home, friends, wife, and child, straining his heartstrings to the breaking point, but assured that his lofty-purpose requires the sacrifice, and inflexible in the determination to let no emotional weakness impede its achieve-His austere example has so little in common with ordinary humanity that it is hard to adjust our sympathies into consonance with his actions, or to realize that those actions are the inevitable expression of his character. But the prophets, from Jeremiah to Carlyle (and surely the author of "Brand" is numbered among them), have always preached uncomfortable doctrines, and have had, moreover, a way of forcing acceptance upon their own terms.

One frequently thinks of "Brand" when reading the recently published Ibsen letters. One thinks of the drama when he reads with what feverish energy it was written, how the author was "indescribably happy," feeling "the exaltation of the crusaders," during its compo-And one thinks of its central figure when he comes upon certain intimate revelations of the author's own personality. For he, too, like Brand, had made sacrifices for his ideals. He had separated himself from home and friends, not through hardness of heart or lack of sensibility, but because he felt that he had a mission, and for the accomplishment of that mission he must free himself from every sort of bond that might hamper his liberty of thought and action. "Friends are an expensive luxury, and

when a man's whole capital is invested in a calling and a mission in life, he cannot afford to keep them. The costliness of keeping friends does not lie in what one does for them, but in what one, out of consideration for them, refrains from doing." "I know it to be a defect in me that I am incapable of entering into close and intimate relations with people who demand that one should yield one's self up entirely and unreservedly." "It is not for a care-free existence I am fighting, but for the possibility of devoting myself to the task which I believe and know has been laid upon me by God-the work which seems to me more important and needful in Norway than any other, that of arousing the nation and leading it to think great thoughts." "I have not the gifts that go to make a satisfactory citizen, nor yet the gift of orthodoxy; and what I possess no gift for I keep out of. Liberty is the first and highest condition for me." These fragmentary extracts from the letters help us to understand how fully, when he wrote "Brand," Ibsen put himself into the work. Speaking of other plays, he claims the dramatist's prerogative of objectivity, asserting the author to be a mere outsider; but "Brand" is essentially the embodiment of his own character, and, as such, is the most vital figure of his entire creation.

There is no use in having a mission unless a man fits himself for its fulfillment. Consequently, in a very real sense, the first duty of the altruist is to himself—to develop and strengthen his own personality in order to make of it the most effective agency for the shaping of the lives of others. This is Ibsen's constant teaching (as it was Goethe's), and the failure to recognize its importance has caused many a fine altruistic impulse to have no further outcome than vague and ineffectual aspiration. Viewed in this light, how deeply significant is the following confession: "Everything I have written has the closest possible connection with what I have lived through, even if it has not been my own personal experience; in every new poem or play I have aimed at my own spiritual

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¹ Letters of Henrik Ibsen. Translated by John Nilsen Laurvik and Mary Morison. Fox, Duffield & Co., New York. \$2.50, net.

emancipation and purification—for a man shares the responsibility and the guilt of the society to which he belongs." And how unassailable, rightly considered. is this dictum: "So to conduct one's life as to realize one's self—this seems to me the highest attainment possible to a human being." Just as the economic ideal of enlightened self-interest is widely removed from selfishness in its vulgar meaning, so is this ethical ideal of enlightened egoism a thing totally different from that blatant self-assertion and roughshod disregard for one's fellows which the term egoism commonly connotes.

In writing about Ibsen one seems, somehow, to have little use for the conventional jargon of literary criticism. This is true even of the discussion of his plays: it is still truer of the discussion of this volume of his correspondence, written under many varying conditions, and without the least thought of its appearance in print. It is frequently occupied with large ideas, and those ideas are not, as a rule, rigidly fixed, but are rather in the process of crystallization. Ibsen's notions of the State, of the organization of society, are of singular interest, because we can trace the successive stages of their development. He did not find it easy to harmonize the robust individualism which was the strongest of his prepossessions with the actual facts of history as he saw it in the making. He constantly inveighed against regimentation, against the system which reduced individuals to mere cogs in the socia! machinery, yet he could not but admire some of its results. And the bitterness of soul that drove him into voluntary exile in the sixties was occasioned more by the unwillingness of the Scandinavian kingdoms to take united action against Prussia than by anything else. conquest of the Danish provinces seemed to him the most intolerable triumph of brute force over right, and he could never allude to it without emotion. is how he expressed himself at the time: "I cannot keep myself from dwelling with sadness on the situation at home; nor was I able to do so during my whole journey. If I had stayed longer in Berlin, where I saw the triumphal entrance

in April, with the howling rabble tumbling about among the trophies from Dybböl, riding on the gun-carriages, and spitting into the cannon—the cannon that received no help and yet went on shooting until they burst—I do not know how much of my reason I should have retained." The impression of power, although of power put to sinister uses, that remained from his recollections of what Holger Drachmann has called the Danish Thermopylæ, was deepened by his observation of the Franco-Prussian War, and he realized how great a thing was the national discipline that created out of that conflict the German Empire. He summed it all up when he wrote to Brandes: "I began by feeling myself a Norwegian; then I developed into a Scandinavian; and I have ended in Teutonism." But this submission to the logic of events never reconciled him to the German State-system which had accomplished such wonders, for that was impossible to his individualistic, almost anarchical, temper. He felt little faith in revolutions or other political upheavals, because he thought that they affected only the form of society, and were not brought about by spiritual forces. In his impatient mood he could say, as he did in a famous poem, that the deluge was the only thoroughgoing revolution in recorded history, suggesting that it needed but the finishing touch of "a torpedo under the ark." But in his more philosophic mood he always had before his vision the coming "third kingdom," mystically foreshadowed in "Emperor and Galilean," which should somehow reconcile the individual with the State, according to each its proper sphere of freedom.

Those who see only the destructive aspect of Ibsen's genius, only the corrosive effect of his social criticism, do him the greatest possible injustice. They call him a pessimist, whereas he is neither a pessimist nor an optimist, but simply a pronounced meliorist. In his diagnosis of evil the remedy is always implicit, and is often distinctly prescribed. Nor does he pose as a rigid dogmatist. Nothing is more noticeable in his letters than their revelation of the gradual shaping of his ideals. He is of the

party of progress, but he works out its programme slowly and painfully. Thus, he wrote to Brandes in the eighties: "Björnson says, The majority is always right.' And as a practical politician he is bound, I suppose, to say so. I, on the contrary, must of necessity say, 'The minority is always right.' Naturally, I am not thinking of that minority of stagnationists who are left behind by the great middle party which with us is called liberal; but I mean that minority which leads the van, and pushes on to points which the majority has not yet reached. I mean, that man is right who has allied himself most closely with the future." And here is another passage of about the same date that must go with the one just quoted: "I maintain that a fighter in the intellectual vanguard can never collect a majority round him. In ten years the majority will, possibly, occupy the standpoint which Dr. Stockmann held at the public meeting. during these ten years the Doctor will not have been standing still; he will still be at least ten years ahead of the majority. He can never have the majority with him. As regards myself, at least, I am conscious of incessant progression. At the point where I stood when I wrote each of my books there now stands a tolerably compact crowd, but I myself am no longer there; I am elsewhere; farther ahead, I hope."

It is difficult to overstate the interest of this collection of Ibsen's letters. They cover his whole active life, and thus provide a fair substitute for the autobicgraphy which he once began, but did not carry very far. The letters are to a large number of persons, and there are fairly continuous series to the three closest friends of the writer-Björnson, Brandes, and Frederik Hegel, the head of the ancient and famous Gyldendal publishing house. They cover a great variety of subjects, and thus give us a sort of index to Ibsen's inner life-something particularly needed in the case of an author who has chosen to work chiefly in the dramatic form of expression.

Comment on Current Books

It is a gloomy view of society The Cost of that Mr. Sidney A. Reeve Competition takes in this original and rather sensational contribution to the literature of ethics and economics. The task of pointing out defects in the social fabric is by no means difficult, but it does not follow that the modern organization is so essentially unsound that reforms can be effected only by changes amounting to revolution. Nowadays, however, there seem to be many who incline to this belief, and Mr. Reeve is emphatically one of their number. The aim of his volume—an imposing treatise of more than six hundred pages—is to prove that the ills from which the body politic suffers have their root in competition, and that the hope of the future lies in the total elimination of competition. His programme is distinctly socialistic, and has for leading features the vesting of the "ultimate ownership" of all capital in the community, the abolition of "capitalism" and "landlordism," and the fixing of prices by a "public central office." Just how society is to be induced to accept the institutional changes involved is not made clear, but we are warned that, so far as the United States is concerned, action

must be taken quickly, in fact before 1909. Suggestive and informing in some respects, it is hardly likely that Mr. Reeve's book will induce any wide acquiescence in his propositions and proposals. The economist, concerning whom a good deal that is disparaging is here said, will not be hard put to expose the fallacies underlying the structure so laboriously erected, while the "non-technical" reader is likely to beat a hasty retreat before the heavy artillery of mathematical formulæ with which the argument is supported. (McClure, Phillips & Co., New York. \$2, net.)

It is not necessary to accept George the estimate of Mr. Shaw Bernard Shaw which Mr. Henry L. Mencken places upon him in this volume in order to get some value out of his arrangement of Mr. Shaw's plays, and the opinion which he gives regarding them. There is a good deal of the slapdash method of Mr. Huneker in these brief chapters; but, since Mr. Shaw seems to affect all the writers who try to deal with him with a sort of midsummer madness, those readers who are in search of information must be content to take it as it is offered to them, and discard the foam and

fury with which it is enveloped. (John W. Luce & Co., Boston. \$1.)

As a critical work History of Early upon the writings of Christian Literature the New Testament this volume by Dr. von Soden, of the University of Berlin, has eminent and substantial merits. It is free, and at the same time well balanced. It is lucid, and sufficiently untechnical to be helpful to the average Bible student. The mediating position taken by von Soden in regard to the Johannine literature deserves a consideration for which present limits are inadequate. The eccentric theory of van Manen and others, which assigns the entire Pauline literature to the second century, receives here a conclusive refutation. Except the Pastorals, Ephesians, and Second Thessalonians, all the rest of it is pronounced genuinely Paul's, and is reckoned as fully equal, if not superior in the higher qualities of literature, to the great classics of Greece. The historicity of the Evangelic Tradition, whose main outline is thus carried back to within a quarter-century of the Crucifixion, may be regarded as established beyond gainsaying. (G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. \$1.50.)

This work by the Rev. Archi-The Holy bald Campbell Knowles, of Christ-Child the Anglican Church, will be admitted to be "a devotional study of the Incarnation of the Son of God," but scarcely more than devotional. Theologians, as Professor Briggs says, prefer to view the incarnation from the standpoint of "the Hymn of the Logos (John i. 1-18)," while the favorite popular conception of it is that of the "Ave Maria." Mr. Knowles adopts this popular conception so thoroughly that he cannot see how God could become incarnate except through a virgin birth; denial of which is to him denial of the incarnation. Yet it is doubtless true, as he says, though in a meaning far above his thought, that denial or distortion of the truth of the incarnation leads to the wrecking of many a human life. "Creation," traditionally so called, is the incarnation of the divine in the human. "We are the offspring of God," said St. Paul to pagans. As for the prodigal in Jesus' parable, it is a saving thought for a sinner to realize whose child he is. (Thomas Whittaker, New York. 90c., net.)

Canon Ainger was not only Lectures and one of the best and most tact-Essays ful of Lamb's editors, but he was also a good all-round literary scholar and a persuasive and agreeable writer. Under the pressure of his work as Master of the Temple it was impossible for him to keep

digging away at the sources of literary knowledge, but his acquaintance with authors was ample, and he had a talent for using knowledge which is often denied investigators. The two volumes which contain his "Lectures and Essays" show wide reading and catholic tastes; they include papers on Shakespeare, Lamb, Swift, Burns, an interesting if not wholly convincing discussion of euphuism, and a charming chapter on Tennyson. Canon Ainger was an appreciator of the humor of Dickens, and has happily characterized it. The three lectures on Shakespeare's art are excellent examples of what is called popularization of knowledge, but what is more truly the interpretation of the growth of an artist by the study of his work. The two volumes will not take rank as permanent additions to the literature of the English essay, but they form most agreeable reading; for they are work of a man of cultivated intelligence, of broad tastes, of genial humor, and of old-fashioned literary manners. (The Macmillan Company, New York. \$5.)

Students of French his-

Louis XIV. and La Grande

tory who three years ago welcomed the publication Mademoiselle in English of the first part of M. Arvède Barine's "La Grande Mademoiselle" (1627-1652) will have a special welcome for its successor, which carries the story to 1693. The first volume presented conditions in France during a period in which the ancient liberties of the people had suffered extinction. The present volume throws additional light upon the person popularly supposed to have had much to do with that extinction-Louis XIV. "La Grande Mademoiselle," his cousin, had been brought up side by side with him, but she seems to have been as ignorant of his real character as was St.-Simon, his memoirist. There was indeed some excuse for St.-Simon: Louis XIV. was over fifty years old when the redoubtable writer appeared at Court; thus the "Mémoires" present a portrait of a man almost venerable, and this is the portrait which has come down to us rather than any other. In the present volume we have a somewhat different one; in fact, here and there we are reminded of that possibly fanciful portrait of the monarch as he appeared in his younger days which Dumas the elder drew. A marked value of M. Barine's volume to all those who would understand the age of Louis XIV. lies in the fact that "La Grande Mademoiselle" was a thoroughly representative figure of her generation. She possessed the great qualities of a great epoch, but she was also responsible for some of its evil, intolerance, and oppression, by the results of which she herself was finally

overwhelmed. (G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. \$3, net.)

This is a biography Life of which can be read Omar Al-Khayyam through in an hour, the chief interest of which lies in the fact that it was written by a Persian, Mr. J. K. M. Shirazi, and presents a Persian's statement of Omar's philosophy and interpretation of his position. The writer is in substantial agreement with most Western editors in declaring that agnosticism, not faith, is the keynote of Omar's work. The poet was attracted by the riddle which man's life presents in the world, and he was convinced that it is incapable of satisfactory solution. He turned to the senses for alleviation and forgetfulness. His love of nature and his vitality enabled him to bear the uncertainties of the present and the future with considerable equanimity and to get a great deal of pleasure out of life by the way. Much, however, of the exploitation of "wine, woman, and song" in which Omar indulges is, in the judgment of this biographer, dramatic or lyrical, and does not represent the habits and practice of the poet. The biography is interestingly written, and is at variance in some minor points of Western interpretation of the conditions under which Omar wrote. It cannot be regarded as a contribution of permanent value to the literature on this subject, but it is profitable reading. The volume is bound in the Persian style, with elaborately decorated covers. (A. C. McClurg & Co.,

The political and economic prob-Modern lems of Germany, her general Germany policy, her amb tions, and the causes of her success, form an increasingly interesting and absorbing topic of discussion. To the general fund of information regarding it few books have appeared of more practical worth than Mr. Eltzbacher's " Modern Germany." First of all we are instructed as to the functions of the State, a striking contrast being drawn between the exercise of those functions in England and in Germany. As to German expansion, special attention is given to the peculiar problems presented in its connection by Austria-Hungary, by Russia, and by Anglo-Saxon countries. In this expansion the German Emperor is a particularly picturesque and influential factor: Mr. Eltzbacher does well to devote a chapter to him. We are then informed as to the German army, the rise and power of the Socialists, the condition of rural industries and of methods of transportation. Finally, we are instructed as to the general German fiscal policy. In view of the new tariff which is going into effect on the first of

Chicago. \$1.50, net.)

March, Mr. Eltzbacher's book will receive a timely welcome. From it we learn why the new tariff has been received with favor, for the beneficial effect of previous protective tariffs was immediate and has been lasting. Though non-industrialists have predicted the ruin of German industries in consequence of the forthcoming increase of protective duties, the manufacturers are supporting protection because by it, they say, they have increased their production and have afforded fuller employment and rising wages to the working classes. Such an improvement was welcome, as a considerably increased population had to be provided for, the inhabitants having increased from 45,000,000 in 1880 to 56,000,000 in 1900. Mr. Eltzbacher writes as a protectionist, and his argument is of extreme interest; to the general student, however, his book might have been more valuable if he had devoted more space to the arguments of his opponents. We note his fairness, nevertheless, in admitting that the German chemical industries (to which he deservedly devotes a chapter) have achieved their commanding success practically without any fiscal aid. This is specially notable, since all other German industries have been fostered by perhaps the most scientific and the most skillfully framed of existing protective tariffs. (E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. \$2.50, net.)

This story by Dimitri Me-Peter rejkowski is by no means inand Alexis tended for the entertainment of the average novel reader, or indeed for entertainment at all. It has its value, nevertheless, as a wonderfully vivid picture of Russia in the beginning of its formative life as a civilized nation. It includes the tragic and revolting story of Peter the Great's distrust of his son Alexis, and of the imprisonment and torture and final execution of Alexis—as some say, and as is here stated, by the very hands of the father himself. All this was an outgrowth of the almost incredible barbarism of Peter's time, against which he himself, although at times more than half barbarian in his instincts and actions, was struggling in his purpose to make of Russia a nation governed by European ideas. There is very much in the book that is repugnant to one's taste and sensibilities. Its coarseness and certain disgusting details can be excused, if at all, only on the ground that they form a necessary part of a true description of the time and people dealt with. Cruelty, torture, beastly excesses of all kinds, were the result of faults, not only in the personal life and character both of Peter and Alexis, but in those of the people at large; and the strange thing psychically and psychologically is the presence (again equally

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The unnamed author of

in monarch, heir, and people at large), together with these horrible faults, of an exalted purpose. In Peter this took the form of striving for the upraising of Russia; with Alexis and vast numbers of the people it took various forms of singular religious exaltation. This exaltation was responsible for the hatred of Peter as Antichrist and for the existence of large sects possessed of such insane religious frenzy that they burned themselves to death by the hundreds, committed self-mutilation, and indulged in other extraordinary and wild conduct, all in the name of religion. This book is the third of a so-called Trilogy, connected by an underlying idea in the author's mind, but altogether too subtly for most readers, the whole being entitled "Christ and Antichrist." The first book, "The Death of the Gods," was a story of Julian the Apostate. The second was "The Romance of Leonardo da Vinci." The power of Merejkowski cannot be gainsaid, but of these three books the first only has the merit of constructive ability, and the present book is least of all a novel in the ordinary sense. It is tumultuous, turgid, and sometimes prolix, while the rhapsodical final chapter is all but unintelligible. The author's preface shows that he has had in mind throughout a sinister and melancholy parallel between the unfortunate and irresolute Alexis and the present Czar of Russia. (G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. \$1.50.)

The Plays and Poems of Christopher Marlowe pher Marlowe" is in very taking form, with flexible leather binding, printed on very thin but opaque paper, and presenting in convenient form for pocket carriage the work of Shakespeare's greatest contemporary in dramatic writing. (Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. \$1.25, net.)

This is an acceptable The Poetical Works one-volume edition of of Lord Byron Byron's poems, edited by Ernest Hartley Coleridge, who contributes an introductory memoir of some length in which Byron's personal history and his career as an author are described in a more readable way than is common with introductions of this kind. Mr. Coleridge's final judgment is that "it is only in England and amongst his own people that Byron stands in need of an apology. . . . Poetry will not be admired or read at the bidding of others, but there is food for reflection in the proof of a world-wide fame." The title-page of this edition makes the claim that this is the only complete and copyright text to be found in one volume. (Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. \$1.50.)

The Prairie and the Sea This is the title of a series of pleasing out-of-door talks and rambles. The author, Mr. William A. Quayle, is always sympathetic in his moods, is an ardent worshiper at the shrine of nature, and is at times playful, at other times ecstatic. The book is made beautiful by a very large number of altogether charming photographs and marginal drawings. (Eaton & Mains, New York. \$2, net.)

The Religion of this brief but weighty ut-Christ terance has rightly judged that what he says is of more consequence than who he is. He is, however, immediately recognizable as a cultured writer and a thinker of uncommon force. His theme is the radical question of our time, "What is Christianity?" and his text is Lessing's remark," The Christian Religion has been tried for eighteen centuries; the Religion of Christ remains to be tried." By the Christian religion is meant a body of religious doctrine supported by an ecclesiastical organization. The religion of Christ is the attitude of the spirit toward God and man that Jesus manifested as controlling his life. The world outgrows the former; it needs and hungers for the latter. Dogmatism and ecclesiasticism are losing power; the religion of authority wanes; the religion of the spirit is a rising tide. In his survey of the present situation the author notes that Roman Catholicism "has become more than ever a religion of authority, while Protestantism is fast transforming itself into a religion of the spirit." Two branches of the Protestant body seem to him in a problematical position. The Unitarian, with its principle of salvation through character, appears well conditioned for spiritual leadership, but in danger of stagnating in a dry intellectualism. The Anglican, hitherto advantaged by the Janus-faced combination of its Protestant Articles and its Catholic liturgy, must soon decide whether to part with its Protestantism or with its dogmatic ecclesiasticism. The rending of the veil which the Christian religion has drawn over the religion of Christ discloses the secret of the lost unity of the Church, as a unity based on the real needs and facts of life, on the things to be done in order to real salvation now, in the conflict with evil. Not that Christianity is simply an ethical system; rather it is this vitalized by a religious consciousness, certain that God is with us. Just this, "the inward salvation of the religious consciousness of Jesus—the religion of Christ," not "the outward salvation of the Christian religion," is the gift of God to the seeking soul. These

thoughts have been uttered before, but never more clearly or attractively, and they well express the spirit in which the movement for the improvement of theology should proceed. (G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. \$1.50.)

The first sentence of Rightly Instructed this book by Dr. in God's Holy Word Beckwith, Bishop of the Protestant Episcopal Church in Alabama, and also the preface by Dr. Du Bose, of the Sewanee Theological Seminary, strike the right note-" Christianity is a life." Accordingly, the Bishop proceeds to set forth the teaching of the Church concerning "the personal life of her members," as laid down in her Catechism. But under this Biblical conception of Christianity as a life the ecclesiastical pretension that Christianity is a system of dogma is found to be smuggled in, and this to an extent that only high-churchmen can approve. It appears that to be "rightly instructed in God's Holy Word" is to deny the name of "Church" to all "bodies of Christian people" unconfirmed by bishops, and the name of "children of God " to all persons not baptized. (Thomas Whittaker, New York. \$1, net.)

This account by Dr. W. G. Aston, an accomplished nippologist (if one may coin a word in imitation of the recently approved term sinologist), of the religion of Old Japan, "The Way of the Gods," still the official though languishing cult of New Japan, is of no small interest to the general reader, while primarily intended for students of the history and science of religion. Here at least a "decidedly rudimentary" religion contradicts the ancient Roman theory, revived by some modern scientists, that the gods originated in human fears. "Shinto," says Dr. Aston, "is essentially a religion of gratitude and love." Fear, indeed, of the natural powers that sustain human life is not wanting, but they are regarded as on the whole beneficent, and worshiped primarily with gratitude. (Longmans, Green & Co., New York. \$2, net.)

Silas Marner
An artistically made edition of a story which a great many readers of George Eliot regard as her masterpiece, the special feature being the twenty-four colored illustrations by C. E. Brock, which are very taking but not entirely characteristic of the story. (E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. \$2.)

The Story of Cambridge

Dean Stubbs knows his Cambridge at first hand, and, what is as important, knows also from his charming seclusion the Close at Ely Cathedral he is within easy reach of the old university town, and

his excursions have borne fruit in a series of pleasantly written chapters which tell the story of the town chiefly in connection with the University from the earliest times to the present. The volume follows the general method which has made the series so attractive and useful, and is enriched with a number of illustrations by Herbert Railton of a quality and interest which only an English university town could furnish. (J. M. Dent & Co., London, England.)

The Tragedy of King Lear

The latest addition to the First Folio edition of Shakespeare by Miss Charlotte Porter and Miss Helen A. Clarke further works out a scheme which makes this edition quite invaluable to students of Shakespeare. The text of the First Folio is reproduced, with a copious supply of notes, literary illustrations, a glossary, a list of variorum readings, and a careful selection of the most important criticisms of the play. (Thomas Y. Crowell & Co., New York. \$1.)

William T. Sherman in the excellent series of "American Crisis Biographies," is from the pen of Mr. Edward Robins. It can scarcely be called a biography of General Sherman, for little attempt is made to treat the years of his youth and late manhood, attention being centered almost exclusively on his career in the Civil War. But it presents a truthful and striking portrait, and is very acceptable as a military memoir. An admirer of the General, Mr. Robins is in no sense an apologist for him, exposing his defects as clearly as the qualities which made him one of the leading figures of the war. It is pleasing, too, to find that in writing of the battles and campaigns a scrupulously fair attitude is preserved. We cannot, however, always agree with the author's estimates of the commanders with and against whom Sherman fought; and it is to be wished that in his presentation he had attained a higher level of literary quality. But his book is always interesting and readable, and we gladly commend it. (George W. Jacobs & Co., Philadelphia. \$1.25, net.)

Who's Who: 1906

This is the new annual edition of the English reference-book having the title "Who's Who," and one could wish that the American biographical dictionary having the same name was also an annual instead of a biennial publication. The two have proved almost indispensable in newspaper offices, and are of constant value to many other workers. Their success has been due very largely to the care with which they have been edited and to their abstinence from any kind of social

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laudation or exploitation. Both of the works confine their biographical articles to the condensed statement of facts regarding the subjects. The present issue of the English book comes down in its data to September, It is bulkier than previous issues. although some of the tables which have formerly been prefixed to the book itself have now been published, with other useful information, in a separate Year-Book. This is the fifty-eighth year of the issue of this book, and it has become universally recognized as the only satisfactory compendium of the kind now in existence. It does not, of course, fulfill all the functions of a biographical dictionary, nor does it pretend to, but within its chosen field it is comprehensive and almost invariably accurate. It would be easy to point out a certain lack of proportion and uncertainty of choice as to the foreign, and particularly the American, names included in this

book; but as the inclusion of any such names is really outside the main purpose and field of the book, such a criticism would hardly be fair. (The Macmillan Company, New York.

The Writings of

A simple, tasteful volume containing Saint Francis of Assisi the work of Saint Francis, including a group of six letters translated by Father Paschal Robinson, of the Order of Friars Minor. The translator supplies an introduction which gives some account of the writings, makes some comment on their quality, and gives a brief history of the manuscripts and the various editions. A series of notes, an appendix relating to doubtful, lost, and spurious writings, and a bibliography, with an index, give the volume, which is tastefully made, a completeness which many books of this kind lack. (The Dolphin Press, Philadelphia. \$1, net.)

Letters to The Outlook

AN ALLEGED EXCISE PARADOX

In the January Magazine Number you review the decision of the Supreme Court on the right of the Government to levy an internal revenue tax on the liquor business carried on by South Carolina. We approve of your position on that decision. Let us make you acquainted, if you are not already, with a case in which the Internal Revenue Department of the Federal Government comes in contact with the laws of a State. Jackson County, Kentucky, is "dry;" this is true also of many other counties in the State. No liquors can be sold legally. Now, the Internal Revenue Department will, on the payment of the necessary sum, license a still or a place to sell liquor in violation of the local option laws. Of course the local authorities can proceed against the still or saloon. The license granted by the internal revenue officials does not protect the one holding it from arrest and prosecution by the local authorities, but the United States marshals may not touch him.

It is our contention that in this case the Government has no moral right, if it has at present a Constitutional right, to inflict the curse upon that community which has voted it out by a well-nigh unanimous vote, or to compel it to fight the Government to keep it out. Any county or town or district is not violating the inter-State laws, nor in any way seeking to evade its obligations to the Government, nor infringing upon any of its laws. Why, then, should the Federal Government make the State law of non-effect. or give those sections which do not want liquor sold within it unnecessary trouble in keeping it out?

This procedure of the Government makes it doubly, trebly hard for the dry territory to enforce its laws-the laws of the State covering the question under discussion.

If the Government grants the State the right, or does not deny it the right, to make local option laws, why does it exercise the right to make those laws of none effect, practically, or why does it seriously interfere in their enforcement when any section of the State takes advantage of them?

ISAAC MESSLER.

McKee, Jackson County, Kentucky.

[Our correspondent, we think, answers his own question. He asks why the Federal Government makes local option laws "of non-effect, practically," or interferes seriously "in their enforcement;" but he already has said that the Federal license does not protect its holder from arrest by local authorities; it simply frees the holder from responsibility to Federal marshals. What our correspondent really urges is that Federal marshals shall be required to enforce local laws; in other words, that any locality should be able to direct, as regards the sale of liquor, the administrative policy of the United States Government. He also asserts that the granting of Federal licenses makes the task of a no-license community much harder. That is a matter on which there is difference of opinion. In some States the possession of a Federal license is accepted as *prima facie* evidence that the holder has sold liquor. In this case Federal licensing makes the task of procuring evidence in fact much easier than it otherwise would be.—The Editors.]

WORLD LEGISLATION

Walter J. Shepard's recent communication from Heidelberg in The Outlook, with its criticism of the Hague Tribunal as a substitute for war, requires the supplement of some facts. He wrote: "If war is ever to be abolished, it must be by the substitution of an international legislature rather than an international court," and he adds further emphatic statements to support such a position, saying also that "an international legislature is, for the indefinite future, quite impracticable." His points may be conceded to be well taken, in view of the relation of court to legislature. But, since he writes from Germany, he probably is not aware of what has been done already for the specific purpose of promoting a world legislature. A resolution was adopted in the Massachusetts Legislature in 1903 unanimously in favor of "a regular international congress." The idea has the indorsement, in formal document, of the entire judiciary of the State of Pennsylvania. It was approved unanimously by the Interparliamentary Union at its meeting in St. Louis in September, 1904; it was incorporated in the resolution which was presented to President Roosevelt by that Union asking him to call a second meeting of the Hague Conference; it was one of the three subjects named by Secretary Hay when he sent out the invitation to the nations in October, 1904, at the direction of the President, who promised that he would act favorably upon the petition of the Interparliamentary Union, and did so-the two remaining subjects being the matters left over from the first Hague Conference, and a general arbitration treaty. It has such strong American indorsement and such official standing that it is reasonable to expect that it will be one of the subjects brought before the second Hague Conference. That Conference has been called by the Czar of Russia, President Roosevelt waiving his invitation at the request of the Czar, so that the sovereign who called the first Conference might have the honor of calling the second. The United States has accepted the call. Therefore the project of discussion at least of the proposition of an international legislative body is bright.

Now, still further, regarding the nature of that body, as those who have taken interest in it expect to see it develop. It is not believed by them that a world legislative body will spring into being, but that it will come as the result of an evolutionary process, as other stable political developments have occurred. It is to be emphasized as a matter of indisputable fact, since world legislation is the expression of the will of the world, that such expressions have occurred already so many times that the fact of world legislation must be admitted, though the result has not been reached by a formal legislative body. Best of all illustrations is the "Universal Postal Union," for every nation on earth with a government capable of making the arrangement is a party to it. The will of the world has been expressed by the establishment of certain business arrangements. Most recent of the illustrations (of which there are over thirty of varying degrees of fullness) is the establishment of the Hague Court of Arbitration. The act of establishment was world legislation, as far as the nations which entered into the arrangement represented the world.

In due process of time, the second Hague Conference, which has been called and will be attended by more nations, through their representatives, than the first, and perhaps by more than have attended any other international gathering in the world, will meet. Whatever it does regarding practices of war or other regulations, which is adopted by the nations, will be world legislation as far as the adopting nations represent the world. Practically, the Hague Conference is already a world legislative body, with the limitation that its propositions have no binding force upon any government until they have been ratified by that government. But it is impossible to doubt that in this body we have the world legislature in active process of evolution.

When the second, or third, or nth Hague Conference shall have formulated a code of international law, and that code shall have been adopted by the nations severally, there will be a code of a quality really different and higher than present international law, and entitled to the true and distinctive name of world law. With such a code to interpret, there would be demand for the world court. Without disputing the smallest part of Mr. Shepard's assertions, it may be strongly maintained that the case for the unification of the world as a single political body is proceeding with a rapidity which is surprising in view of the shortness of the time during which the object has been a specific aim. But it is now evident, looking back upon events, that the process was well under way before the true nature of the development came to find its present acceptance. Very likely the time may be as long as Mr.

Shepard thinks before the consummation is reached, but the thing itself is already here in a manifest measure.

R. L. BRIDGMAN.

TEACHING IN THE PHILIPPINES

My recent employment in the Philippine schools enables me to comment upon the status and work of the supervising teacher, which subject is discussed by a correspondent in your issue of January 20.

It must be conceded that the difficulties encountered by the supervising teacher are numerous and sometimes discouraging, but lack of necessary instructions and requisite authority should not be among their number. As the Bureau is organized, it devolves upon the division superintendent, in charge of the work in one or two provinces, to assign the supervising teacher to his district, and from time to time to instruct him in his duties. Of necessity, these instructions are general rather than specific; much must be left to the good judgment of the teacher, as in country schools in the United States; but even to a greater extent in the Philippines than here, because of the greater differences in local conditions.

It is true that communities differ in the support given to schools, but in nearly all divisions there has been a rapid and unexpected increase in attendance. In most of the districts with which I was familiar the demand for new and larger schools was so great as to make it difficult to supply teachers and materials fast enough. The regular attendance of small children, after the novelty of school life has worn off, must often be secured by the use of the municipal police acting as truant officers; but after the school habit is once formed, the attendance becomes regular, as is shown by the reports of the intermediate and provincial schools. How to secure the co-operation of a lax presidente, and, through him, of the police, in keeping the beginners in school, is indeed a perplexing problem. When other means failed, I found a tactful word or two spoken to the Filipino provincial governor to be effective.

The difficulty of obtaining school supplies which is sometimes experienced is due in part to the unprecedented demands due to the growth of the schools, in part to the difficulty of transportation over roads all but impassable, and at times to the fact that teachers fail to send in their requisitions in time.

The ignorance and lack of training of many of the native teachers is one of the inherent difficulties of the situation, but a temporary one that is being rapidly overcome by the native teachers themselves, with the sympathetic aid and instruction of the supervising teachers in the daily or weekly teachers' classes and in the yearly normal institutes. That many towns are too poor to pay promptly the small wages of the native teachers is, alas! true. These, also, have their difficulties.

Since in the Philippines American teachers' salaries continue during all regular vacations and they receive fifty-two weeks' pay for forty weeks' work, it does not seem unreasonable that time lost by sickness during term time should be charged against the annual summer vacation; and it would seem to be a very liberal provision that teachers who have lost time in this manner are given an opportunity to make it up, and thereby suffer no deduction whatever from salaries.

Whether it be that most American teachers are able to save more from their salaries in the Philippines than in this country, or that life and travel in the Orient are attractive, or that the needs of the little brown children are so great, or whether these reasons in combination are effective, it is true that most of my fellow-teachers believed that the compensations of school work in the islands were more than enough to offset the many difficulties, the long hours, and the restraints of the Civil Service regulations affecting promotion.

W. B. Freer.

Akron, Ohio.

[Mr. Freer was supervising teacher and division superintendent in the Philippine schools from August, 1901, to the last part of 1904. His last station (as division superintendent) was at Nueva Caceres, Ambos Camarines.—The Editors.

RAILROAD FIRES

Property-owners of Massachusetts have for years been suffering heavy losses through fires set by locomotive-engines. Beautiful pieces of woodland have been destroyed, and large tracts of land have been rendered practically valueless. The railroad companies are liable to the extent of the damage so inflicted, but, for reasons that are too well known to require repetition here, the laws governing the situation have practically become a dead letter. To secure relief, once for all, from what has developed into an intolerable invasion of property rights, a movement is on foot for the introduction of certain preventive bills this winter in the Massachusetts Legislature. Such of your readers as are interested in the matter will be furnished with further details upon application to the writer.

ALONZO ROTHSCHILD. East Foxboro, Massachusetts.



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Condition Jan. 1, 1906

ASSETS	LIABILITIES
Loans upon Real Estate, first lien, \$23,761	1,690.48 Amount required to reinsure
Bonds, at cost	1,124.34 all outstanding Policies, net,
Stocks, at cost 829	9,076.25 Company's standard, higher
Loans upon Stocks and Bonds 30	0,000.00 than that required by any State, \$58,841,368.00
Loans upon Policies of this	Liability on account of lapsed
Company 861	1,615.00 Policies not surrendered 156,911.00
Premium notes on Policies in	Policy Claims in process of Ad-
force	1,927.76 justment
Home Office property 1,916	6,236.00 Premiums paid in advance 37,772.59
Other Real Estate 8,422	2,540.90 Dividends credited and left with
Cash in Banks	7,466.06 the Company at interest 1,456,309.56
State of N. Y., Comptroller's	Real Estate contingent deprecia-
Certificates 24	4,442.69 tion account
Interest due and accrued 890	0,120.05
Rents due and accrued 22	2,263.82
Market value of Stocks and	
Bonds over cost 1,092	2,721.91
Net uncollected and deferred	
premiums	7,703.36 Surplus to Policy-holders 4,897,647.21
	8,928.62 Total Liabilities \$66,038,928.62

1905

THE YEAR'S BUSINESS SHOWS:-

An Increase in Cash Income,

An Increase in Assets,

An Increase in Surplus to Policy-Holders,

An Increase in Insurance Written,

An Increase in Insurance in Force.

Number of Policies in Force on paid for basis, 71,307, Insuring \$169,412,783.00.

SINCE ORGANIZATION

Received from policy-holders,	•	•	•	\$238,241,229.24
Paid to policy-holders, .	•	•	•	\$240,738,252.73
Excess returned over amount	receiv	ed,	•	\$2,497,023.49

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Saturday, February 17, 1906

CHINA IN TRANSITION

The Anti-Foreign Rioting in Shanghai

By GEORGE KENNAN

The first of a series of articles dealing with new conditions in China and the problems growing out of the Treaty of Portsmouth. In the preparation of these articles Mr. Kennan has spent several months in travel and study in China



grand opera artists now appearing in this country and abroad. Hitherto, Mr. Edison has refused to permit Edison Records to be made by Grand Opera singers, preferring to wait until he could so improve his methods of recording, that the voices of great artists could be reproduced with all their characteristic sweetness, power and purity of tone. These improvements having been effected; the artists co-operated with enthusiasm, with the result that the first ten Edison Grand Opera Records, made by our Gold Mould Process, are a distinct advance over anything of the kind heretofore attempted.

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 Sung in German. Orchestra accompaniment
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- By ANTONIO SCOTTI, Baritone
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 "La Sonnambula". . . . Bellini
 Sung in Italian. Orchestra accompaniment

- By SCARPHY RESKY, Soprano
 B. 6—ARIA, "SUICIDIO,"
 "La Gioconda" Ponchiell
 Sung in Italian. Orchestra accompaniment
- By ROMEO BERTI, Tenor
 B. 7—ARIOSO, "Pagliacci" ... Leoncavalla
 Sung in Italian. Orchestra accompaniment
- By SIGNOR and SIGNORA RESKY
 B. 8-DUET, "La Favorita" . . . Donizetti
 Sung in Italian. Orchestra accompaniment
- By ANTON VAN ROOY, Baritone
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 "Carmen" Bisel
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The Outlook

Volume 82

Saturday, February 17, 1906

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THE OUTLOOK is a Weekly Newspaper and an Illustrated Monthly Magazine in one. It is published every Saturday—fifty-two issues a year. The fourth issue in each month is an Illustrated Magazine Number, containing about twice as many pages as the regular weekly issue, and many pictures.				

PRICE.—The subscription price is Three Dollars a year, payable in advance. Ten cents a copy.

POSTAGE IS PREPAID by the publishers for all subscriptions in the United States, Hawaiian Islands, Philippine Islands, Guam, Porto Rico, Tutuila (Samoa), Shanghai, Canal Zone, Cuba, Canada, and Mexico. For all other countries in the Postal Union add \$1.56 for postage.

CHANGE OF ADDRESS.—When a change of address is ordered, both the new and the old address must be given. The notice should be sent one week before the change is to take effect.

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LETTERS should be addressed:

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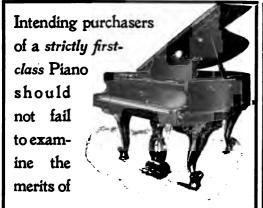
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The Outlook

SATURDAY, FEBRUARY 17, 1906

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Senator Patterson, of Col-Caucus Rule orado, has rendered a great service to the country by his challenge To his resolutions preto the caucus. sented in the United States Senate there appears to the Outlook absolutely no reply. The occasion for these resolutions was the Democratic caucus attempt to compel Democratic Senators to vote against the San Domingo treaty, whether they believed in it or not. Senator Patterson's resolution declares that for two-thirds of the Senators of any party to declare "that it shall be the duty of any Senator to vote upon any question other than as his own convictions impel him, is a plain violation of the manifest intent and spirit of the Constitution;" that its effect is "to disfranchise his State in the Senate, and to deprive it of the representation in that body the Constitution provides it shall have;" and that any Senator who permits his Senatorial action to be determined for him by such a caucus "votes not as a Senator from his own State, but as a Senator from the other States, and he augments the power of the other States beyond that permitted by the Constitution, and weakens and degrades the power of his own State in the Senate, in violation of the spirit of the Constitution." To say that Republicans have in fact, if not in form, done the same thing is no reply, because it is not true, and, if it were true, two wrongs do not make a right. To say that Senators are not compelled by such a caucus to vote against their convictions, but are only required to leave their party organization if they vote in accordance with their convictions, is to emphasize the argument against caucus rule, not to answer it. Senator Patterson has gone to the root of the whole matter. Party conferences for the purpose of mutual consultation are both right

and wise; but when the consultation has been held, the members who have attended it should be granted absolute freedom to vote according to the dictates of their own conscience and judgment, otherwise they cease to be the representatives of the constituency which elected them, and become the representatives of a body which is known neither to the Constitution nor to the laws.

9

The San Domingo
Treaty

It is quite possible that the action of the Democratic caucus

may defeat the San Domingo treaty in the Senate; but the defeat of the treaty will not necessarily end the present That arrangement, enarrangement. tered into by the President at the request of San Domingo and with the cordial approval of her European creditors, secures the payment of the just claims against her, preserves her honor, and prevents the foreign complications which would be almost certain to result if the foreign Governments were to attempt to secure their claims by taking possession of the custom-houses and collecting the money themselves. And San Domingo is getting out of the pro rata of customs receipts paid over to her by honest administrators, selected by the President, more income than she got out of all the receipts when she administered the customs herself. But it does not require a treaty to enable the President of the United States to act as an arbitrator. And if the treaty fails, it will still be possible for the President, at the request of the Domingan Government, to continue to nominate the collector of customs and to pay over to the foreign Governments the amounts prescribed by the Domingan Government as at present. The practical difficulty is that already the sum of a million

of dollars has been accumulated for the foreign creditors awaiting the action of the Senate. If the Senate rejects the treaty, this money would be legally subject to the order of the Domingan Government, and it is a little doubtful whether its politicians would possess the hardy honesty sufficient to pay it over to the creditors to whom it morally belongs.

•

The Railway Rate The Railway Rate Regulation Bill has Regulation Bill passed the House without amendment and with only seven votes against it, all of them Republican. It has now gone to the Senate, where more serious opposition may be expect-The indications are, however, that this opposition will not come from the great railways, which are inclined to assent to, if not to favor, reasonable provision for Government supervision and regulation, but from favored shippers who have been able even to coerce the railways, and from that not very intelligent conservatism which opposes anything which is new simply because it is new. It is certain, however, that important amendments will be suggested. Perhaps the two most important ones now under consideration are, first, one specifically providing that express companies shall be included, the other that some explicit provision for appeal to the courts from the decision of the Inter-State Commerce Commission shall be The first amendment appears to made. The Outlook needless. The bill explicitly provides that "the term 'transportation' shall include cars and other vehicles and all instrumentalities and facilities of shipment or carriage, irrespective of ownership or of any contract, express or implied, for the use thereof, and all services in connection with the receipt, delivery, elevation, and transfer in transit, ventilation, refrigeration or icing, storage, and handling of property transported." It would be difficult to construct phraseology more comprehensive, and the insertion anywhere in the bill of the phrase "express companies" might easily be taken by the courts to imply that other corporations engaged in transportation than express

companies were not included. Concerning the other amendment it is not so easy to reach a definite conclusion. The bill as framed contains no special provision for any appeal to the courts from a decision of the Commission fixing a rate as just and reasonable. It, however, in terms recognizes that the railways could, by injunction, delay the execution of such an order until the courts had passed upon it. How far the courts would go in such injunction proceedings in reviewing the discretion of the Commission we do not pretend to know. In general, they are very cautious about revising action whether by a legislative or an administrative body on the ground that the discretion of legislative or administrative boards has not been wisely exercised; but, unquestionably, injunction proceedings could be used, and in some instances might be used, to nullify the provision of the law that the order of the Commission shall go directly into effect. It has, therefore, been suggested in certain quarters that the bill itself provide for an appeal to the courts from the order of the Commission; that, as a condition precedent to such an appeal, the railway be required to pay into the court, week by week or month by month, in cash, the difference between the rate fixed by the Commission and the rate which it may be collecting from the shippers. The effect of this, it is believed, would be to make the railways slow to take such appeals and eager to press them to an early decision. On the other hand, any such amendment would have to be very carefully drawn, otherwise a specific provision for an appeal from the Commission to the courts might lead the courts to regard the Commission as a judicial body; and it is a well-settled fact that a judicial body cannot determine what is a just and reasonable rate to be applied in the future. It can only decide what is an unjust and unreasonable rate which must not be maintained. Journalists who are contending that an amendment providing for an appeal from the Commission to the courts is fatal to the bill. and cannot be accepted by the Administration without the abandoning of this well-known position, are not very well

informed. The earnest friends of the bill are divided in opinion respecting the advisability of such an amendment, and it is very evident that it would not be in the least inconsistent with the two fundamental principles which the Administration has urged from the first, that an administrative board shall have power to determine what is a just and reasonable rate, and that this determination shall go into effect at once without waiting for legal proceedings to be initiated and carried through either by the complainant himself or by the Commission on the petition of the complainant.

(4)

The General Pension The Nation's Bill for the current year Pension Bill passed the House of Representatives last week with little or no opposition. It appropriates a total sum of \$140,245,000. The cost of pensions to the taxpayers was brought out in a striking way by the report, which showed that while the actual cost of the Civil War was about \$6,000,000,000, it now seems probable that the expenditure for pensions will, before the last pensioner ceases to receive payment, equal that sum, thus making the total cost of the Civil War to the United States \$12,000,000,000, which would amount to three-fourths of the entire wealth of the country when the war broke out. As usual, the report contains some picturesque facts relating to our old wars, such as that there were on the pension rolls last June five names of persons receiving pensions on account of the War of the Revolution, which closed 123 years ago, and that 776 persons are still drawing pensions on account of the War of 1812, the last participant in which very recently died, while for the Mexican War there are 4.540 soldiers and 7.653 soldiers' widows receiving pensions. Arguing from the rate of longevity and marriage statistics shown by these facts and by the known facts about our Civil War pension list, Mr. Gardner, the Chairman of the Pension Committee, draws the conclusion that in 1924 there will still be 346,662 Civil War pensioners. Adding to this number the

132,414 pensioners who, under the same ratio, will in 1924 be drawing pensions on account of the war with Spain, it is estimated that twenty years from now, assuming that we have no wars in that time, the United States will have nearly, if not quite, half a million pensioners on its roll. The generosity of the American people in this direction has been unexampled, and has been aided by a carelessness which is not as commendable as the generosity; there can be no doubt that public sentiment is in favor of a liberal policy in regard to pensions, but it is no less certain that with this liberality should be joined the closest inspection of all claims and careful restrictions to make fraud or error impossible in passing upon applications. passing of 429 private pension bills by the House one day last week in seventytwo minutes does not seem on the face of it reassuring as to the care taken. One of the provisions of the new bill makes into statute law the Order No. 78 of the President, declaring age conclusive evidence of disability.

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The testimony given before The Panama the Senate Committee on Investigation Interoceanic Canals last week by the former chief engineer, Mr. John F. Wallace, did not include any definite charges against the management of affairs at Panama. It is true that Mr. Wallace asserted in general terms that in his opinion Mr. W. N. Cromwell was allowed to exercise too large an influence in Isthmian matters, and that while chief engineer he had feared that, as "all the interests in Panama look upon Cromwell as their friend," he might have his mind perverted and "some time might give the wrong advice, and the result would be a scandal." This hypothetical feeling of distrust against Mr. Cromwell as an expert unofficial adviser was supported, so far as we can find, by only one direct statement of fact, namely, the assertion that the Panama Railroad Company through its board of directors had declared a dividend of more than \$100,000 in excess of what the road had earned, and had afterward sold bonds for money with which to repair its ships

and rolling stock. The total result of Mr. Wallace's testimony was slight in itself and was lessened by his natural bias against the Administration growing out of Secretary Taft's public rebuke of Mr. Wallace's conduct in resigning his position as chief engineer. This action Mr. Wallace now, after an interval of many months, undertakes to explain and defend on quite different grounds from those he put forward at the time. His belated excuse is that he found that he was to have less power than he had supposed, his distrust of Mr. Cromwell, and his fear that friction between himself and Mr. Shonts was inevitable. He meant to tell all this to Secretary Taft, he says, but "when I found myself confronted with both Secretary Taft and Mr. Cromwell," he continued, "I contented myself with giving as a reason for resigning the larger compensation I hoped to secure in another employment. [It does not appear that such employment has been obtained.] I did so because I assumed that that reason_would be accepted as sufficient for the time being and avoid the discussion of other reasons in the presence of Mr. Cromwell." We give this explanation, as The Outlook stated the other side of the matter rather fully; but in general a second thought is not accepted as best when it is offered as a substitute for an excuse which failed when it was offered as a first thought. So far the Senate Committee has not heard any evidence tending in the least to substantiate the reckless assertions of extravagance and mismanagement made here and there by irresponsible writers.

(A)

In their speeches at a Rapid Transit dinner of the City Club in New York of New York last week, Mr. George L. Rives, counsel for the Rapid Transit Board of the city, and Mr. Charles Stewart Smith, a member of the Board, agreed that the bill now before the State Legislature greatly restricting the powers of the Board would make it impossible to get any one to build another subway. Their warning should not be ignored. In the attempt to limit the power of corporations there is danger of too greatly hampering the freedom of the city's agents. The law ought, of course, to set some bounds to the authority of a Rapid Transit Commission; it ought, for instance, to prohibit any such commission from granting a franchise in perpetuity; no administrative board, indeed, ought to be allowed the power to extend a franchise much beyond a generation. To some degree the Legislature ought to protect the city against the possibility of being helplessly defrauded by the action of a commission which may happen for the time being to be dishonest or unwise. But any protection beyond that is really not protection, but injury. The Rapid Transit Board, for example, ought to be allowed to make a contract with one party for the construction of a subway, and with another for its operation. Mr. Rives may be right in declaring that the builder of a rapid transit road ought to be its operator, for then it will be in the builder's interest to construct the road honestly and speedily; but that is a matter, not for the Legislature, but for the administrative board to The Rapid Transit Board, in other words, ought to be allowed the option of deciding whether, under certain circumstances, separate contracts for construction and operation might not be preferable to an exorbitant contract for joint construction and operation. It is highly significant that in all this discussion of rapid transit in New York City the principle of municipal ownership seems to be taken for granted. Mr. Rives said, emphatically: "It has been settled that no more rapid transit roads are to be owned by private persons." In the face of this fact, it still seems necessary to keep repeating that municipal ownership is distinct from municipal operation. The city of New York, for example, owns its subway, but does not own its elevated roads; yet practically the same company operates both. lic opinion in New York is very much alive on this subject. The attempt of a corporation to build a tunnel beneath the East River under a franchise of doubtful validity has been smartly challenged. A bill to make the franchise valid under the guise of a general law

has been unmasked. The building of more subways is a matter of pressing necessity; but it evidently will not be, and ought not to be, undertaken inconsiderately.

Senator Raines has Women Taxpavers introduced in the New and the Suffrage York Senate an act to give the suffrage to women who are taxpayers at special tax elections in cities of the third class. It can hardly be necessary to say to our readers that the object of this bill is not to secure property rights to a class of property-owners, but to take one step toward general woman suffrage. It is an entering wedge with a specious appearance, and would hardly require mention except for the fact that, introduced by Senator Raines, it may secure some Republican support which otherwise would not be accorded There is no conceivable reason why women should be allowed to vote in cities of the third class and refused a vote elsewhere in the State. There is no reason creditable to women why a vote should be given them when they are taxpayers and given men who are not taxpayers. Woman's suffrage may be promoted, possibly, by veiled methods of this kind, but the question of woman's suffrage can properly be considered only on broad grounds, and by answering such general questions as: Is suffrage a National right or a special duty? Does property vote or do persons vote? Is the family or the individual the unit of the State? Is suffrage a privilege which the masculine class are denying to women, or is it a burden and responsibility like militia duty, from which they in the past have been exempt, and from which the vast majority desire to be exempt in the future? The readers of The Outlook need not be told what answers The Outlook makes to those questions.

A joint committee Insurance Department of the Pennsylvania Legislature has just completed an investigation of the State Department of Insurance. The subject was brought to the attention of the Legislature by Governor Pennypacker in his

call for a special session. He has been from the beginning of his term opposed to the system by which certain State officials receive their compensation in the form of fees and not as regular salaries. In the discussion of a bill to give the Commissioner of Insurance a fixed salary in place of the smaller salary and certain specified fees, as had formerly been the custom, conditions were disclosed which led to the appointment of the investigating committee. The gravest abuse which the inquiry covered was in the case of the office of Actuary. In 1873 a statute provided that the Actuary should receive a fee of three cents per one thousand dollars for each life insurance policy issued; in 1885 this fee was reduced to two cents. Mr. Robert E. Forster testified that he was appointed Actuary in 1891 and that he had performed the work of this office since that In the years from 1891 to 1894. under Commissioner Luper, he had divided the fees with the Commissioner. although they were properly a perquisite of the office of Actuary. In the next five years, under James H. Lambert, fifty per cent. of the Actuary's compensation went to the Commissioner, twenty per cent. to his son-in-law, who was employed as assistant Actuary, and thirty per cent. was retained by Mr. Forster. In 1899, upon the accession of Israel W. Durham to the office of Insurance Commissioner, he appointed as Actuary J. Clayton Erb, who has been his private secretary for many years. The statement was made by the Committee that "this appointment was made, not for any personal fitness on the part of J. Clayton Erb for the position, for he was not then and is not now such an Actuary by profession as is contemplated by the act of Assembly in this case, but for the purpose only of allowing him to receive the compensation of that position." Mr. Erb retained Mr. Forster on a salary to do the actual work of the Actuary's office. Mr. Erb's testimony showed that he received during the past ten years over \$140,000 as compensation for the work of the Actuary, and an additional sum of over \$15,000 for examination of insurance companies alleged to have been made by him. His

testimony also showed that he was entirely ignorant of the methods and principles involved in actuarial work, and that the services for which he received compensation were almost entirely performed by others. The report of the committee disclosed further that under Commissioner Durham's administration a number of officials regularly drew compensation from the department without rendering any tangible service, that there was no supervision of the Commissioner's accounts and no check on his power to draw on the State Treasurer for the expenses of his office. The committee recommended that the Insurance Commissioner and all other officers and employees in the service of the State should be on a salaried basis, and that instead of examiners of insurance companies being selected promiscuously and paid by the companies examined, as many examiners as may be necessary should be salaried officials of the State, and the cost should be upon a fixed rate proportionate to the work done, and this cost paid into the State Treasury for the use of the State. The committee recommended to the attention of the Governor and the Attorney-General the testimony which may tend to establish malfeasance of former Commissioners Luper, Lambert, and Durham, and their subordinates, so far as it relates to receiving a part of the Actuary's compensation during their respective administrations, and also the testimony that during Durham's administration the State was defrauded by vouchers being granted and payment made for services which had never been rendered or for which there was no legal liability.

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Roman Catholic Church Property in France Despite the good example set by the head of the Roman Catholic Churchin France, Car-

dinal Richard, Archbishop of Paris, there have been many disturbances during the last fortnight in Paris and the provinces between the Roman Catholics and the Government authorities. By the new law which went into effect last December, Roman Catholic Church property acquired since 1801 remains in possession

of that Church; property acquired before 1801 reverts to the State. This, however, the State may lease or sell to local religious associations, which, like secular associations, must be formed under Government regulations and submit to Government supervision. In this process the Government's initial step is to find out by an inventory just what property, real and personal, is affected. Such an inventory is to be made in company and in negotiation with the legal representatives of the local religious establishments or churches in question. Accordingly, acting on instructions from the Archbishop of Paris, when the Government representatives appeared at the Cathedral of Notre-Dame, an arch-priest met them at the door and courteously conducted them throughout the great church, facilitating their work at every step, and thereby adding immensely to the dignity of both Church and State. This action discouraged a different procedure in many of the other Roman Catholic churches in which inventories were made, the authorities of which had expected a bolder example from Cardinal Richard and his clergy. But at the Madeleine, the most prominent church in Paris after the Cathedral, Abbé Chesnelong read a protest; there was a similar protest at the well-known Church of St. Roch, accompanied by considerable violence; while at the Church of St. Pierre-du-Gros-Caillou the violence was so great that about fifty persons were injured and as many arrested. When the Government agents arrived at St. Pierre its bells were mournfully tolled. and the people inside, about three thousand in number, who had locked and barred the church, began singing psalms, while outside a rough element shouted revolutionary songs. The Prefect of Police arrived and thrice vainly summoned the congregation to open the Firemen were then ordered to force an entrance, using their hatchets. When they attempted to break the windows, revolver shots rang out. The firemen retired, but quickly scrambled up on the roof with a hose, and flooded the interior of the church. Meanwhile the doors had been battered down, but from improvised barricades within the defenders used red pepper with which they

blinded a number of the police and firemen before the Government authorities gained entrance. Similar scenes occurred at the Church of Ste. Clotilde. The resistance here as elsewhere was mostly the work of the ignorant, who, even despite remonstrances from some more liberally inclined priests, were firmly determined to oppose a supposed spoliation of the churches, which contain millions of dollars' worth of ecclesiastical treasures and thank-offerings from the faithful. The people were specially inflamed, however, by the rumor that the Government authorities were about to commit sacrilegious actions at the altar in connection with the ciboria, or tabernacles, where is kept the host-which Roman Catholics believe to be miraculously transformed into the body of our French events are peculiarly picturesque; of the twenty-two hundred church inventories already made, however, very many gratifyingly lack what the French call "incident."

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Mr. Chamberlain and Mr. Balfour

Last week, in a letter to the Chairman of the British

Tariff Reform League, Mr. Chamberlain issued a declaration to the Conservative-Unionist party. He reiterated his determination not to be a candidate for the party leadership, first, because, after working in friendship with ex-Premier Balfour for twenty years, he does not intend to place himself in competition with that leader; and, second, because he holds that the leader of an amalgamated party seven-tenths of whose members are Conservatives ought himself to be a Conservative. The situation, as Mr. Chamberlain justly says, is not a question of leaders, but solely of what the future policy of the party will be. Mr. Chamberlain then states his attitude with respect to the party organization in case Mr. Balfour should continue as leader without adopting Mr. Chamberlain's distinguishing tenet, the desirability of a general import duty, in favor of which the ex-Premier has never yet Whatever protectionism Mr. spoken. Balfour may include under his general political belief may be found in his plea

for the power to retaliate, in case England is treated unfairly as to tariff duties by some foreign country. While the great majority of tariff reformers in the House of Commons are ready to accept Mr. Balfour's general leadership, says Mr. Chamberlain, that majority would welcome a declaration by the ex-Premier showing that tariff reform is not to be abandoned by the party, and, if possible, indicating a definite and unmistakable programme for the future which all tariff reformers could support. If, however, most Conservative-Unionists should favor abandoning tariff reform, or should turn out to be Unionist "Free Fooders" (being practically at one with the Liberal Government in offering unconditional opposition to any and every change in fiscal policy), then the tariff reformers would have to reconsider their position. But, declares Mr. Chamberlain,

After giving the matter full consideration, it does not appear to me that it will be necessary or wise for tariff reformers to separate themselves from the party as a whole or from its general leadership.

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Mr. Chamberlain's Views and Motives

If Mr. Balfour retains that "general leadership," however, he

must be prepared to take charge, not only of one, but of two distinct groups. Mr. Chamberlain announces that tariff reformers may now properly constitute themselves a separate Parliamentary group, acting independently on tariff questions, taking care that their views are fully represented at by-elections, and watching for opportunities to advance the cause to which they are attached. Mr. Chamberlain believes that many such opportunities will arise. He does not mention what they are, but his opponents will understand them to be the chances to intrigue and bargain with the Irish and Laborite groups to overthrow the Liberals. Indeed, Mr. Chamberlain has begun an open flirtation with the Laborites, and has made the somewhat disquieting statement that the Irish are of necessity protectionists. Finally, in his manifesto, after strongly urging the reformation of the party machinery, Mr. Chamberlain insists that there shall be a convention of the party (doubtless

expecting that the tariff reformers would preponderate there), and thus warns weak-kneed brethren who might feel inclined to put aside protection because of the overwhelming verdict against it at the polls during these recent weeks:

Tariff reformers sincerely believe in their principles, and cannot be expected to put them aside to suit the exigencies of party wire-pullers. . . . They [tariff reformers] are ready to work with their Unionist colleagues for a common object, but they cannot accept a policy of inaction and mystification with regard to the main object of their political life.

Of course Mr. Chamberlain is clever enough to see that the Opposition is not yet ready for his own official leadership, despite such daily protests in the English press as the following:

The real leader, the real inspirer of a party should be the nominal leader also. Why, in the name of common sense, should Mr. Balfour be called the leader of a party whose policy was neither initiated, nor inspired, nor effectually promoted by himself? At this moment we surely want a fighting man to lead us, a man alive with passionate purpose and with the fire of strong belief. We have that man in Mr. Chamberlain.

But Mr. Chamberlain still wishes to assure to his part of the Opposition whatever benefits may still accrue from the leadership of one who perhaps did not "initiate" certain policies, but who did "inspire and effectually promote" them, despite the profound differences in temperament and methods which distinguish him from the average Englishman. If Mr. Chamberlain still offers a lengthened lease of political life to Mr. Balfour, however, it is with a threat—the indication that protectionists will now constitute an independent group. He thus accentuates rather than lessens the party tension, especially when it is considered that the manifesto may be regarded as an attempt to capture the party machinery. He would have Mr. Balfour understand, we think, that the choice lies between Chamberlainism and political annihilation.

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The Canadian
Tariff Commission
Tariff Commission

The Canadian Tariff
Commission has now completed its stupendous task of traveling all over the Dominion to ascertain local opinion with

regard to the new tariff. It began work on the 3d of September, 1905, and was continuously on the go from that time until the beginning of February, when it concluded its work in the Maritime Provinces by a two days' session at Halifax. It has traveled over fifteen thousand miles, held sessions in fiftyodd towns and cities, and for the most part of the time the three Commissioners-Mr. W. S. Fielding, Minister of Finance, Mr. W. Paterson, Minister of Customs, and Mr. L. P. Brodeur-and Mr. John Bain, Deputy Minister of Customs and Secretary to the Commission, have lived in a railroad car. The outstanding features of the work of the Commission in eastern Canada, as shown by reports from a special correspondent of The Outlook who accompanied the Commission on its travels, are easily summarized. The trade relations of eastern Canada with the United States are closer in the Maritime Provinces than they are in Ontario-much closer than the ordinary reader of American and Canadian newspapers would imagine; and in Quebec and New Brunswick there was much soreness over the Dingley Act of 1897, and the mode in which the Act is administered by United States custom-house officers and appraisers. Quebec farmers complained much of the high duties in the American tariff aimed at the exclusion of Canadian hay, but they did not urge retaliation. On the contrary, the farmers who appeared at St. Hyacinthe insisted that retaliation could only have the effect of making conditions worse for them; for if Canada adopted retaliatory tactics they were sure that the United States would retaliate also, and with any further increases in the duties on agricultural products the farmers of Quebec would be completely deprived of the small market they now enjoy in the United States. The most insistent and vehement demands for retaliatory measures were put forward at Newcastle, Fredericton, and St. John, New Brunswick. At Newcastle there were serious complaints of the high-handed action of the American custom-house officials in revaluing consignments of fish, and of the impossibility of ever securing any repayment of duties from Washington

when proof was forthcoming that these revaluations worked injustice to Canadian exporters. Dingley rates, and plenty of them, were pressed on the Commission at St. John—more strongly than at any other place visited by the Commission except Montreal and Toronto, when members of the Canadian Manufacturers' Association put in their pleas for duties on American manufactures as high as those imposed in the American tariff on Canadian manufactures. But at St. John, as at Montreal and Toronto. the Commissioners would give no countenance either to Dingley rates or to retaliation.

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Quebec and New Bruns-Two Proposals wick developed two proposals of serious import to the United One of these proposals was States. that the Dominion Government should impose prohibitive export duties on pulpwood, and thus prevent scores of mills in the United States making news printing paper from obtaining their supplies of raw material. The paper manufacturers at Three Rivers put in this plea, as they desire to offset the competition of American mills for the news printing paper business in England and Australia. Ontario now imposes conditions in Crown leases of timber-limits which prevent pulp-wood from being shipped to the United States; but only legislation by the Dominion Parliament can set up export duties applicable to all the Provinces, and to all the wood-pulp lands whether leased from the Crown or held as freehold by the owners. The second proposition was made at the city of Quebec and vigorously supported at St. John and Halifax. It was that the British Preference—that is, the reduction in duties—shall be denied to all imports from Great Britain which are not landed at Canadian ports. Imports to the value of nearly twenty-five millions of dollars now reach Canada via Portland, Boston, New York, and Philadelphia, and a change in the law such as the Maritime Province ports are demanding would mean the loss of this transport business to American ports and American rail-The Commissioners were extremely noncommittal when this propo-

sition was submitted, but the nature of the movement behind the proposal makes it certain that before the new tariff finally takes shape much pressure will be exercised to divert this large volume of transport business to Canadian ports and Canadian railways. The only opposition comes from Toronto, London, and Winnipeg; but there is some apprehension that if this business were diverted from American ports and American railways by Parliamentary enactment there might be trouble with the United States over the bonding privilege, which is of much value to both American and Canadian railways. At Ouebec and at Fredericton, as at the sessions in Toronto in November, there was a strong and persistent movement against the circulation of American magazines in Canada. It is estimated that the annual circulation of these magazines reaches five millions; and their exclusion is asked because they carry so much advertising, and directly and indirectly increase the sale of American goods in Canada. The shoe manufacturers of Three Rivers, Quebec, and Fredericton made the strongest push for the exclusion of these American advertisements: and the same interests also strongly complained of the monopoly conditions which the American Shoe Machinery Trust, as they describe it, imposes in its leases for machinery used in Canadian shoe factories. St. John, as at Montreal in October, there were vehement complaints of the tyranny of the American Steel Trust. One allegation made at St. John was that the trust had threatened to close all the wire nail factories in Canada unless the Canadians engaged in this industry would agree to buy all their wire rods from the trust at prices much in advance of those at which wire rods can be imported from England or Germany. The British Preference established in 1897 was warmly commended by the French-Canadian farmers and by representatives of the farmers of Prince Edward Island when the Commission was at Charlottetown. But the manufacturers of eastern Canada hammered at the Preference quite as vigorously as the manufacturers at Montreal and Toronto, and, like them, asked for higher protection against imports from both the United States and Great Britain. On this eastern Canada tour there was only one commendation of Mr. Chamberlain's scheme for interweaving the fiscal systems of Great Britain and Canada so that there may be mutual preferences.

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Electoral Injustice in Germany

The remarkable series of Socialist meetings recently held in Berlin

has called attention to electoral injustices in Germany in general and in Prussia in particular. Germany's legislature, the Reichstag, has, as a principle for distribution of seats, the basis of local populations throughout the Empire four decades ago, and the result is that the present representation of parties bears no relation to their numerical strength. This is specially noted in the most populous division of the capital, which, with over half a million voters, returns one member; so does the crowded suburb of Charlottenburg, with its outlying towns, all now practically a part of Berlin. Unjust as this is on a basis of mere population, it is doubly so when it is remembered that most of this population is radically inclined, and represents what is known in Germany as the Social Democracy. Taking the broad question as it affects the whole Empire, the Socialists, now polling three million votes, have but eighty-one members in the Reichstag, while the Conservatives, with less than a million votes, have fifty-five seats, and the so-called Center party, composed of Roman Catholics, with only 1,750,000 votes, holds a hundred seats. In the Kingdom of Prussia, however, by far the largest, richest, and most influential division of Germany, the condition is still more unjust. Among the 433 members of the Prussian Landtag there is not a single Social Democrat, and yet Berlin, the capital of Prussia, as it is of Germany, is the headquarters of the Social Democ-The Prussian Landtag is divided into two chambers, the Abgeordnetenhaus, or House of Deputies, and the Herrenhaus, or House of Lords. Every Prussian who has attained his twentyfifth year and is qualified to vote for the municipal elections of his place of domicile is eligible to vote as an indirect elector. One direct elector is elected from every 250 souls. These indirect electors are divided into three classes, according to the respective amount of direct taxes paid by each, arranged in such manner that each category pays one-third of the amount of direct taxes levied on the whole. The first category includes all electors who pay the highest taxes, to the amount of one-third of the whole; the second, those who pay the next highest amount down to the limits of the second third; the third, the lowest taxed, who together complete the last class. The practical result of such a system is that a few wealthy voters may constitute the first class and may designate as many electors as would be chosen by thousands of workmen who form the third class. Under such conditions it is easy to explain the protests that have been heard in Berlin at the nearly hundred meetings held there.

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The Land Question in Russia

Last week a delegation of Russian muzhiks, or peas-

ants, went to St. Petersburg to gain the Emperor's personal assurance that the land question in Russia would not be settled by the present Government, but by the Duma, or Parliament. The delegation was received in audience by the Prime Minister, who pointed out, as reported, that the agrarian problem could not be solved by a division of the State lands alone (amounting only to sixteen million acres, much of which is forest land), but that the muzhiks must be prepared to buy private lands on the easy installment plan provided by the Imperial manifesto of November last. Count Witte, however, had already received information, according to report, from forty-five Governors-General, regarding the causes of the recent agrarian disorders. Twenty-seven of these officials attributed them to the revolutionist propaganda in general, but eighteen declared them to be almost wholly due to the scarcity of land. There was some threat, therefore, in the answer to the Premier by the spokesman of the

delegation that the peasants were determined to get land purely as a gift from. the Government. The muzhiks constitute four-fifths of Russia's population. They have submitted for a number of years to an economic condition which has increasingly impoverished them. They are not so unfit to face a political crisis as is supposed, because for centuries they have been accustomed to local economy in their mirs or village communes. Their definite entrance upon the field of action is perhaps, next to army disaffection, the most serious feature of the present situa-It is, moreover, closely allied to army disaffection, as most of the Russian soldiers come from peasant families. The soldiers in Russia proper have been kept in remarkably good discipline of late; not so those in Siberia. At Vladivostok there has been a bloody mutiny both of artillery and of marine reserves men thoroughly undisciplined, who have been clamoring for immediate transportation home. This mutiny, and also another at Chita, has now been quelled, but the Russian army has lost in prestige by the outbreaks.

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Religion and Education in China

During the past week some disquieting events

happened in China regarding foreign relations with religion and education there. At a point across the river from Canton, and within a few yards of American gunboats, the Rev. Dr. Beattie, an American missionary, was attacked, how seriously is not known. At Changpu, a place perhaps thirty miles southwest of Amoy, the Roman Catholic and English Presbyterian buildings, valued at fifty thousand dollars, were destroyed by rioters. Amoy and Changpu are in the province of Fukien, one of the provinces of which Tuan-Fang, one of the Imperial Chinese Commissioners now in this country, is Viceroy. As to Protestant propaganda, Fukien is covered by the co-operation of the independent London Mission, the English Presbyterian Church Mission, and that of the American Board of the Reformed Church, the territory being apportioned in such manner as to avoid waste of

missionary effort. In view of the general anti-foreign feeling, and in particular of the boycott of American goods, which extends in special severity south from Shanghai to Canton and west to Hankau, these events have called forth considerable apprehension, now somewhat allayed by the news that the American Mission at Changpu was uninjured: this might indicate that the disturbance there was local in character. In an interview last week Dr. Hoare, the English Bishop at Hongkong, declared, as reported, that the outlook seemed more serious, in South China at least, than before the Boxer rising. We can hardly believe that this is true. Turning to North China, we have to chronicle another event of significance in the summary dismissal last week by Yuan-Shi-Kai, Viceroy of the metropolitan province of Chili (and probably the most influential man in the Empire), of Professor Tenney, an American educator of note. seems surprising that an official who for the past five years has been distinctly pro-foreign in his policy should now apparently reverse it. It shows how strong the tide of public opinion in China is when even the supposedly allpowerful Yuan-Shi-Kai cannot stem it.

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As expressed by various Chinese manifestoes recently issued Restrictions by local officials throughout the Empire, anti-foreign and especially anti-American feeling would seem to have increased. Some of these manifestoes declare that the boycott, if rigidly enforced, would drive Americans to forego any exclusion of the Chinese. While Mr. Rockhill, our Minister at Peking, has pointed out the falsity of this view, he has endeavored to check the growing anti-American feeling. The effect of the various local manifestoes has now been emphasized by an Imperial edict commanding the Viceroys to submit reports regarding the number and nationality of the missionaries in all the provinces, also by the Government's promulgation of regulations for the administration of the recently opened port of Chinan, regulations to be enforced in all the new settlements, including, of course, those

They provide that no in Manchuria. lands may be purchased by foreigners, that the leases of lands to foreign tenants shall be restricted to thirty years, that the rentals shall be fixed by the Government, that it shall supervise the general policy of the settlements, levy the taxes, and control the postal and telegraph systems and the public works. Thus, in the future, new foreign settlements will differ in status from the old treaty ports which were practically foreign territory. growing spirit of normal nationalism in China is, we believe, to be welcomed, not deprecated, by the Powers, but when it is accompanied by rioting, arson, murder, and other offenses against law and order, it may call for international intervention, if national control be not sufficient. Informal representations regarding the Chinese situation have already been exchanged among some of the European Powers. Thus far, however, the American Government has not unnaturally been loth to consult foreign nations regarding the subject, because of the general feeling among them that we have unfairly discriminated against the Chinese. We are in danger of paying dear for that unjust and un-American discrimination.

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The Chinese Exclusion
Act
Whatever part the drastic application of the Exclu-

sion Act may have had to do with the anti-foreign events in China last week will, we trust, be lessened by the action now taken by Secretary Metcalf, of the Department of Commerce and Labor, in approving the report, just completed, providing for a radical revision of the regulations under which Chinese may enter and live in the United States. This report was drafted by Assistant Secretary Murray, Solicitor Sims, and Mr. Richard Campbell, of the Bureau of Immigration; it touches, by way of either excision or amendment, twentyfour of the existing regulations. the changes are made in the direction of liberality. Certain alterations are made promising to avoid delay in landing Chinese who apply for admission, and others have been made with a view to

avoid the appearance of any action that would seem offensive, provided that the object intended could be accomplished otherwise. One of the most offensive of the practices which have been abolished is the use of the Bertillon system of identification, which subjects respectable Chinese to the humiliation of being treated like criminal suspects. Another alteration is a requirement that the administrative officers should advise the Chinese, either laborers or of the exempted class, before their departure from America for China, of the conditions on which they would be admitted on their return here; certainly no Chinese should be allowed to depart from America under a mistaken impression that he will be readmitted as a matter of course. A desirable provision has also been made for notification of the Chinese to whom admission at the ports of entry has been denied of their right to appeal from this denial to the Secretary of Commerce. Finally, precaution must be taken, according to the regulations, to inform the Chinese consul, if there is such an officer at the port of entry, of the adverse action of the officers at such port in the case of any Chinese person, so that the consular officer may have the opportunity, should he deem such a course necessary, to employ counsel, or otherwise interest himself in behalf of his countryman. These provisions are all very well, but, in our opinion, they do not go far enough. Immediate attention may well be given to the desire of the Chinese that the American Government should accept as final a certificate issued by our own consuls and agents in China, unless there is conclusive proof that it is fraudulent. In this connection it is a fortunate thing for our Government that the character of our consular service in China has recently been improved.

Professor Harnack In addition to his duties as Professor of Ecclesiastical History at the University of Berlin, Dr. Adolf Harnack has for some months been Director of the Royal Library. A report has recently become current that Professor Harnack's new distinction involved a forthcoming aban-

donment of his professorship. From a personal letter just at hand it gives us pleasure to announce that this is not the case. Dr. Harnack writes: "I have not given up my professorship, but am continuing it to the full extent of my work as a teacher. That professorship is, as ever, my chief duty and office. The general direction of the great library I regard as an office very subsidiary to the duties which I have hitherto discharged." Replying to other rumors, Professor Harnack says: "My lectureroom is not becoming more and more empty, but more crowded. Students who are under the influence of the religiohistorical method will never forsake my lecture-room, since I have always followed this method. My 'Lehrbuch der Dogmengeschichte' shows that I have always highly prized the influence of the Greek spirit and of Greek institutions on the Church. Twenty years ago I pointed out that dogma was a work of the Greek spirit built upon the foundation of the Gospels. While I admit that in these last years the so-called religiohistorical method has become somewhat over-audacious, which I deem unjustified, the method itself is right. The silly rumors have been circulated by my orthodox opponents. . . . Never will I forsake a field of work in which for thirty-two years I have labored, and which is now in full fruition." Many have benefited by the reading of Professor Harnack's great "History of Dogma," or by his latest book, "Das Wesen des Christenthums." translated under the title "What is Christianity?" Many, too, have been listeners in Dr. Harnack's crowded lecture-room, and have come under the spell of his stimulating pres-The overwhelming majority of all these will, we believe, read with gratitude that the rumors concerning Dr. Harnack's retirement from his professorship are entirely untrue.

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The Ethical Revival has not abolished football. The vote of the Overseers, which was at first interpreted as an enactment against the game as an intercollegiate sport, was only a

request proffered to the University's athletic committee. The Overseers, who compose that branch of the governing body that is elected by the alumni, claim no jurisdiction in the matter. The fact remains, however, that the Overseers had not even protested against athletic abuses until they became insupportable. Harvard faculty has now joined the Overseers in protest against the present game of football. They have expressed the opinion that it ought to be discontinued as an intercollegiate contest until it is satisfactorily reformed. This action but adds to the evidence that university authorities have in the past been delinquent in guiding the ethical ideals of the student body. Among such authorities, however, President Eliot, of Harvard, has been a distinguished exception. His very severe criticism of football in his recently issued annual report has been greeted as an unusual production. In fact, it is but the repetition of an opinion that he has many times officially and unofficially expressed. One does not need to agree with him to recognize the high sense of responsibility with which he has for years discussed the social ethics of undergraduate life. He declares that football cultivates unnecessary danger, violations of rules, underhand methods, unfairness, deliberate brutality in the players, brutalizing passions in the spectators, and wrong standards of courage. For this reason he regards it as "wholly unfit for colleges and schools." He sees its evils descending to the secondary schools and there "working great moral mischief." He concludes that it is "childish to suppose that the athletic authorities which have permitted football to become a brutal, cheating, demoralizing game can be trusted to reform it." it childish to hope that the university authorities which have tacitly acquiesced in the degradation of intercollegiate athletics will become stimulated by such leaders as President Eliot and by public opinion to make not only the standards of scholarship but also the standards of athletic conduct a matter of their concern? In the meantime the new Rules Committee have been formulating new regulations for the game. In the West the resolutions of the conference on football held by the nine universities athletically most prominent have been under consideration by the various institutions. The University of Michigan has found itself hampered in dealing with the question of professional coaches by the existence of a contract with the present football coach. Some of the resolutions have been ratified: others are awaiting action The present turmoil about football is the promise of a keener moral sense in academic circles concerning sportsmanship—which simply moral conduct applied to athletic • contests.

In the three months' Sunday Afternoons at Union Seminary

course of sermons now being given on Sunday afternoons at the Union Seminary Chapel on "The Christian Doctrine of Faith," Professor Mitchell, of Boston University, recently spoke on "Faith and Biblical Criticism." That some good people accuse Biblical criticism of being dangerous to Christian faith he attributed to their misunderstanding both of the nature of faith and the results of criticism. The Bible, said he, represents faith as the receptive attitude toward God of a soul prepared to experience the grace of God, and as the prerequisite and condition of a godly life. Of the development of faith, thus understood, the Bible is a record. The traditional belief about the Bible is in no sense faith, and the results of its scientific revision are eminently conducive to the faith which is a joyous confidence in These points were illustrated from God. the Old Testament at length and strikingly, in showing that the traditional belief exhibited revelation not only as discontinuous, but at times even contradictory and regressive. On the other hand, the Biblical criticism conducted by Christian scholars had demonstrated. first, an unbroken continuity of revelation, and, next, its continuous progress. The false issues that had been raised between faith and reason, and again between faith and science, are now raised, said Professor Mitchell, between faith and the criticism whose candid study of the Bible serves to confirm with

fresh proofs the ancient faith in the living God, ever raising up his prophets and interpreters to meet the crises of faith amid emergencies. Professor Mitchell's discourse, while not alluding to his recent experience, inevitably deepened the surprise caused by the refusal of the Bishops, on the ground of alleged dangerous tendencies in his teaching, to approve his re-election to his chair. It is now stated that the President of Boston University recommends that election to professorships be no longer conditioned on the Bishops' approval. Similar action in similar circumstances was taken some years since by Union Theological Seminary, in canceling the agreement which conditioned the election of professors on approval by the General Assembly. On the following Sunday Professor Palmer, of Harvard, took up another timely subject of present interest, "Faith and Ethics." In an address of uncommon beauty and simplicity, given without manuscript, he exhibited the difference and also the practical identity of religion and morality-morality as effort for the realization of the highest righteousness, personal and social, religion as the attitude of love and reverence toward the righteousness of the Most High. Their difference is that morality is volitional, in the will to fulfill all duty, while religion is affectional, supplying to the will the incentive of a supreme desire. But they are identical in direction to the same end. While all teachers of religion have not yet risen to this view, it is the Biblical view, in which religion and morality are represented as fused together in a common aspiration. By this and other series of public addresses the Seminary is effectively stimulating religious thoughtfulness in the community.

The acquisition by the The Bancroft University of California of the H. H. Bancroft Library collection of historical books and documents of various kinds is an event of importance to that institution and of interest to the whole country. The one hundred and fifty thousand dollars paid for the library is a very moderate sum in comparison to its value, for, from various

points of view, the collection of Far Western Americana which represents the life-work of Mr. Bancroft is invaluable. There does not exist anywhere such an accumulation of historical material of high importance relating to the Pacific slope from Alaska to the Central American States, to the Rocky Mountain district, to Louisiana under Spanish dominion, and to most of the islands of the West Indies. The extent and authority of the material included in this library give it the first position in its own field, and rank it with the foremost collections of Americana. The manuscripts include missals, service-books, grammars and dictionaries of aboriginal languages, land deeds, royal edicts, governmental proclamations, papal bulls and rescripts, accounts and letter-books covering commercial affairs in North and Central America and the enterprises of Russian. Canadian, and American fur companies. There are also a large number of originals and copies of diaries of early American trappers, traders, pioneers, and goldhunters, and dictated narratives of California and Rocky Mountain pioneers, sufficient altogether to fill between 1,400 and 1.500 volumes of manuscripts, 500 of which relate to California. The collection is also rich in printed sources of history, including early voyages, debates, laws, journals, transactions of learned societies of Central America and various American States, maps, atlases, and cosmographies. There are more than five thousand volumes of newspapers and periodicals, and there is also a very rich collection of early imprints and other rare books. The value of the collection from the standpoint of the student of American history is very great, and its acquirement by the University of California is a distinct enlargement of the University's resources.

Forestry in Colorado The gratifying announcement is made that General

William J. Palmer and Dr. William A. Bell have presented to Colorado College the whole domain known as Manitou Park, to be used for a School of Forestry. This fine mountain park, seventy-five hundred feet above sea-level, is situated about twenty-five miles from

Colorado Springs, and contains some fifteen thousand acres, two-thirds of which are covered by forests. With its hotel and cottages, its cattle ranch, its hay lands and excellent water supply, the property is conservatively valued at about \$150,000. The increasing interest in America in the science of forestry and the growing appreciation of its utility are emphasized by this munificent gift. There are at present four important schools of forestry in as many sections of the country-at Yale University, the University of Michigan, the University of California, and at Biltmore in North Carolina. Colorado College school will be situated in the Rocky Mountain region at the foot of Pike's Peak. Forestry conditions vary widely with differences in altitude, climate, relative humidity and dryness. In Colorado, where high altitudes are found even on the plains, where on account of extreme dryness agriculture can be successful only through irrigation. the problems are quite different from those of lower and more humid regions. This section of the Rocky Mountain range must ultimately be converted into forest reserve. It is a fact of great significance, therefore, that in this section of the country, where the preservation of the forests is of vital importance, the study of forestry is to be established upon a scientific basis.

Is the Railway Rate Bill Constitutional?

Congress has, under the Constitution of the United States as interpreted by the Supreme Court, the same power to regulate inter-State commerce as to regulate foreign commerce. This power is limited only by the express provisions or necessary implications of the Constitution itself. It cannot be exercised arbitrarily, nor so as to confiscate property. nor so as to give special advantages to one class or one locality. It ought to be exercised so as to involve as little interference as possible with the perfect freedom of intercourse between the States. The object of Congress should be, not to restrain liberty, but to put an end to those restraints on liberty which are

imposed by great corporations to the disadvantage of small shippers and of the general public. Though some of these principles have been disputed, we think they are really indisputable, and we gave last week, with brief references to some important decisions of the Supreme Court, our reasons for regarding them as indisputable.

It is, however, evident that Congress cannot, in the nature of the case, legislate in detail upon this subject. It is not practicable to prescribe by law what the rates shall be, nor what the classification of freight; both rates and classification of freight must, to a certain extent, be flexible. Recognizing this fact, the Committee in the bill now before Congress has simply provided that all rates "shall be just, reasonable, and fairly remunerative," and has even left it to an inter-State railway commission to determine, whenever complaints are made to it against rates as unjust, not only whether the complaint is well founded, but, if the complaint is well founded, what is the "just and reasonable and fairly remunerative" rate to be thereafter observed as the maximum to be charged. The question has been raised whether Congress has the Constitutional right to delegate to an inter-State commerce commission so large power as is delegated by this act.

The Constitution provides that "all legislative powers herein granted shall be vested in the Congress of the United States, which shall consist of a Senate and House of Representatives." Those legislative powers Congress is not authorized to delegate to any other body. can, however, authorize any body to make the necessary rules and regulations for carrying into effect its legislative enactments, and this is done continually. It enacts patent laws and leaves those laws to be carried out under the Commissioner of Patents; land laws, and leaves them to be carried out under regulations framed by a Land Commissioner; Indian laws, and leaves them to be carried out under regulations issued by an Indian Commissioner. Thus a great body of departmental regulations has grown up which has all the force and effect of law, though it has never

been enacted into law by an act of Congress.

Undoubtedly Congress may similarly enact a law for the regulation of inter-State commerce, and leave that law to be carried into effect by an inter-State commerce commission. This is simply doing in one department what it has done from the foundation of the Government in other departments.

The Supreme Court of the United States has decided, in more than one case, that a general law that rates shall be just and reasonable and that a commission shall decide what rates are just and reasonable is not an illegitimate delegation of legislative power. "There can be no doubt," said the Court in the well-known case of Reagan vs. The Farmers' Loan and Trust Company (Thayer's Cases on Constitutional Law, p. 1745), "of the general power of a State to regulate the fares and freights which may be charged and received by railroad or other carriers, and that this regulation can be carried on by means of a commission. Such a commission is merely an administrative board, created by the State for carrying into effect the will of the State as expressed by its legislation."

The Outlook, then, has no hesitation in answering the question asked in the debate in the House by Mr. Sherley "as to the nature of the power that is conferred on the Commission, whether it is legislative or administrative, and how far the courts may review that action." The Commission is an administrative body, like the Indian Office, the Patent Office, and the Treasury Department; its decisions are simply a part of the administrative machinery of the Government for carrying into effect the will of the people as expressed by legislative enactment. No specific provision is made in the bill for any revision of its decisions by the courts, but the bill recognizes the fact that any decision of the Commission can be brought before the courts by injunction proceedings based on the ground that the rate prescribed is not in accordance with the provisions of the law. And the decisions of the Supreme Court leave very little room to question the two essential affirmations that Congress has

power, first, to enact a law requiring that all railway rates shall be just and reasonable and fairly remunerative, and, second, to leave to an administrative board created for that purpose the power to determine what rates are just and reasonable, and to require the railways to conform to such rates.

The Hepburn Railway Bill is Constitutional.

The Need of Plain Speech

Nothing in life is more tragical than the fall of a trusted man or woman, with its defeat of hope, betrayal of faith, surrender of principle, far-reaching disturbance of moral values for others. When a prominent man turns traitor to those who have put their interests into his keeping and stands forth, in any sudden light thrown on his career, as a selfish user of other people's property, a shock runs through the whole community, young men grow cynical and older men despondent. and the capital of moral health and vitality is sensibly diminished. professional criminals, the open cheats and scoundrels, do not bring moral disaster in the train of their evil deeds; the destroyers of hope and the wasters of moral wealth are the men who stoop to baseness from high positions and make influence and power, which are in their keeping as trustees for others, the servants of their greed or ambition.

It is almost impossible to overestimate the shock to confidence, the disaster to hope, which have come in this country as the result of recent betrayals of trust by men of prominence in public and business life, and it is a mischievous perversion of true compassion which makes respectability and position palliatives of moral offense. There is no offender so naked of excuse as the man who sins from the height of a great place, no betrayer of honor so base as he whose honor is so great that it becomes itself a capital for his use. The common offender is held back by no public opinion, kept in place by no pressure from others, sustained in temptation by no consciousness that others are leaning on

him and that if he defaults morally misery and bankruptcy follow in the train of his collapse; on the contrary, he feels that he is detached from the moral life of the community, that what he does is of little account, that no man trusts him. The great criminal is not he who commits a crime of a magnitude which impresses the imagination, but he who turns traitor in the face of general confidence and universal respect, the man who does not break, at the risk of his life, into other people's houses and take their property, but seizes and wastes property put into his hands by men and communities because he is believed to be honorable. The magnitude of an offense is determined not by the daring with which it is committed nor by its rating on the statute-books, but by the measure in which it involves violation of trust, betrayal of confidence, use of the honor and authority bestowed by others for selfish or base purposes. The individual soldier who goes over to the enemy is a traitor, but his treason is venial compared with that of an Arnold loved and trusted by his chief, holding a post of immense importance because of that confidence, looked upon as a leader by reason of a record of heroism. When such a man falls, he falls like Lucifer, and there is no measure to the infamy which blackens his name on the lips of later generations.

It is high time for clean, clear, decisive moral indignation and judgment; for the resolute clear-sightedness which refuses to be confused by the glamour of position, power, or respectability; which metes out exact justice with a dispassionate hand, and neither bows to the clamor of the hour nor to the appeal of a mercy which would defeat the very ends of compassion. The Nation needs moral reinvigoration, and it will come only when the facts are faced and deeds are described by words which have edge and sting, and men are judged by the measure of the light and faith and confidence against which they have sinned. Out of the shame and depression of recent months one great hope is taking the shape of certainty—there is coming a distinct advance of moral standards, a clear perception of the dullness of

moral feeling which has overtaken politics and business, a determination to tear aside the mask of respectability and compel offenders to stand before the community in the light of their mis-Moral corruption has gone far, but not too far for moral recovery. The vast mass of the people in the country have been sane and honorable; but they have grown morally heedless and careless; they have let the standards fall out of hands too much occupied with individual work and gain. It is time to measure moral strength against wealth and luxury, to hold men who are trusted to a more rigid account, and, when they betray their trusts, to tear from them the shreds of respectability with which sentimentalists would conceal the greatness of their offending.

Not Born to Die

A correspondent sends us the following paragraph written by a skeptical friend of his, and asks us how we would answer it:

Owing to man's irrepressible egoism, the wish is father to the thought. It is man's invincible determination to believe himself immortal that has created the idea of immortality. There isn't a single logical standing-point for the argument. In the Old Testament it is not hinted at. The promises made to the patriarchs are that their seed shall inherit the earth, and almost all the Hebrews of modern times agree with Spinoza in his fundamental thought, that while humanity, the race, endures, the individual unit of which it is composed passes on, giving place to others, as in all the rest of the animal creation.

The wish always is father to the thought, and the child should be nurtured, not cast out. All great thoughts are born of great wishes. Desires are creative; the reason is an instrument to accomplish desires. Man was hungry; his reason told him how to get food that would nurture, not poison, his body. He wished to cross the seas which were impassable barriers; his reason showed him how to navigate them. He wished to communicate with absent friends; his reason invented writing. He wished to extend the intercourse to many readers; his reason invented the printing-press. He longed for some picture of his absent

friend; his reason invented the photograph. He suffered under autocratic despotism; his reason showed him the way to liberty through the organization of free democratic institutions. Tennyson voiced the desire of mankind for peace and a Parliament of the Nations, and a generation has not elapsed before the desire of man has found its way to a Hague International Tribunal, and now to a serious consideration of an international parliament. What good thing is there that man enjoys to-day which he has not first desired and then found his way to possess? What good thing is there that our fathers have desired that we have not found our way or are finding our way to possess? Of course the wish is father to the thought; it is always father to thoughts; and all great desires and all great thoughts lead sooner or later to realization—generally to a realization that transcends the wildest imaginings of the poets and prophets. in the days of the unknown prophet who wrote the first chapter of Genesis dreamed of a world of ocean and mountain, of waterfall and fire and lightning, subdued as man has subdued it in this twentieth century? Who in the days of Plato dreamed of a Republic as free and fraternal as America? who in the days of Christ of a philanthropy as universal in its scope and as effective in its operation as the philanthropy incarnated today in hospitals and asylums and schools and colleges and social settlements?

"The wish is father to the thought." True. And the children are a lusty, vigorous, and thriving progeny. "It is man's invincible determination to believe himself immortal that has created the idea of immortality." True. And what is more, it is showing him the way to immortality. It is a curious non sequitur to argue that man must not expect immortality because he greatly desires it. In fact, desires are God's method of provoking man to achievement; what he greatly desires he eventually attains. And always the achievement surpasses the expectation.

Now are we the sons of God, and it doth not yet appear what we shall be: but we know that, when he shall appear, we shall be like Him; for we shall see

Him as He is. And every man that hath this hope in him purifieth himself, even as He is pure.

The Spectator

The Spectator has been wondering if the time is not ripe for a reformer who will busy himself with certain customs of our modern life; it seems that something needs to be done to rescue them from tendencies all too evidently demoraliz-For instance, take the time-honored custom of making gifts to a bride. This had its birth in the richest and sweetest sentiments of the human heart, and in its original spirit it is yet one of the most beautiful of our common customs; but it not infrequently happens in these days that one is reminded how greatly the beautiful custom has suffered at the hands of its friends.

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A woman was heard to say, "Just think of it! Three weddings in the next two weeks; that means three handsome presents, and I don't give that for one of the brides." And she snapped her fingers significantly. But of course the presents were bought, and sent "with dearest love," and appeared in the extravagant display which a special policeman guarded by night, till it was consigned to the safe deposit vault.

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The Spectator happened to read a newspaper report of one of those particular weddings, and he could not help thinking how differently it would have been written if the reporter had happened to know and tell the truth. for his own amusement in a few idle moments he rewrote a part of the report as follows: "The bride had a very few gifts; but there was also a very great display of cut glass, silver pieces, and articles of costly ornamentation, which were left, with total indifference and more or less reluctance, in her keeping. Among these the elaborate vase of Mrs. La Fontaine was very conspicuous."

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The Spectator happened to show his revised report to a young woman friend,

and of course she promptly called him "a horrid thing." "How can people help it?" she made critical inquiry. "Surely one can't reasonably be expected to love a woman simply because she invites you to her wedding, and in large society weddings people are necessarily brought together who are often but mere acquaintances of the bride, as of one another. Brides shouldn't invite so many people if they don't want gifts grudgingly or indifferently given." The Spectator replied to this that she might be quite right, that this might be a case where "judgment should begin at the house of God," and that the possibly forthcoming reformer would be a bride who would find her earliest inspiration in her own wedding.

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The sufferings of a particular class have generally furnished good material for the make-up of the needed reformer, and truly brides have their trials, if not real sufferings, in this matter of presents. One bride, the guests at whose wedding numbered about two hundred, maintained a becoming gratitude and pleasure as the gifts came in, until thirty-two bonbon dishes—surprisingly alike—and six water-bottles—as identical as the same number of peas in a pod-appeared on the table before her. Then she was heard to say, "Mother, if another one of those things comes in, I don't care who sends it, please don't show it to me." Still another, who was to begin her housekeeping in a very small flat, and carry it forward on an income of eighteen dollars per week, faced the almost unanswerable question of what she should do with twenty-seven cut-glass bowlsall of them of good size. It was a question where to place even enough bowls to serve the small family with bread and Finally, a special cabinet, for milk. which there was neither room nor money. had to be purchased to accommodate the bowls and bottles, and other equally useless things which came at the same time. It was recorded, however, of all these things that they were "just too dear for anything," and beautiful and bountiful assurance was given that each one was a most acceptable and important

addition to the belongings of the new home.

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Equally tender and commendable in its beginning, but even more sadly degraded in its lengthening observance, is the custom of sending flowers to a funeral. It was a most beautiful thing when love, and love alone, made quiet offering of the blossoms of earth to brighten the dark hours of mortal bereavement; but as time has passed on the early beauty of such bestowal seems to have been, at least in very many instances, sadly marred, if not quite obliterated. Remarks heard in this connection indicate the all too prevalent feeling. A husband and wife were discussing the matter with reference to a particular case: a business friend of the man had lost his wife, and the discussion just alluded to came up in regard to sending a floral offering to the house where death had come. The woman was very positive in her expression of disapproval; she argued that they couldn't afford it; that there was no tie between them more tender or binding than that of a business acquaintance; that it really wasn't fitting for them to do it, and that certainly it ought not to be expected.

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The man expressed himself in essential agreement; he knew they couldn't afford it, and he admitted there was something very much out of keeping with his own best feelings in sending it; but still it was his judgment that it should be done. He said it would be expected, its omission would be conspicuous, and perchance interpreted unfavorably for them. Then the wife suggested that if they must send something, it should be a simple, inexpensive offering, the cost of which they could better afford. Again the man expressed himself in sympathy with the good sense and good taste of the suggestion, but he also maintained that it wouldn't do: that if they sent anything it must be of a certain style and price; and it was finally so determined.

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At that particular funeral the display of flowers exceeded even what people are well accustomed to see in these lavish days. So numerous were they that there was little possibility of any sort of arrangement; it was simply pillow upon pillow, wreath above wreath, masses of one sort of flowers against those of another, and emblems uncounted, crowded together with the one evident intent of giving them a place where they would show. It was simply an enormous display, offensive to artistic taste and shocking to all the refinements of the heart; for it was all too evident that a large percentage of the offerings made expressed the same feelings and convictions as the one alluded to.

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The antithesis of this experience was found in another which the Spectator recalls with peculiar pleasure. It was in the coast country of the State of Maine, and the time was midwinter. An aged woman had died; her home had been on a small farm, her means limited, and her friends and neighbors necessarily few. The inevitable cost of the funeral was all that the remaining family could possibly assume; even the outlay needful for a small offering of flowers at that time and place was not to be thought But among the neighbors, near and distant, were some who had one or more cherished house-plants; among them all there were a few blossoms, and on the day of the funeral they were all brought a rose, a petunia, a little old-fashioned pink, a few geranium-leaves, each one giving all she had-and, in love that was tender indeed, laid upon the coffin. Such a little offering it was in itself-the wasted hand of the woman could have held it all; but it was large and lovely enough in what it expressed to be carried into the presence of the angels of light.

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It appears increasingly difficult to exclude the common commercialism of the time from any of its particular experiences; but it would seem that the supreme hours of human life—the hours in which love is crowned and we take final leave of our dead—that these at least might be held sacredly apart from the insincere, the common, and the ostentatious.

CHINA IN TRANSITION

THE ANTI-FOREIGN RIOTING IN SHANGHAI

BY GEORGE KENNAN

Special Correspondent of The Outlook in the Far East

This is the first of a series of articles in which Mr. Kennan will record his recent observations and experiences in China. Among these experiences was a house-boat trip of nearly four hundred miles through the canals of eastern China. The present article will be followed at once by one dealing with the causes of the various anti-toreign maintestations in China.—The Editors.

F one had been asked two weeks ago what cities of China in this period of transition and unrest were most likely to be exempt from anti-foreign rioting, one would have replied without hesitation, Hongkong and Shanghai. Both of these cities passed through the year of the Boxer troubles without any disorderly manifestations of anti-foreign feeling; both remained quiet in the excitement of the boycott movement; and there was no reason to suppose that there would ever be, in either of them, any serious uprising of the native inhabitants. In China, however, it is almost always the unexpected that happens, and on the morning of Monday, December 18, the foreign population of Shanghai found itself suddenly confronted by a riotous demonstration on the part of the natives, which not only created intense excitement and alarm, but threatened for a time to get wholly beyond control.

The first signs of impending trouble appeared at the Hongkew market in the American settlement, where, early in the morning, gangs of Chinese roughs made an attempt to stop traffic by wrecking the stalls of peaceable hucksters and attacking the servants of foreign residents who had been sent there to buy supplies of meat and vegetables for the day. A little later rioting began on the Nanking Road, and in less than two hours the anti-foreign demonstration, which had evidently been preconcerted, if not carefully organized, became so general and so formidable as to threaten

the safety of foreigners in all parts of the International Settlement.¹

Julian H. Arnold, the American Vice-Consul, was attacked by a mob near the suburban race-course as he was coming into the city; Dr. Scholz, the German Consul-General, and two of his vice-consuls were set upon in the Nanking Road and had to take refuge in Max Nossler's book-store; Dr. McLeod, Dr. Jackson, Mr. Davis, Mr. Forrester, Mr. Anderson. and many other well-known business men were stoned or beaten; and dozens of other Europeans or Americans, in automobiles, in carriages, or in jinrikishas, were stopped and more or less roughly handled as they passed through the streets of the Settlement on their way to their offices. By eight o'clock the great commercial thoroughfares known as the Nanking Road, the Kiangse Road, the Szechuen Road, and the Maloo, were packed with excited Chinese, and thousands of rioters, armed with sticks and stones and in some cases with revolvers. began to mob foreigners, maul policemen, loot shops, and set fire to buildings in the central part of the Settlement, between Defense Creek and the Bund. The places most fiercely and persistently attacked were the shop of the Interna-

The part of Shanghai controlled and partly occupied by foreigners is sometimes called the International Settlement and sometimes the Foreign Concession. It is situated on the western bank of the Whangpoo River, above the junction of the latter with the Yangtse, and has an area of two or three square miles. It contains a population of 8,000 or 9,000 Europeans and Americans and about 350,000 Chinese. The Native City, which is surrounded by a wall and which stands just south of the Concession, had, in 1900, a population of 152,000.

tional Bicycle Company, where Winchester rifles and ammunition were kept for sale; the Louza police station, to which a few arrested rioters had been taken early in the morning; the town hall and library on the Nanking Road, and the annex of the Metropole Hotel. The employees of the Bicycle Company made a vigorous defense, and, after killing several Chinese on the very threshold of the shop, succeeded in repelling the attack; but before the foreign residents of the city could collect force enough to hold the yelling, stone-throwing mob in check, all the windows of the town hall had been shattered, the annex of the Metropole Hotel had been wrecked and partially burned, and the Louza police station had been captured, set on fire, and completely destroyed.

Inasmuch as the European and American population of Shanghai does not exceed nine thousand, while the Chinese living in the Foreign Concession and the Native City number more than half a million, the consequences of anything like a general foreign uprising might be disastrous in the extreme, and it was therefore with a feeling of intense apprehension and alarm that the foreign residents of the Settlement went for their weapons. The Shanghai Volunteers, a local militia organization numbering six or eight hundred men, assembled hastily, with rifles and bandoliers of cartridges, but without uniforms; messengers were despatched to all the war-ships in the river asking for help; squads of Sikh police were sent to check the march of the rioters down the Nanking Road and to seize and hold the bridges over Soochow Creek; and every European or American who had a rifle, a shot-gun, a Mauser pistol, or a revolver, rushed into the streets, and either reported to the municipal authorities for orders or hastened to the scene of disturbance to fight independently.

Before nine o'clock the whole native quarter was swarming like a disturbed ant-hill, and it is not an exaggeration, perhaps, to say that within the limits of the Central District, between Defense Creek and the Bund, there were two hundred thousand excited Chinese in the streets. It soon became apparent, how-

ever, that nine-tenths of these people were not participating in the riot, and that the few thousands who were actively engaged in it lacked cohesive organization and courage. They would yell frantically, throw stones, loot an undefended shop, or maul a Sikh policeman to death with bamboo poles; but when the Volunteers opened fire on them with ball cartridges they lost their nerve and gave way. They did not venture to kill a European outright, even when they had him in their power. If they happened to catch an Englishman alone and unarmed they stoned him, smashed his carriage or jinrikisha, and perhaps beat him; but they always stopped short of murder. The only foreigners actually killed were Sikh policemen from India, whom the Chinese hate with a deadly hatred. Between nine and ten o'clock in the forenoon strong landing parties of marines and blue jackets came ashore from the British cruisers Astræa and Bonaventure, the Italian cruiser Marco Polo, the German gunboat Vaderland. and the British gunboat Clio, and, with a dozen or more machine guns, took positions in front of the consulates and public buildings, or marched in squads to the parts of the city where the disorder was greatest.

Coming down from Peking by the Tientsin steamer Shengking, we happened to reach Shanghai a few hours after the rioting began, and upon landing at one of the many docks which fringe the beautiful European boulevard known as the Bund, we found ourselves, to our great amazement, in what seemed to be a besieged city. The consulates and public buildings were all guarded by troops; squads of marines and bluejackets, with rifles over their shoulders, were marching along the water front and wheeling into the Nanking Road; armed volunteers in civilian dress, with bandoliers of cartridges across their breasts, were going to or from "the front" in jinrikishas or on foot; gray-haired British merchants were riding to their places of business in carriages or automobiles with rifles or double-barreled shot-guns by their sides; and even the bicycleriders who went scurrying along the Bund carried big navy revolvers in hol-

sters belted about their waists. whole foreign population, apparently, was under arms, and had either been engaged in fighting or was ready to fight at a moment's notice. Upon inquiring what had happened, we were informed that the Chinese, excited by certain proceedings in the Shanghai Mixed Court, had begun an anti-foreign riot and were engaged in looting shops, burning buildings, and killing Europeans and Americans on the Nanking Road and in various other parts of the International Settlement. Volunteers had been called out, and marines had been landed from all the war-ships in the river, but the whole force available for defense did not exceed fifteen hundred men, and if the native uprising should become general the situation of the comparatively small body of Europeans in the Settlement might be as perilous as that of the foreigners in Tientsin in 1900.

This was somewhat alarming news. but as the people on the Bund did not seem to be wildly excited, and as we could hear no sound of yelling or firing, I concluded that the danger was not imminent, and directed the porter of the Astor House to collect our baggage and call 'rikishas. 'Rikishas, however, were not to be had. The Chinese coolies were all on strike or with the rioters, and the only vehicle available was a closed baggage-van, which had no seats, and looked like the "Black Maria" of a city prison. Making a virtue of necessity, we climbed cheerfully up on our trunks, took our grip-sacks and shoulderbags in our laps, and rode slowly to the hotel, like a couple of wild animals in a closed menagerie cage. We found the Astor House full of British and American round-the-world tourists, who were assembled in little groups in the office, the reading-room, the bar-room, and the parlor, discussing the latest news from the scene of disorder, and the probability of a general Chinese attack in the darkness of the coming night. Here and there young Volunteers who had just returned, rifle in hand, from the Nanking Road, were describing to excited and apprehensive women the siege of the Town Hall and the fierce attack of the mob on the shop of the International

Bicycle Company; and at the office desk, where I went to register our names, the manager of the hotel was imperiling the safety of half his guests by helping an American tourist to load a Mauser automatic pistol. Neither of them knew anything about the mechanism of the weapon, and, after dodging two or three times out of the probable line of accidental fire, I went to their assistance, boldly declared myself a firearms expert, and, for the sake of getting behind the gun, offered to load it myself. From my point of view-opposite the muzzletwo novices co-operating in an attempt to fill the magazine of an automatic pistol were much more dangerous than a Chinese mob.

When we had taken our hand baggage to our room, I came down stairs and walked through the hotel, asking questions right and left, listening to scraps of excited conversation, and trying to get an intelligible explanation of the riotous outbreak which had so suddenly transformed a peaceful commercial city into what seemed to be-or threatened to become—a field of "battle, murder, and sudden death." None of the excited groups in the parlors and corridors had any definite information with regard to the cause of the riot, but suggestions for dealing with it were abundant. "What they ought to do," said a loud-voiced American in the office, "is to take out the Taotai [the Chinese prefect or governor of the city and lynch him!" "Yes," said another, "either lynch him or put him in irons and send him on board one of the war-ships." I could not see myself how murdering the Governor, or sending him on board a warship in handcuffs and leg-fetters, would greatly improve the situation, but such were the suggestions of two of my countrymen who seemed to be rational, and who were apparently men of education and good social position. No question was raised as to the Taotai's responsibility for the riot, nor did anybody seem to care what the grievances of the Chinese were—if they had any. An attack had been made upon the foreigners, therefore the Chinese Governor should be lvnched !

Late in the afternoon I put a pistol in



my pocket and walked out in the direction of the Chinese quarter. The streets everywhere were crowded with natives most of them coolies—and there were strong squads of marines, or Sikh police, on the bridges and at the intersections of the principal "Roads." But the rioting had apparently ceased, and although many shops in the central district were closed, I heard no firing and could see no signs of disorder. All the Europeans whom I met were armed, but many of them were returning to their homes; and in reply to questions they said that the killing of twenty or thirty men had cowed the disorderly element, and that the trouble, for a time at least, was over.

Throughout Monday evening the feeling among the foreigners in the Settlement was one of great anxiety and apprehension. The riotous demonstration had been checked, and at a comparatively insignificant cost in life; but the hundreds of thousands of Chinese who had thus far taken no part in it were in a state of wild excitement. The attitude of the local native authorities was uncertain, and the anti-foreign movement might at any moment become general and assume a dangerous form, as it did in the north of China in 1900. Nobody in Peking or Tientsin would believe at first that the Boxer movement was really formidable; but it developed into a great popular uprising, nevertheless, and the same thing might happen again. The foreign residents of Shanghai, therefore, prepared themselves, as far as possible, for a renewal of hostilities, upon a more extensive scale. The family of the American Consul-General, and many other people who had been living in lonely and isolated places on the Bubbling Well Road, came in to the Astor House for safety. The Country Club, near the center of the suburban residence district, was turned into a place of refuge for women and children, and was put under guard of a strong detachment of Volunteers; and all strategic points between the native quarter and the foreign part of the Settlement were occupied by Volunteers, Sikh police, or squads of marines with machine guns.

The Astor House, until after midnight, was filled with excited men, mostly

armed, who had come in to get news, or to discuss the events of the day, and the air, of course, was filled with disquieting rumors and reports. The Chinese, it was said, were holding tumultuous meetings in the Native City and working themselves up to a frenzy over the killing of their countrymen in the streets; they had obtained two or three thousand rifles and a large supply of ammunition by breaking into a native arsenal; and they were preparing to make an overwhelming attack upon the foreign quarter at a late hour of the night. War-ships of the Powers had been sent for and were coming at top speed from Weihaiwei. from Hongkong, from the lower Yangtse, and from Japan; but twenty-four hours, at least, must elapse before any of them could arrive, and in the meantime only the Volunteers and a few nundred bluejackets and marines stood between the foreign population and half a million infuriated Chinese. Although I took these rumors with many grains of salt, I did not feel at all sure, myself, that the trouble in Shanghai was over. I had just come from Peking and Tientsin, where I had heard all the details of the Boxer siege; I was aware that the anti-foreign feeling in the Yangtse valley had been greatly increased by the boycott; and I knew so little of the grievances of the Shanghai Chinese that I could not tell what they were likely to do after twenty or thirty of them had been killed by foreign troops.

Just after I returned to my room, a detachment of marines passed under my window, dragging a two-inch quick-firer in the direction of the Nanking Road; and as the rumble of the wheels died away up the street, I went to bed, more than half expecting to be awakened before morning by the yells of a mob and the rattle of rifles and machine guns.

Contrary to all expectation, the night passed without any general alarm, and when I went out after breakfast the city in the neighborhood of the Astor House seemed to be perfectly quiet. Everybody was still going about armed, the bridges over Soochow Creek were all guarded, and a detachment of marines in front of the German consulate had trained a big brass machine gun so that it would sweep

the whole street in front of the hotel; but with these exceptions there was nothing to indicate that the normal life of the city had been disturbed. When, after a walk of five minutes, I reached our consulate. I found the building guarded by a force of two small Japanese bluejackets. There was a fairly strong American fleet in the Far East, including several battle-ships; but when the rioting in Shanghai began, the nearest of our vessels was a hundred and fifty or two hundred miles away; and in order that American interests should not be left wholly without protection, the Japanese consul loaned us two armed men, out of his total available force of twelve! I presume he thought that by giving us two bluejackets to stand in front of our consulate he would help us to "save our face;" but he could not prevent the British residents from chaffing us a little upon our consular guard of two Asiatics, and our inability to land marines until Wednesday afternoon—sixty hours after the rioting began.

In reply to my inquiries, our Consul-General, Mr. Rodgers, said that the American cruiser Baltimore and three gunboats were up the Yangtse, at or near Chingkiang, and that he had informed them of the riot by telegraph early Monday morning. He had also kept the Department in Washington advised, and had cabled Admiral Train at Manila. He did not think that the situation in Shanghai was at all critical, but he expressed great anxiety with regard to the safety of the American missionaries "up country." There was a strong anti-foreign feeling among the Chinese of the Yangtse valley, and he greatly feared that as soon as the news of the Shanghai outbreak reached the cities on the Grand Canal—particularly Soochow, Hoochow, and Hangchow—the missionaries there would be attacked and possibly murdered. He had, therefore, wired them all to come down to the coast for shelter and protection.

When I returned to the hotel, I found a lot of new rumors in circulation. Rioting, it was said, had broken out afresh in three places, and the disorder was greater than ever. A reinforcement of marines had just arrived in the German

gunboat Tiger; the American cruiser Baltimore had reached Woosung; and a fleet of torpedo-boat destroyers was coming post haste from Manila (1). Meanwhile, the rioters had been reinforced by an army of brigands and sait smugglers from the back country, thousands of ruffians and rowdies had come across the river from Pootung, and the outlook generally was very alarming. These wild reports, of course, were almost wholly without foundation; but a reference to them may serve to indicate the nature of the mental and emotional atmosphere in which the guests of the Astor House lived for two or three days. No rumor seemed too wild to gain credence, and intelligent men assured me, with an air of conviction, that Admiral Train had sent a fleet of destroyers from the Philippines, and that three fast British cruisers had come from Hongkong (a distance of eight hundred and fifty miles) in thirty hours! As matters of fact, the Baltimore did not reach Woosung until Wednesday; the torpedo-boat destroyers and British cruisers did not come at all; and the rioting on Tuesday was limited to an attempt, on the part of a few hundred Chinese roughs and hoodlums, to prevent market sales and force Chinese merchants to close their shops on the Nanking Road, the Boone Road, and the Maloo. When I walked out to this part of the city, a little later, there were great crowds of Chinese in the streets, but I saw no rioting or disorder. That night, however, just after twelve o'clock. a general alarm was sounded from all the bell towers, and the whole foreign community was again thrown into a panic by an announcement from the police headquarters that the Chinese, in strong force, were advancing on the Settlement from the west. They had driven in the police outposts on the Sinza Road; they were already close to the General Hospital, if not actually in possession of it; and they were setting fire to everything as they marched down the right bank of Soochow Creek in the direction of the Bund. As this startling news came from police headquarters, and as the whole western sky was lighted up by what seemed to be the glare of

an extensive conflagration, the marines and blueiackets assembled hastily in front of the British and German consulhurrying along the Bund at the doublequick; machine guns were got in position on the Garden Bridge and in front of the Astor House; the fire brigade turned out; and the whole region bordering on Soochow Creek became a scene of great activity and excitement. In the course of half an hour mounted scouts who had been sent out to locate the enemy reported that they could find no "Chinese army," but that a large number of native houses, set on fire, presumably, by the rioters, were burning briskly in the district known as Sinza. The fire brigade went up the Creek and after an hour of hard work put out the incendiary fires; the marines and bluejackets on the Garden Bridge and in front of the Astor House went back to their consulates; and the citizens and tourists who had been roused by the general alarm returned to their beds.

On Wednesday the situation began to clear up, and the anxiety of the foreign population was to some extent relieved. The American gunboat Villalobos came up the river to the city with one hundred and seventy bluejackets and marines from the cruiser Baltimore; the Taotai, Duke Tsai-Teh, and other prominent Chinese officials went personally through the native quarter with guards and footmen carrying printed proclamations ordering the people to remain quiet; the Viceroy, Chou-Fu, telegraphed from Nanking that he was on his way to Shanghai with instructions from the Imperial Government at Peking; and the Chinese newspapers published strong editorials condemning the rioters and urging all patriotic citizens to discourage violence and await a peaceful settlement of the Mixed Court trouble.

At the present time (Friday evening) the anti-foreign demonstration seems to have spent its force, and there is no reason to anticipate a renewal of the The city is well guarded and efficiently patrolled, and the military force now on duty seems quite adequate to cope with the disorderly element, which never comprised more than a

fiftieth part of the total Chinese population.

In their dealings with the mob on ates; detachments of Volunteers came Monday and Tuesday the foreigners, it seems to me, showed commendable prudence and self-restraint. They did not open fire on the rioters until further delay would have been suicidal, and they never brought into use either artillery or machine guns. It would have been easy to "give the Chinese a lesson" by slaughtering two or three hundred of them indiscriminately in the streets; but, so far as I have been able to ascertain, the officers of the Volunteers and marines never once lost their heads in the excitement, and never ordered their men to fire unless it was absolutely necessary to do so. result of their coolness and discretion the Chinese casualty list is comparatively small, and comprises only men who were in the fighting line and who actually had sticks, stones, or deadly weapons in their

The secretary of the Municipal Council, who acts also as correspondent of the London "Times," cabled that journal that Japanese had been seen among the rioters, and had given the latter aid and encouragement. The same statement was made, without reservation or qualification, by the "China Gazette," and by several foreigners with whom I talked, but I failed to get any evidence of the alleged fact which was worth a moment's consideration. Hundreds of Chinese students have come back from Japan wearing the Japanese student dress, and it is quite likely that some of these young men were among the rioters, and were mistaken by foreign observers for subjects of the Mikado; but, so far as I have been able to learn, no real Japanese had anything whatever to do with the disturbance, either directly or indirectly.

Since I arrived here, five days ago, I have succeeded in getting from officers of our consulate, from Chinese officials, from members of the Municipal Council, and from representative business men, a fairly clear and intelligible explanation of the riot; and as it illustrates certain methods and tendencies which prevail in China generally, and in the treaty ports in particular, I shall devote another

article to the trouble in the Shanghai Mixed Court, which lighted a flame of wrath and indignation in the hearts of all Chinese, high and low, and which led, ultimately, to the anti-foreign demonstration. If we are going to try to extend our commercial interests in China,

or even to do business there during the next ten years, we shall have to try to understand the Chinese and their way of looking at the dealings of foreigners with them; and the Mixed Court fracas is a most instructive object-lesson.

Shanghai, Friday, December 22, 1905.

THE RUSSIAN PRIESTS IN THE REVOLUTION

FROM A CORRESPONDENT IN RUSSIA

HE only Russian priest who has become known to the whole world in these revolutionary times is Father Gapon, a man in every way exceptional. Nevertheless, there are many other priests all over Russia who have shown active sympathy in one way or another towards the great movement that is reorganizing Russian society. From the three common priests who gave their approval openly to the Kronstadt mutineers, to the Archbishop of St. Petersburg who protested against their execution, there is every shade of political and social creed.

Tolstoy has made the world familiar with the idea that the religious sentiment in the Russian people must play a great part in the building up of the new Russian State. Since the development of the open revolution it has become evident that the position of the great wing of the Russian Church which might properly be called the Russian Protestants, and which is known as the "Old Believers," is of the greatest importance, and must be considered even at this moment of intense revolutionary crisis. The Government appreciated the power of the "Old Believers," and it granted religious liberty largely on account of pressure brought to bear from this quarter. The Government's immediate reward was a very considerable financial backing from the wealthy "Old Believers" of Moscow. The particular element of the "Old Believers" that furnished aid to the Government at this early stage of the revolution, before the latter had granted any substantial liberties to the

people, might be termed reactionary rather than progressive.

The "Old Belief," however, like other religious movements, has developed under persecution. At the outset it was a protest against the form of the Russian religion—a simplification of the rites of the Church. Continued persecution has prevented the formation of a well-centralized, natural organization and the establishment of tradition, and so has forced the development of independent, individual thought and religious feeling. The consequence is that to-day the Old Belief is strong, multiform, and manysided. Though its adherents are often very dogmatic, and are usually more deeply imbued with the prejudices of creed as well as with religious sentiment than the great unthinking mass of the orthodox, still religion is with them a vital thing which they have had to de fend against the Government and persecution. It is therefore largely among the Old Believers that new political and social creeds have found root.

Religion, then, is not the dead thing it would be in Russia without this schism and the many spontaneous sects that have grown up during the last century. And now, besides the sudden liberation of the "Old Believers," has come the removal of Pobedonostseff, the dead hand, from the helm of the official orthodox Russian Church. In looking about for the deepest currents of Russian feeling, nothing is so remarkable to-day as the bitter hatred on all sides of Pobedonostseff. This is by no means decreased since his removal from office, for it is

known that he remains an intimate adviser of the Czar. For many weeks if one bought a satirical paper on the street it was Pobedonostseff's cadaverous features that figured as the chief butt of the cartoonists; if one read a view of the reactionary attitude of the Government, it was against Pobedonostseff as much as Trepoff that the shafts were directed; if one went to the theater to see the farce, "The Days of Liberty," it was for the part of Pobedonostseff that the best actor was cast, and he who received the wildest roar of popular disapproval.

Let us try to feel for a moment the dead weight which this political and religious high priest placed upon the Russian religion. Let us recall that not only did Pobedonostseff attack the modern school and the modern newspaper, but that he went so far as to call inertia the fulcrum of progress. What an inversion of common philosophy—what blindness to the teachings of history! Is this not either the acme of egoistic perversity or incipient madness? Then let us not forget that this man was for years the most trusted adviser of the Czar. But Pobedonostseff is removed, and the Russian priesthood has commenced to breathe.

Never out of contact with the people below, never free from the most constant petty criticism on the part of the very peasants themselves, the Russian "popes" have now at least been emancipated from the paralyzing pressure, not to say terrorism, from above. There are many signs that the great Russian priesthood with its hundred thousand peasant "popes" (for they are not far removed from the peasants) is beginning to think. There are many proofs that the "popes" are sympathetic, on the whole, with the idea of a thorough renovating and reorganization of Russian society. One of the most direct is the latest and most intelligent declaration on the duty and position of the priests during the great revolution Russia is now passing through.

Some weeks ago the Russian Church Herald, the "Zerkowni Vestnik," published a leading article on the new duty of priests.

"The duty of the priests toward the

Duma," this article said, "is to explain to the people the overwhelming importance of a serious and honest attitude towards the election and towards their future participation in the political life of the country; to make clear the great sin which the peasant would commit towards his soul if he should in this matter trade the suggestions of his conscience or his intelligence against personal profit or fear."

A new brochure which has attracted the widest attention expounds and develops in a most intelligent and interesting way the same idea. The priest must preach to the peasant that he is not to be tempted in casting his vote by any consideration of mere money, or fear of "the strong people of this world." The priest should, above all things, combat by the power of his word "the harmful influence which the administration will try to exert over the peasants in its own interest." The publishers of this pamphlet might be called a Priests' Union, their attitude being similar in its mixture of moderation and revolution to that of the Doctors' Union, the Officials' Union, the Railway Union, or the Officers' Union. The title they give themselves is the "Group of Priests." Their organization is, of course, secret, like all the others. Their second and apparently their greatest task is to take advantage of this great historical moment to bring about a renaissance of the spirit of the clergy itself.

"The service of the priests," they say, is humiliated, transformed into a trade. The Church has become the servant of the State, the priest, the serf, and the police."

The priest must profit by the new national assembly to improve and reform the clergy itself. The clergy should not interest itself in its political rôle in the new Duma as a caste or as an organization, but it should do its best to see that the great emancipation is understood by the members of the Duma in its deepest sense. The duty of the Russian priest is to think, to write, to speak, and to do everything possible that the Duma may become the true liberator of Russia; that it may save Russia from its spiritual slavery, and it may

not itself become a new bureaucratic institution. In view of this great task the clergy should redouble its efforts to prevent its relations within the State from becoming an insurmountable obstacle to itself. It should break this bond that ties it to the State at the earliest possible moment.

"We must liberate ourselves," say the Group of Priests, "from the dishonorable tie which has transformed the Russian Church into 'the Department of the Orthodox Confession,' and which has made a sacrilege of religion, putting into the place of Christ a Secretary of the Consistory. Sacred institutions of the Church are transformed by the autocracy into chairs of political propaganda and chairs of inquisition, and the priests have become assistants of the gendarmes and the policemen—lackeys of the rich and strong. The lips of the priest are sealed by the seal of State."

"We must announce the principle," contends the Priests' Union, 'that the Church is independent,' and we must release it immediately. The Church should be independent and free. It is the conscience of the people and of society. It should take into consideration every fact, but always from the point of view of the Christian truth.

The Church can very well condemn one political régime and approve another; it can prefer one régime to another [that is, democracy to autocracy]; but it cannot bind itself with any of the forms of the State, because it is eternal, and these forms are but passing forms."

"There is another prejudice to combat," conclude our Russian priests of the future. "It is the idea that the Church has nothing to do with earthly existence, that the domain of religion is heaven. On the contrary, the Church ought to bring nearer the reign of God on earth; and to bring Russia a step nearer to the reign of truth and good, a change and development of political forms are essential. The clergy is, then, obliged to do everything in its power to guarantee the triumph of that truth and that conception of the general welfare in the Duma—the most concrete expression of the present political transformation."

As a clear, broad-minded, and progressive statement of religious attitude during one of the most intense and deepest of all historical transformations, the declaration of the Group of Russian Priests should call out the most widespread sympathy and confidence among all religious and serious-minded people.

LOVE'S BLINDNESS

BY C. H. CRANDALL

"Poor little Boy," the people said, "he's blind;
He cannot see even to choose his mates.
That girl was thrust on him by evil fates—
She is so plain, of such a common kind.
Yet still to common things he is inclined,
Wearing that smile they carry in such states,—
So pitiful—the blind; neither repines nor hates,
But, if you ask him, says, 'I do not mind.'"

Love smiles!—a smile of pity, kin to tears!

For Love, "blind Love," sees beauty all around,
And in the darkest storm his day is bright;

"Plain" faces grow divine, and all the years
His path is strewn with flowers that hide the ground—
Love's "blindness" so transcends all loveless sight.

THE LIBRARY'S WORK WITH CHILDREN

BY ADELAIDE BOWLES MALTRY

HE whole library movement, as it is known to-day, is practically a development of the last thirty years. The special work with children is of still more recent date; in fact, fourteen years would cover its life, while the last seven years would measure its rapid progress.

Public library workers are fond of calling their libraries the people's universities. The ideal aim of the work is to help educate all citizens. The children's department, then, may be looked upon as the nursery of good citizenship, and the children's librarian must have the spirit of the educator. Our ideal aim is justified by the evident need of at least three elements which an active library can supply. There is universal need for (1) further enrichment of life, (2) greater knowledge, and (3) the establishing of the reading habit. We can acquire the first two elements, further enrichment of life and greater knowledge, through the third, the reading The forming of this chabit is conceded by all to be peculiarly the library's function. I should like to increase the appreciation of the scope of library work in general, of one's own city's library in particular, and to have parents feel that a children's department can be a source of inspiration and practical help with their children; hence this description of a library's facilities for giving such aid.

The first consideration must be the kind of rooms to which the children are invited. It goes almost without saying that they should be large, sunny, and cheerful in coloring. Size we have, and certainly need, to accommodate our fluctuating family, for in all we have in the Buffalo Public Library between thirteen and fourteen thousand members drawing

books, to say nothing of adult visitors, who are always welcome.

Any child who lives in the city, and whose parents are willing to sign the application agreeing to be responsible, may have cards to draw books from the library. It is in seeking the information necessary for filling out these application blanks that we get the most intimate glimpses into the pitifully pinched, distorted lives of some of our clientele. So eager are some of the youngsters for books that they are willing almost to perjure their souls away. What is stronger proof yet of their eagerness-for, alas! many children do not realize the evil of untruth—two boys volunteered to give up smoking cigarettes if they could but have cards, though we had never said smoking was tabooed. while one little girl whose father had signed illegibly her application for cards pleaded, "Lady, papa wrote as well as he could. He's just broken his leg, you know."

But to go back to inanimate things! The furniture in a children's department should all be simple and durable, suited in size to its users. It may be artistic as well, but it must be practical-small chairs and tables for small folk, and so on up to average size, that all may be comfortable. Mrs. Gilman, in her "Concerning Children," criticises some of our home nurseries because we say they are for children, then hang our pictures high, often have perishable furniture, and almost never suit it in size to the wouldbe wee tenants. She clinches her point by asking us to spend our days in chairs from which we cannot touch our feet to the floor, to see how we like it. Another point to bear in mind is that we should have only, or a little less than, what is necessary in the way of furniture.

Given boundary walls far enough apart, plenty of light—preferably sunshine—and necessary furniture, there must be "fixin's." These we offer, first,

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^{&#}x27;1 The author of this article was for several years and at the time of its writing Children's Librarian of the Buffalo Public Library, where special attention has been given to this important branch of library work.—The Editors.

in the form of growing plants and cut flowers. A small sum of money is expended every week in the endeavor to keep before the children fresh flowers as their season for blossoming comes round, not only for the æsthetic value, but that knowledge may be gained of the procession of flowers. City children have so little opportunity for the observing of nature.

Second, I would mention pictures and reproductions in plaster of standard works of art. There is little need to add words about the "influence of the old masters upon the minds of the young," "of molding character by association with art reproductions," etc., etc. Too much has already been read and heard. We even tolerate the sentimental but enthusiastic writers of books on picture study, who call them "Guides to the Treasures of the Palace Beautiful;" but we need, do we not, to guard in our enthusiasm against putting before the impressionable minds of our offspring as steady diet pictures too old in theme to admit of at least partial comprehension? Let them be old masters, an' you will, but let there also be in the subject a point of interest common to all child life.

We try to carry out that law of the educationalist, the law of apperception, in our bulletin work. According to general acceptance of the word, a bulletin is a report or notice posted from time to time. Our bulletins are picture compositions posted primarily to attract the children to the department and its books; that they should interest and ultimately lead the children to reading certain books makes their use legitimate. We use pictures in as good prints as we can afford, to illustrate our chosen subject, mount them on cover paper harmonious in coloring, and, with labels for each picture and the whole, with a few suggestive words or a list of books on the subject, we have a bulletin. Whether we post a list with the pictures or not, we always put all books bearing on the subject on shelves next the bulletin-board, and label the case as the bulletin is labeled. In this way, any interest awakened in the children's minds by the pictures and their explanations may

be immediately deepened by the books being at hand. It is gratifying to learn of direct results from this work, for so much of its influence—in fact, of that of the whole department—cannot be measured.

Some time ago a set of clever scissors pictures, stories in artistic silhouettes, were lent to us. These we exhibited under the captions, "Scissors Pictures. Can You Make Them?" It was not long before answers to that question began to pour in. A thirteenyear-old boy modestly asked us to look at the contents of a package one day. To our surprise, he had made, entirely unaided, excellent silhouette pictures. The work was not only neatly done, but the subjects chosen and the composition of the pictures were remarkably good. Bit by bit we learned what proved quite a story. Fred had, a couple of months before, begged his father to have him excused from drawing lessons in school because he disliked the work intensely. This the father had done, after considerable trouble. Seeing our display of scissors pictures seemed to awaken a dormant power within the boy. He obeyed its impulse, tried to copy, succeeded, and from that time on the strongest interest of his days was drawing. We helped with books and suggestions all we could, and watched with gratification his change of heart. He went into all drawing and manual training classes for the rest of the year, took private lessons through the summer in drawing and designing, and entered the art league in the fall for the year's work. Such results do not often come to us, but we do know that through the picture bulletin we lead to definite lines of reading.

The following experience will prove what good illustrating and printing will do toward making books popular. Shelyed separately we have a collection of standard books which are not allowed to circulate. They are the best illustrated editions of popular and good books to serve as bait, so to speak. Among them is a copy of Walter Crane's illustrated edition of the Hawthorne "Wonder-Book." Up to the time this was purchased the children could not be per-

suaded to read the stories in the unillustrated editions, no matter how adroitly or temptingly the invitation was given; even telling part of the story had little effect. Now we cannot have too many copies of any kind of edition.

All our roads lead to books! One charming, quiet byway into their realm is through the telling of stories. Every Saturday morning at eleven during the winter we tell stories to all who care to listen. We announce the story-telling by means of an illuminated poster, placed where all may see. It is needless to say that we have very large circles of eager listeners. In this way we can interest the children in the best literature. for what child does not love a story? and, of course, our selections are from masters in the art. By having the books with us while telling the tale, the connection between story and book is made definite, and the children almost invariably wish the books to take home.

We come now to the personal equation in our methods of attracting. Children are unwittingly the severest critics grown people have. They know almost unerringly the person who will "play fair," and it is to that kind of person they turn with their desires and pleasures. An assistant in the children's department must have a real love for children, patience, enthusiasm, the instincts of a teacher, and, above all, innate refinement—in fact, one might say she ought to have all the graces and virtues. Every bit of knowledge is levied on, as you may surmise when you think of fulfilling such requests as these, which came simultaneously: Child on right side—"Say, teacher, gimme 'High Water,' will ye?" Child on left-"An' I want a book about General Cluster, please;" while still another is pining for "Optical works—stories by Longfellow." Our opportunities for teaching are unique and may require unsystematic means, but our results are far-reaching. have a distinct advantage over the school-teacher, because those children who come to us do so voluntarily. therefore do not have to overcome any prejudice in their minds. They find us friendly and glad to give them what they want. Do they feel that they must read

this or that, or that they are being taught? We hope not, for we believe, with President Eliot, that if you succeed in making a child feel that he is following out a line of study which he has chosen, that he is through his own powers accomplishing something, you have done the best possible educational work. You have awakened the creative spirit and given him the power of independent thinking. Let children choose their own books from among many, but be sure the "many" are first well considered.

The only feature of our work which savors of the school curriculum is the reference work. In that we endeavor to supply collateral reading matter and material on any given composition subject. When subjects are announced, we gather together all useful books and make lists. The library is glad to do all it can in that way, but we cannot promise always to give such wonderful information as this little girl put in her composition on "The Misunderstood Pig:" "The pig is a sweet, clean, docile, intelligent animal."

The library's school department does work with children through the teachers. In co-operation with the Board of Education, principals, and teachers, Miss Rose, the head of this department, makes up libraries for each grade of the public schools. The object is to utilize the teacher's more intimate acquaintance with the child in connection with our knowledge of the books, and thus to insure a thoroughly good use of books. It makes very wise and careful work possible. There is also every year a display of the choicest books suitable for Christmas gifts.

I have given you an idea of our material and human equipment. We need now to consider the books. The motto of the children's room is the trite but pregnant phrase, "The right book, to the right child, at the right time." It is one thing to know books, another to know children, and still quite another to recognize the right "psychological moment" for bringing the two together. Any work is insignificant nowadays if it come not under psychological rulings. Dr. George Vincent aptly says: "The biological figure has of late fallen somewhat into

the background. These are psychological days. There is a psychology of childhood, a psychology of adolescence, a psychology of advertising, a psychology of salesmanship, and there is *Henry James*."

The children's room should be the most important place in the city for the training of readers. We of to-day live in a world of books, and insist that our children shall be early taught to read, that they may the sooner, as Seguin wittily says, "Cover the emptiness of their own minds with the patchwork of others." We have passed the time, however, when reading in itself was considered an unmitigated good. Miss Plummer, Director of Pratt Institute Library School, has described the situation in the best possible phrases when she says, "The ability to read may easily be a curse to the child, for unless he be provided with something fit to read, it is an ability as powerful for evil as for good. When we consider the dime novels, the class of literature known as Sunday-school books, the sensational newspapers, and the tons of printed matter issued by reputable publishers, written by reputable people, good enough in its intention, but utterly lacking in nourishment, and therefore doing a positive harm in occupying the place of better things-when we consider that all these are brought within a child's reach by the ability to read, we cannot help seeing that the librarian, in his capacity as selector of books for the library, has the initial responsibility."

This by no means, however, relieves parents of their responsibility. It would prove of immeasurable profit if they could read all the books their children There are many reasons for so doing, though I will mention only twothe ability thus gained to guard against inferior books, and, best of all, the enlarging of power to understand the child and therefore to strengthen and deepen the confidence of the child in the parent. "But," the cry is, "I have not time." I grant that it may take much time, although one can learn to read rapidly with very little practice. If time so spent is begrudged, why not go to the library for help from the specialists whom the city pays to know just what is needed in choosing books for children? If the plan of knowing what your children read is once tried, I am confident that the new joys thus experienced will be too vital to relinquish. Nor can one begin too early to give the best. A child learns more in the first five years of his life than in any similar period afterwards, and up to twelve years his mind is the most impressionable.

Richard Burton, in his "Literature for Children," puts pertinently what our experience proves. He first makes a plea for giving literary masterpieces to the children, as a whole—not dressed over. What could make that point clearer than this? "A piece of literature is an organism, and should be put before the child, no matter how young, with its head on and standing on both feet." For example, give parts of "Hiawatha" as it is written, rather than the primer, which is poor explanatory prose. Hugh Black tells a story of a little girl who sat listening to a poem that her mother read aloud. In her anxiety lest the child might not understand, the mother stopped frequently to tell in simpler language the gist of what had been read. The little one was quiet for some time, and then said, gently: "Mother, dear, I could understand so much better if you would please not explain." She was getting a meaning from the original that satisfied her; whether it was just what appealed to her mother or not is a different matter. Again quoting from Mr. Burton: "In view of all this preparation of standard writings for the young, there is little excuse for putting up with the second best and the well enough. The choicest is none too good. The dominant division, fiction, for instance, now includes Mrs. Molesworth, Mrs. Ewing, Mrs. Gatty, Mrs. Wiggin, Harris, Page, Stevenson, Kipling, and a score more, these names being set down almost at random. The pabulum furnished us children of a larger growth by Optic, Alger, Mayne Reid, and the Elsie books, has been superseded by more heavenly food. And the older aristocracy of child literature still makes its appeal in books like 'Robinson Crusoe' and Kingsley's 'Water-Babies,' to mention two which

stand for many. Children are most readily attracted by objective literature—the literature of character and action—rather than that which is subjective; fiction of the Walter Scott and Stevenson kind as contrasted with that of George Eliot or Thackeray."

There are certain essentials which must always be considered in selecting a story. First, it must be true; by which is meant true when ideally interpreted. It may also keep in touch with the interest in current events, if that interest is appropriate to childhood. Indeed, if it is not, seize the opportunity to turn the interest to nobler uses. When the town is echoing with excitement over a prizefight, it is idle to suppose that your boy will be deaf to the echoes. Why could you not acquaint him with some of the great characters in mythology, with the real heroes of history, or recite some ballad of "doughty deeds" which will show him what courage really is, and how a true knight uses his strength?

History on the personal, graphic side—treating it as Carlyle conceived it to be, the story of great men—is good for the little ones, and well liked by them. This suggests history given biographically, and presents difficulties, because there are few books of genuine literary merit in either history, biography, or travel; but it is a possibility worth working for. Dickens's "Child's History of England" is a good example of history on the per-

sonal, graphic side. Better biographies for children are being written every year, so one can hope to be assisted increasingly.

In poetry, the epic, the ballad, and the lyric of simple song will prove better than the reflective or purely descriptive piece. I would add that the subject of a poem needs to be within the range of a child's natural interests even more than the subjects in other classes of literature. I am tempted to urge that parents try especially to develop a love for poetry. It is in poetry that man expresses his highest thoughts. Though prose may have the substance of poetry, it can never have the music and charm. Have we ever thought that we may awaken the love of poetry by choosing literary gems for our lullabies and our nursery songs? Many of these have truly musical settings.

To sum up, give first the literature of power to cultivate ideals. Myths and folk-lore do this. The literature of knowledge or science can come later. I have said, choose that which appeals to the child. I do not mean "to base the selection of children's books on their ephemeral interests, but on the fundamental interests of child nature."

Let us, then, teach our children, as Bacon says, to "Read, not to contradict and confute, nor to believe and take for granted, nor to find talk and discourse, but to weigh and consider."

A SHAKESPEAREAN FIND

BY W. J. ROLFE

In the London "Times" for December 29 Mr. Sidney Lee gives an interesting account of a discovery recently made in one of the "household books" (records of domestic expenses) of the Earls of Rutland, preserved at Belvoir Castle. The entry is under the head of "Paymentes for howshold stuff, plate, armour, hammers, anvyles, and reparacions," and reads thus:

1613.

Item, 31 Martii, to Mr. Shakspeare in gold about my Lordes impreso, xliiiis; to

Richard Burbage for paynting and making yt, in gold xliiiis—iiii & viijs.

Mr. Lee remarks that "appeal to contemporary custom and history is needful to the due understanding" of this entry. He adds: "That appeal will show Shakespeare, when retired from the great work of his life, in the act of helping a luxurious leader of Court society to pursue a fashionable craze, which was enlisting at the instant much literary as well as artistic ingenuity. The dramatist's close friend and professional

colleague, Burbage, was his partner in the modish commission, and it has to be borne in mind that Burbage was hardly less renowned as a painter and limner than as an actor. In brief, the recovered document discloses a capricious sign of homage on the part of a wealthy and cultured nobleman to Shakespeare, who, in his last leisured years, complacently turns his powers of invention to playful account in the rich lord's interest, and it adds one to the many links which are already known to have bound together Shakespeare and Burbage, the versatile actor-painter, alike in public and in private life."

An "impreso" (more correctly in Italian, whence it was derived, "impresa"), in the sense here used, was "a hieroglyphical or pictorial design (in miniature) which suggested some markedly characteristic quality or experience of the person for whom it was devised, while three or four words, of slightly epigrammatic flavor, were appended to drive the application home. 'motto' or 'words,' which rarely exceeded four, was commonly a fragment of a quotation from a classical or mod-Almost every language was ern poet. enlisted in the service of Elizabethan 'imprese,' but Italian and Latin were employed most frequently."

Mr. Lee gives the following examples of these devices: "Sir Francis Drake, the circumnavigator, had an 'impresa' which illustrated the spirit of his personal experiences; it showed a ship in full sail riding on a terrestrial globe and tied by golden hawsers to a hand projecting from an overhanging cloud; the motto ran, 'Auxilio divino' (i.e., With Heaven's aid). Rather more pointed was the 'impresa' of a restless malcontent which illustrated his ruling passion; it displayed two greyhounds, one running free and the other chained to a tree; the first was labeled 'In libertate labor' (i.e., In freedom, labor), and the second, 'In servitute, dolor' (i.e., In servitude, grief). Sir Philip Sidney, by way of declaring the unbending nature of his will, employed an 'impresa' showing the tideless Caspian Sea, which, encircled by high rocks, neither ebbs nor flows: the motto was 'Sine refluxu' (i.e., No going back)."

I may add from Fletcher's "Purple Island "the description of another: "A bag fast seal'd; his word, 'Much better sav'd than spill'd.'" Camden, the antiquary, in a chapter on "impreses," distinguishes them from "emblems" thus: "An impresa (as the Italians call it) is a device in picture, with his motto, or word, borne by noble and learned personages, to notifie some particular conceit of their owne; as emblems do propound some general instruction to all." Similarly, Drummond of Hawthornden says: "Though emblems and impresa's sometimes seem like other . . . the words of the emblem are only placed to declare the figures of the emblem; whereas, in an impresa, the figures express and illustrate the one part of the author's intention, and the word the other."

The earliest reference for the word "impresa" that I find in the "New English Dictionary" (Oxford) is from Robert Greene's "Menaphon," 1589: "There was banding [bandying] of such lookes, as everie one imported as much as an impresa;" and the latest given there is from Urquhart's "Rabelais:" "The device or impresa of my Lord Admiral."

The English form, "imprese," occurs once in Shakespeare, "Richard II.," iii. 1.25:

"From my own windows torn my household coat,

Raz'd out my imprese, leaving me no sign, Save men's opinions and my living blood, To show the world I am a gentleman."

Here the quartos have "imprese" or "imprese;" the folios (followed by many modern editions) "impresse." Milton also has the word once in "Paradise Lost," ix. 35:

"emblazon'd shields, Impreses quaint, caparisons and steeds," etc. Lamb uses it, in the sense of motto, in his "Melancholy Tailors:" "The beautiful motto which formed the modest imprese of the shield."

In my copy of Florio's "Worlde of Wordes" (1598 edition) I find the Italian "impresa" defined thus: "An imprese,

a mot, an embleme, a word. Also an enterprise, an action, an undertaking, an attempt." In the modern Italian dictionaries these sets of meanings are transposed, as the latter are now the more common.

The Earl of Rutland, who had lately succeeded to the title, was probably acquainted with Shakespeare. Mr. Lee remarks:

"Intimate friends of the dramatist, and, it may be, the dramatist himself, had long been known at Belvoir. In the first place, the childless elder brother, whom the new Earl had just succeeded in the family honors and estates, was a very close friend of Shakespeare's patron, the Earl of Southampton. Constantly were they seen together at the playhouse in the late Queen's time, when Shakespeare was laying the firm foundations of his fame. The new Earl had shared in some degree his brother's intimacy with Lord Southampton. They had suffered imprisonment together for their complicity in the rebellion of the common hero of their youth, the Earl of Essex. There can be little question that Shakespeare's name was from early days familiar to the new owner of Belvoir.

"An even more notable literary tradition, with which Shakespeare was at any rate indirectly, if he were not directly, concerned, twined itself about Belvoir during the late Earl's reign. The late Earl's barren wife, who followed him to the grave in little more than two months, was daughter and only surviving offspring of Sir Philip Sidney. In her father's spirit she assiduously cultivated the society of men of letters. She bought and read their books and welcomed them to her table. Shakespeare's friend and eulogist, Ben Jonson, composed at her instance a masque for performance at a Belvoir festivity. He was often her guest, and with him and with the poet and dramatist, Francis Beaumont, she regularly corresponded. Both men wrote eloquently of her poetic sensibility. It may well be that documents which are yet to be discovered will set Shakespeare also among the poets who shared the hospitality of Sidney's daughter at Belvoir before he received the new Earl's commission to invent an 'impresa,'"

The "Mr." prefixed to Shakespeare's name in the entry shows that he was regarded as higher in social position than Burbage. Fourteen years earlier (in 1599) his father had obtained the honor of a coat of arms from the College of Heralds, and he and his son thus became "gentlemen."

Burbage had some repute as a painter in his day, and two of the portraits of Shakespeare have been attributed to him, but on very doubtful authority. The only authentic example of his work is in the Dulwich Gallery. That the Earl of Rutland was satisfied with the commission he had given him for the painter's share of the "impresa" is evident from the fact, mentioned by Mr. Lee, that the nobleman employed him again three years later. "On March 25, 1616, the Earl took part in a tilting-match at Court on the anniversary of James I.'s accession. On that occasion, too, his shield was intrusted to Burbage for armorial embellishment, and the actor-artist received for his new labor the enhanced remuneration of £4 18s. There can be small doubt that something far more elaborate than an 'impresa' was then accomplished. Shakespeare was no longer Burbage's associate, for a mournful reason. At the moment that the actor-painter earned this large reward his lifelong associate, of whose greatest creations he was the original interpreter on the stage, lay on what proved to be his death-bed at Stratford-on-Avon."

GOOD NEIGHBORS ALL

BY CHARLES MOREAU HARGER

"Why did you come back?" I asked a Westerner who returned to a prairie town after two years in New York. It seemed incomprehensible that he should leave the excitement of lower Broadway for the monotony of the broad plains.

"Neighbors!" was his response.
"Would you want to spend your life where the people twenty feet away do not know your name or care whether you live or die? We were brought up with neighbors—and when the baby died and not a person in the blessed town came near us, when we went alone to the cemetery, it was too much. We packed up and started for home—what's the use of living that way?"

Does neighborliness exist, like our old geometry problems, in inverse ratio to the square of the distance? Perhaps.

One day last summer, away out in the western Kansas wheat lands, where distances are magnificent and the per capita of population to the square mile is expressed in decimal fractions, a settler became ill. He had fifty acres of fine wheat already turning yellow in the sun. He had no hired man, nor had he the means to engage harvesters. He had counted on "changing work" with some one and thus getting his grain to market. Day after day he tossed in pain and worried over the prospect. Neighbors? The nearest was three miles away, and the whole township had but seven families.

One morning three self-binders with full complement of helpers came rattling over the prairie. The drivers did not ask for permission, but went boldly into the field. Round and round the machines hurried, reaping the ripe grain and leaving shocks of gold dappling the level lands. The sick man heard the buzz of the reapers and tried to get to the window—but his wife told him what was happening, and he fell into a deep, sweet sleep.

It is no slight thing to give up a day in the midst of pressing harvest that a farmer miles away may save his crop, but it is a pretty good sort of sentiment that prompts the action. It may be that it will count for something sometime.

"Would the average city street show an act such as marked a far frontier community in which I spent a night recently?" asked the former New Yorker. then went on: "We had stopped at a little town of less than a dozen houses, and spent the evening listening to pioneer stories in the dingy office of the only hotel. As we were preparing to go to bed, in came three men carrying a violin, a banjo, and a guitar. They were ranchers from the Pawnee Valley, and had been out twenty miles on the plains to enliven the evening for an old friend who was sick and nearly blind, with no one to read to him and no music except that of the ceaseless winds. They did not realize that they had done muchthey simply did what they could without thinking. The leader of the trio started in the West a poor boy. Now he owns 2,500 acres stocked with horses and with registered cattle so good that they take prizes at every royal stock show in Kansas City. Yet he found time to go twenty miles to cheer up an old friend in misfortune. Why shouldn't he prosper?" Why not, indeed?

Some instances have even more of "human interest," as newspaper men express it. One day a woman out on the plains followed to the wind-swept cemetery the husband with whom she had pioneered through long, weary years. She returned to her little home and gathered around her the five children, heartsick and disheartened. She had but one horse: the other had been sold to secure money during the husband's illness. It was time for plowing the corn ground. How could she get another horse? Where could she hire men to do the work? She cried herself to sleep that night.

Early the next morning her eldest daughter awoke her with, "Look, mother, see who's coming!"

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From the window of the cabin-like farm-house she discerned in the north a number of men who were coming across the prairies with teams, plows, and harrows. To the east were others; so to the south and west. What did it mean? She could not think for a minute. All centered at the farm, and, without stopping to ask her permission, went to work, turning over the chocolate furrows. The harrows followed, then the corn-planters. Thirty teams made short work of the sixty acres, and by noon half the land was ready for the spring rains.

"Now, Mis' Mason," said the leader, big, sturdy Farmer Hansen of the Four Winds ranch, "if you'll give us some water to drink, we'll see if we can get dinner."

She did not need to do more than open her kitchen. The men were used to "baching it" on occasion, and they prepared their food like veterans. They had brought eatables for the meal, and the spread looked very good to the children who hungrily watched them.

"Come on, youngsters," called the leader, cheerily; "have something with us—ye're welcome."

They were welcome indeed. The bounties of a dozen homes had been brought for the occasion and the supply was ample for the children, half famished for a good meal as they were. The afternoon was as busy as the morning, and long before sundown the field was ready for the spring rains. Nor was this all. So plentiful was the provision from the farmers' kitchens that the little home was provided with food for a week to come.

All that summer the neighbors came time after time and cultivated the corn, and when autumn's harvest arrived there was a clean four hundred bushels that had not cost the widow a cent. Pretty good kind of every-day Christianity, that!

Curious, too, how news travels among these communities on the plains. In these modern days the rural mail-carrier makes a close relation between the parts of more thickly settled counties. But take it out on the farther reaches of the prairies, where you are never outside a pasture and where some of the ranches

are thirty miles from the railway, and you have almost wireless telegraphy in the dissemination of news.

"Tom Benton is very sick," is the word that goes out over the short-grass country. It is passed from herder to herder, from soddy to soddy (no one ever says "sod house" in the short-grass country), until it is soon common property for twenty miles around. And then the "boys" make it their business to see that Tom is looked after. One by one they ride over to inquire how he is; two by two they come to "sit up" with him no need of the lodge delegating nurses out here. Nothing too good for Tom when he is sick. And if Tom does not get well-no need to tell how the tenderness of the plains then shows itself. No one ever leaves the West with the feeling that "nobody cared."

The financiers have what they call "community of interests." The West has just that in its every-day life. Sometimes it shows in peculiar and unexpected ways, combined perhaps with an odd mixture of old-fashioned Yankee thrift.

Down on the southern edge of Oklahoma the cotton-planters have a perpetual struggle with the labor problem. In cotton-picking season, owing to the lack of negroes in the county, hundreds of acres of cotton are wasted. But one good Baptist deacon, in the very thick of the contest for the available workers. had an idea. He went to town and saw the superintendent of his Sunday-school. In half an hour he had arranged for the entire membership of the school to give a "cotton-picking benefit" on his farm. for the next two days. Before he left town he had given a two days' benefit to the Methodists, who wanted money for a new church: two days to the Presbyterians, who wanted new furniture; two days to the Catholics, to replenish a mission fund; and closed a deal with the Woman's Christian Temperance Union and the Loyal Legion for three days each, the proceeds to be used to aid the temperance campaign in that county.

The next morning fifty-six members of the Baptist Sunday-school, big and little, old and young, donned pick-sacks, and were early in the field at the farm.

They were paid the prevailing price (seventy-five cents per hundred pounds), and by night had gathered 3,644 pounds. The proceeds went a long way toward buying the needed library for the Sundayschool. Several additions to the school joined the pickers the next day, and close to six thousand pounds were picked. All denominations kept their dates with the cotton-planter, who provided liberal meals and sleeping accommodations for the entire parties. He said that, taking into consideration the feeding and housing of the various denominations, it cost him less than the usual expert negro pickers' work. By the time his contract with the temperance people expired, his cotton was safely housed, while his neighbors were yet scouring the country for help.

A similar experience was that of a central Kansas farmer, who said to the president of the City Library Association, "Why don't you women come out and husk corn, if you want to earn some money to buy books?"

"What will you give us?" was the quick reply.

"Five cents a bushel."

"We'll do it," answered the plucky woman, and the association was called into special session to consider the offer. The corn-field was close to town; the autumn weather was perfect, as autumn usually is on the prairies; the women were eager for a chance to show their husbands their courage and enthusiasm.

On the appointed morning they gathered, a hundred of them, and, with the wagons provided by the farmer, went up and down the long field, snapping off the spikes of maize, throwing them with all the regularity of the every-day farmhand into the boxes. It was severe on weak wrists, and the thin gloves that some of the women wore were soon in shreds. What did the ladies care? a dare, and they would win. Dinner skill you have?" was eaten with a relish that few of them: had known for months, and then the long afternoon's struggle commenced. But only two or three of them gave up, and when sunset came the party went laughing back to the town more than content. They had enjoyed a novel

outing, had absorbed a sufficiency of the open-air ozone, and when the proceeds were invested in new books they felt that they had been amply repaid for the difficulties of carrying out their contract.

Nor are the women of the West less friendly toward their neighbors than are their husbands and brothers. In every batch of country correspondence that comes to the county paper is a report of a "quilting bee" or a "donation party," by which a group of farmers' wives seeks to bring happiness into some household where trouble has entered.

It matters not that telephones and rural routes are many; it is not material that the roads are good and the farmers have good horses; the willingness of the neighbors to help in making the home brighter depends not on these—it was the same when the telephone was unknown, when rural delivery had not been heard of, when the horses were of the common farm-implement variety and could not make a record of more than three miles an hour, and when they were hitched to a farm wagon instead of to a rubber-tired buggy. The spirit of the settlers is the same.

One day there came back into the little prairie community where she had spent her girlhood a woman, bringing her children to her father's house after a bitter experience with a worthless husband. Trouble had set heavily upon her, and it seemed that she was doomed to a loveless and lonely life. In some communities this would have been so. But not with the warm-hearted Western women, the wives of farmers and ranch-They drew no line against herin fact, they went further than mere friendliness.

The wanderer had had in her youth a pretty talent for art in its simpler forms, and one day she was called into a gathering of neighbor women and asked, They were out for a day of work against ... "Why won't you teach us some of the "

"I hardly know how to do it," was the surprised reply.

"The women at the county seat have clubs, why can't we?" asked the wife of a wealthy ranchman.

"They live near each other, and it is easv."

"What difference does that make? Can't we ride and drive?"

They formed an art club—not a very pretentious affair. They have never discussed the great painters of the Renaissance—it is doubtful if they know who they are. They have never pondered grave problems of ethics nor reviewed Henry James's novels.

This they have done: Once a fortnight for three years they have held an afternoon meeting, each member entertaining in turn. Some of the women drive six miles to the meetings, but seldom has there been one absent. Under the guidance of the invited leader they have learned all the fancy methods of artistic needlework and lace-making, competing in good-natured rivalry with one another in their effort to surpass in the beauty of their workmanship. Long ago they found a personal joy in their meetings and a delight in their efforts toward su-

The art club now, with fifty members, has become the center of the community's life; it has brought delight into the township. Last fall I visited a county fair, and in the pavilion was one whole room given up to the work of this club, every member a farmer's wife or daughter—and all the effect of one outpouring of neighborliness. None who saw it failed to praise; but the visitors would have praised more had they understood fully the sentiment that was behind the exhibition of embroidered flowers and decorated lunch-cloths.

premacy in the gentle art of needlework.

Not until the town has grown rich and

arrogant do the clique and the class appear. Before that all are neighbors. In the average Western village this friend-liness exists and the inhabitants do not need an introduction before they speak. They have not yet outgrown the habit of running in "the back way." It is always a sure sign of neighborliness when the back door is used instead of the formality of the hardwood-floored hall.

Of course it is fine to live in a city. The country town, especially if it be "out West," doubtless looks very plebeian to the dweller on pavements and within hearing of a fire station. And doubtless the city has neighborliness, too; but does it reach so high an average (if an average of neighborliness can be computed) as the country town? When things go right, it makes little difference; when they go wrong, neighbors count. flowers that come to the sick-room from friends up and down the street, the dainty dishes and inquiries from across the way, the sympathy and interest, the feeling that you are part of one great family—it all means something in making up the sum of happiness in this very short life of ours.

"I do not know that hearts are kinder or that men and women are more thoughtful West than East," said the returned Westerner, reverting to the subject again. "But, somehow, people are not afraid of showing it out here. Maybe they have less dignity—or maybe they have more. Anyhow, while I live I am going to spend my time in a place where there are good neighbors—I can't live without them."



Mi. Erron Motor

THE STORY OF A NATURALIST'

THEN Herbert Spencer died, he was more than once referred to as "the last of the great Victorians." In the controversial comment which this provoked, the name of Alfred Russel Wallace, who is still living in his eighty-fourth year, was mentioned perhaps more than any other in support of the assertion that at least one "great Victorian " survived Spencer. It is not, however, altogether surprising that Mr. Wallace's claims to distinction should have been overlooked. For many years he has been in virtual retirement, and when he has fared forth it has usually been to support interests which are not such as to add luster to his reputation. Spiritualism, socialism, and land nationalization have found in him an ardent champion, while he has otherwise led Ouixotic crusades against divers prevailing beliefs-against, for example, the belief in the efficacy of vaccination, and the theories obtaining in respect to the organization of the universe. But whatever may be thought of the views he entertains concerning these various subjects, there is no questioning his right to an eminent position in the scientific world. He was not only the first of the Darwinians; he was the co-discoverer with Darwin of the theory on which the fame of both securely rests. While the great evolutionist, after twenty years of patient labor, was finally formulating in England his hypothesis of the origin of species, the same hypothesis took shape in Mr. Wallace's mind as he lay on a bed of sickness in the far-off Malay Archipelago, "I waited anxiously," he recalls in the memoirs which he has at last given to the world, "for the termination of my fit, so that I might at once make notes for a paper on the subject. The same evening I did this pretty fully, and on the two succeeding evenings wrote it out carefully in order to send it to Darwin by the next post." To Darwin the arrival of this letter must have seemed

¹ My Life: A Record of Events and Opinions. By Alfred Russel Wallace. Two Volumes. Dodd, Mead & Co., New York. 56, net. catastrophic. But the noble generosity he displayed and the equally gracious position taken by Mr. Wallace resulted, as scientists are well aware, in the two discoverers receiving full share of the credit due to each.

As may be imagined, the greatest interest attaches to what Mr. Wallace has to say concerning his work as a naturalist, and the famous men with whom this work brought him into more or less intimate relations. As a matter of fact, the remainder of his reminiscences are comparatively uninteresting. In the story of his childhood and of his youthful days as a surveyor there is much of value to the historian of social England. and the reader cannot but be amazed at the marvelous memory which has enabled the veteran to place on paper details which the great mass of mankind would lose in the affairs of after life. But this very multiplicity of detail operates to make the narrative drag, and its continuity is further broken by the inclusion of much in the way of " literary fragments" which might better have been suppressed or reserved for an appendix. However, there is in the nine hundred pages so much that is vital that the one lively regret must be that Mr. Wallace does not lay more stress on his achievements as a scientist and less on the different movements his connection with which has created in the minds of many a false estimate of his place among his contemporaries.

Mr. Wallace himself dates his interest in natural history from the days when he served as assistant to his brother William, who had found employment as a surveyor in Bedfordshire. "It was here," he writes, "that during my solitary rambles I first began to feel the influence of nature, and to wish to know more of the various flowers, shrubs, and trees I daily met with, but of which, for the most part, I did not even know the English names. At that time I hardly realized that there was such a science as systematic botany, that every meanest and most insignificant weed had been accurately described

and classified, and that there was any kind of system or order in the endless variety of plants and animals which I knew existed." But he naïvely admits that, had he not been thrown on his own resources through the inability of his brother to give him steady employment, he would in all probability have become absorbed in surveying, and would have studied nature, if at all, as an amusement for his leisure hours. As it was, at the age of twenty-one he began to busy himself seriously with plant life, and four years later, in company with the entomologist Henry Walter Bates, left England for South America; not, however, to enlarge his knowledge of botany, but to collect birds, insects, and shells in northern Brazil, which was then very much of a terra incognita from the standpoint of a naturalist. The story of this memorable expedition has already been fully told in his "Travels on the Amazon and Rio Negro." Some four years-of jungle work resulted in the securing of , many rare and valuable specimens, and two years more were occupied in London in working out the cell actions. Then came the voyage to the Malay Archipelago, where eight years were spent, and where the crowning triumph was achieved. How the solution of the problem of the origin of species came to Mr. Wallace may best be related in his own words:

At the time in question I was suffering from a sharp attack of intermittent fever, and every day during the cold and succeeding hot fits had to lie down for several hours, during which time I had nothing to do but to think over any subjects then particularly interesting me. One day something brought to my recollection Malthus's "Principles of Population," which I had read about twelve years before. I thought of his clear exposi-tion of the "positive checks to increase" disease, accidents, war, and famine—which keep down the population of savage races to so much lower an average than that of more civilized peoples. It then occurred to me that these causes or their equivalents are continually acting in the case of animals also; and as animals usually breed much more rapidly than does mankind, the destruction every year from these causes must be enormous in order to keep down the numbers of each species, since they evidently do not increase regularly from year to year, as otherwise the world would long ago have been densely crowded with those that breed

most quickly. Vaguely thinking over the enormous and constant destruction which this implied, it occurred to me to ask the question, Why do some die and some live? And the answer was clearly, that, on the whole, the best fitted live. From the effects of disease the most healthy escaped; from enemies, the strongest, the swiftest, or the most cunning; from famine, the best hunters or those with the best digestion; and so on. Then it suddenly flashed upon me that this self-acting process would necessarily improve the race, because in every generation the inferior would inevitably be killed off and the superior would remain—that is, the fittest would survive. Then at once I seemed to see the whole effect of this, that when changes of land and sea, or of climate, or of food supply, or of enemies, occurred—and we know that such changes have always been taking place—and considering the amount of individual variation that my experience as a collector had shown me to exist, then it followed that all the changes necessary for the adaptation of the species to the changing conditions would be brought about; and as great changes in the environment are always slow, there would be ample time for the change to be effected by the survival of the best fitted in every generation. In this way every part of the animal's organization could be modified exactly as required, and in the very process of this modification the unmodified would die out, and thus the definite characters and the clear isolation of each new species would be explained. The more I thought over it the more I became convinced that I had at length found the long-sought-for law of nature that solved the problem of the origin of species.

This was in 1858. Four years afterwards Mr. Wallace returned to London to find scientific England, already acquainted with his discovery and in a ferment over the publication of Darwin's great work, awaiting his arrival with no little curiosity. He was now assured of the friendship of many eminent men; but he was equally certain to be drawn into the whirlpool of controversy. Of the battles of the evolutionists and anti-evolutionists he says comparatively little; but he allows us numerous and intimate glimpses of his illustrious fellow-workers-Darwin, Huxley, Spencer, Lyell, Tyndall, Romanes, Mivart, and others. Curiously enough, he accords primacy among these to the geologist, Lyell, "not only on account of his great abilities and his position as one of the brightest ornaments of the nineteenth century, but because I saw more of him

than of any other man at all approaching him as a thinker and leader in the world of science." Cautious and conservative by temperament, but of a liberal and genial mind, and with a lively sense of humor, Sir Charles must have been a most companionable friend as well as an invaluable counselor. With Darwin, too, Mr. Wallace was on terms of the warmest friendship, and although they differed roundly concerning the mental and moral nature of man, their personal relations do not seem to have been disturbed. The correspondence here published, some for the first time, reveals, as "The Life and Letters of Charles Darwin" and "More Letters of Charles Darwin" have already revealed, the intense humanity of this devotee of science. The human side of Spencer is likewise clearly shown. To cite but one anecdote, Mr. Wallace refers, in passing, to Spencer's life at Bayswater, "where he lived for many years in a boarding-house with rather a commonplace set of peopleretired Indian officers and others." There they frequently dined together, and, the naturalist continues:

I was amused when some popular error was solemnly put forth at dinner as the explanation of some phenomenon, and Spencer would coolly tell them that it was quite incorrect, and then proceed to explain why it was so, and on principles of evolution could not be otherwise. In the evening, after we had had a little private conversation, we would go into the drawing-room, where there was music, and Spencer would sometimes play on his flute. On remarking to him one day that I wondered he could live among such unintellectual people, he said that he had purposely chosen such a home in order to avoid the mental excitement of too much interesting conversation; that he suffered greatly from insomnia, and that he found that when his evenings were spent in commonplace conversation, hearing the news of

the day or taking part in a little music, he had a better chance of sleeping.

Huxley, another of the friends of his London years, always inspired in him, he confesses, a feeling of inferiority and awe—"an inferiority which I did not feel either with Darwin or Sir Charles Lyell." This feeling Mr. Wallace ascribes to the fact that Huxley's enormous fund of knowledge was of a kind of which he himself possessed only "an irreducible minimum." Huxley, it might be added, was one of the several leaders of thought whom he vainly sought to enlist in his inquiries into spiritualism, his efforts only evoking the following characteristic letter:

I am neither shocked nor disposed to issue a Commission of Lunacy against you. It may be all true, for anything I know to the contrary, but really I cannot get up any interest in the subject. I never cared for gossip in my life, and disembodied gossip, such as these worthy ghosts supply their friends with, is not more interesting to me than any other. As for investigating the matter—I have half a dozen investigations of infinitely greater interest to me, to which any spare time I may have will be devoted. I give it up for the same reason I abstain from chess—it's too amusing to be fair work, and too hard work to be amusing.

This letter from Huxley is in itself one explanation of Mr. Wallace's failures to induce his fellow-scientists to explore the "borderland." The narrative of his own explorations finds place, of course, in these pages, and is written with the frankness which is one of the most pleasing features of the work. But it fades in interest, as does all else of which he treats, when compared with his account of his labors as a naturalist, and of those wonderful days when, with Darwin and his friends, he strove to compel acceptance of the doctrines of evolution,

Comment on Current Books

Sound judgment must The Bible and agree with Dr. A. T. Spiritual Criticism Pierson in his definition of "Spiritual Criticism" as involving the recognition of a spiritual, supernatural element in the Bible, and the need of a spiritual mind to apprehend it. But, as a spiritual mind should keep its common sense, sane judgment must break with Dr. Pierson's method of applying his definition. When one reads in Deuteronomy (xxiv. 16) that children shall not be put to death for the fathers, and in the book following (Joshua vii. 24, 25) that the children of Achan were put to death with him for his theft, the contradiction and the later date of the humane precept are each indisputable. But Dr. Pierson's "spiritual criticism" so sticks to the letter of the story that it forbids questioning the reality of the alleged divine mandate, "Thus saith the Lord," which doomed those hapless children. He accepts both their slaughter and the prohibition of it as alike divinely authorized. What, then, of the "spiritual symmetry" which he finds between the mathematical plan of the universe and the symbolic numbers of the Bible, as identifying the Creator with the "Author of the Book"? Under the blinding influence of a false theory of inspiration this book presents a strange jumble of gold, silver, and precious stones with wood, hay, and stubble. (The Baker & Taylor Company, New York. \$1, net.)

We judge from internal evi-A Book of dence that the author, F. A. Steel, is the Mrs. Steel whose stories of India are highly esteemed. The title, somewhat singular in itself, is much more so when it is found to apply to a book about animals, with the intent of showing what virtues, vices, and traits they share in common with man. Mortality is unquestionably one of those traits, and thereby the title is justified. Mrs. Steel treats her subject under such heads as "Gluttony and Temperance," "Marriage," "Fortitude and Envy," "What Animals Have Done for Man," and adds some special chapters dealing with such animals of myth or parable as Ulysses's dog, Balaam's ass, and the Phœnix. There are both humor and kindliness in the writing of this book. The form is a small quarto and there are many suitable pictures. The dedication in verse is to "a puppy called Angelo." (The Macmillan Company, New York. \$3.) 374

The thirteen years (1789-The Federalist 1801) studied by Professor System J. S. Bassett in this addition to the "American Nation" serial history cover a crucial period in the historical evolution of the United States. On the one hand, those to whom its destinies were intrusted found themselves confronted with the task of erecting a stable and enduring governmental structure under a Constitution variously interpreted by different sections of the country; and, on the other, their ingenuity and patience were taxed to the utmost to prevent the Nation, not yet recovered from the effects of the Revolution, being drawn into another war by the harassing diplomacy of England and France. Internally, too, the period was one of restlessness, and marked by the rise and decline of the Federalist party, the organization of the Republican party, economic growth, and a forward movement in the direction of territorial expansion. All of these facts must be grasped and clearly propounded by the historian, whose task is rendered none the easier by the virulence of the party politics of the time. Professor Bassett, we are glad to find, has acquitted himself with credit. From the literary standpoint his work does not reach any high level; nor is it marked by the originality which gave such distinction to the earlier volumes by, e.g., Professors Bourne and Andrews. But the opportunity for originality was not the same, so thoroughly has this particular period been studied by previous writers, and on the score of accuracy, lucidity, impartiality, perspective, and perception of cause and effect, little fault is to be found. Of especial value is the exposition of Federalist diplomacy and of the development of the Republican party, while the chapters on economic and social conditions are to be commended for the facility with which compactness and comprehensiveness have been united. Generally speaking, the great statesmen of these years of formation are dealt with justly, although none are portrayed with sufficient vividness. We observe, tool an imperfect apprehension of the significance of the events occurring along the Western frontier. Indeed, the treatment of Western questions generally is perhaps the least satisfactory feature of a book which we have perused with pleasure. As is customary in this series, it is equipped with an excellent index and critical bibliography. (Harper & Brothers, New York. \$2, net.)

This fresh volume of essays The Eternal by an English writer who Religion during the last five years has won a large circle of American readers (the "J. B." well known in England by his initials in the "Christian World") has a somewhat more obvious unity and aim than its predecessors. Its literary charm and its ample use of the world's thought and experience insure it a wider interest than its title may seem to invite. In effect it is a cogent vindication of the need of a new theology even more comprehensive and persuasive than that which is so called, because more insistent on the ethical demands of genuine Christianity. Mr. Brierley pleads for "a reinforcement and reconstruction of the Christian idea." Dean Stanley's remark long ago, "What is good science is good theology," is repeated with fresh emphasis to a generation more disposed to believe it: "There is no true revelation that is not science, and there is no true science that is not revelation." These two are simply two aspects of the one reality. Eternal religion is the correlate of an eternal, ever-developing revelation. "Under a never-ceasing guidance and uplift man has slowly clarified his view of God, of his brother, of duty, of sacrifice, of life and death.... That the New Testament is a different book to us from what it was to our fathers is a proof in itself that the revelation continues." In Mr. Brierley's treatment of his subject breadth and discrimination are equally apparent. With nice appreciation of essential sameness or difference, he is intent on the spirit within the form, the reality behind the symbol. Each essay is brief, but prolific in suggestion. Matter for many volumes is compressed here into one. For all religious teachers, and for any who are perplexed with religious problems, it would not be easy to find a more stimulating and helpful book. (Thomas Whittaker, New York. \$1.40.)

This acceptably printed In Memoriam edition of Tennyson's great poem has as its special plaim of interest the fact that for the first time are here published Tennyson's own notes on the poem. addition, there is an introduction to the notes by the present Lord Tennyson, who also acts as general editor. Included in the introduction are interesting comments on the poem from Gladstone and other critics and thinkers of note, together with some illuminating information about Tennyson's religious philosophy. The notes themselves are not always of importance, but frequently they do throw light on the meaning and association of particular lines. (The Macmillan Company, New York. \$1.)

These "essays written in time In Peril of of tranquillity" regard the Change present as a time of unstable equilibrium, and estimate the forces which are working to bring in a new order of things. The approach of this forms the subject of the concluding chapter and gives title to the book. The author, Mr. C. F. G. Masterman, a university man and an accomplished journalist, writes with an incisive pen. The growing discontent with political parties, churches, and existing conditions generally, which characterizes our time, imparts a somber tone and a foreboding note to his estimate of them. Though written for Englishmen, it is largely applicable to us. Here also are the Bourbons, the "stand-patters" of privileged interests, insisting on "the permanence of summer days," and churches which have lost the respect of "workingmen" by failure to emphasize the social message of the Gospel. Here also the all but accomplished capture of our financial metropolis by socialistic interests under the banner of municipal ownership is a close second to the victory that has just ditched British "Conservatives" and carried nearly fifty "Laborites" into Parliament. Profitable reading for us are Mr. Masterman's observations of the ground-swell that presages a change of weather. The first half of it, in essays of high excellence, literary and critical, reviews the lives and the ideals of notable men of the later Victorian period. A second series of essays interprets the phenomena of the present period, literary, religious, sociological, as portending that existing conditions cannot long endure. Though the tone is somber, the expectation is hopeful; the change, whatever its perils, is to be for the better. (B. W. Huebsch, New York. **\$**1.50.)

No. 101 A story of mystery and intrigue in the days of Louis the Fifteenth, by Wymond Carey. No. 101 is a wonderful spy, unknown alike to those he (or she, perhaps) spies on and those he serves. Many persons are anxious to discover the identity of this mysterious person and terminate his activity, among them Madame Pompadour. Their efforts produce complications, conspiracies, and conflicts. The story is entertaining and—but, after all, that is all that such a story needs to be. (G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. \$1.20.)

Mr. Scraggs This collection of tales by Henry Wallace Phillips is after the order of his "Red Saunders" stories, which have had a wide popularity. The tales are uproariously humorous, and the narrator finds a congenial subject in the

extravagance and oddities of the Far Western country, in which cowboys and miners disport themselves after the reckless and amusing fashion of pioneer days. There is no pretense to any exact picturing of real life; the whole thing is burlesque; but it cannot be denied that the travesty is lively and entertaining in a high degree. (Grafton Press, New York. \$1.)

Henryk Sienkiewicz's new On the Field Polish romance, his only work of Glory in fiction within the last five years, has the same qualities that made "With Fire and Sword" and the other books in his famous historical trilogy so vivid and powerful. Here, as there, he overcomes the English reader's natural reluctance to conquer the rough nomenclature of people and places, to feel an interest in the confused and turbulent war-history of early days, and to forgive some unpleasant realism in the depiction of the coarseness and cruelty of the period treated—in this case, that of the famous Sobieski, who at the time of the story is drawing his forces together to oppose the Turks at the second siege of Vienna. A love story of passion and intensity, fighting of the most thrilling kind, dramatic episodes of Polish personal feuds, and graphic pictures of Polish country life-all are brilliantly presented, while the element of humor is supplied by a band of four brothers named after the Evangelists, who are mighty of hand, thick of skull, and warm of heart. Mr. Jeremiah Curtin has translated the book with his usual faithfulness and sympathy with the author's genius. (Little, Brown & Co., Boston. \$1.50.)

Beside his volume of "One Pulpit Power Hundred Best Sermons of and Eloquence the Nineteenth Century" Mr. Frederick M. Barton here puts another-"One Hundred Revival Sermons and Outlines." In it all periods of the Church but the "dark ages" are represented, from Justin Martyr to W. J. Dawson. The selections have been made with aid of suggestions from many advisers. The favorites of these appear to be Spurgeon and Moody, who contribute eleven discourses each. Beecher, Brooks, and Bushnell are drawn upon each for one. From the late Dr. Henry J. van Dyke, father of our genial contemporary, is taken one on "Why Christians Believe in Everlasting Punishment," and from John Leland one on "The General Conflagration" now approaching to destroy the world. Such selections are plain anachronisms, valuable only in a historical estimate. Many others are serviceable to-day. (F. M. Barton, Cleveland, Ohio.)

President Sharpless, of Quakerism and Haverford College, has **Politics** brought together in a neat little volume a number of papers and addresses of peculiar interest at the present moment. They deal in the main with the political conditions of Pennsylvania, past and present, and with the part played by members of the Society of Friends in the politics of that State. Written from the Quaker point of view, they are valuable to non-Quakers as an exposition of the principles underlying Quaker conduct, and to Quakers as a stimulus to definite action in the direction of insuring political reforms. President Sharpless's position, briefly, is that it is unjust to attribute, as has been done by some, the evil political condition of Pennsylvania to the non-militant habits impressed upon it by its Quaker founders; but that it is true that the Quakers of Pennsylvania have, as a general thing, held themselves too much aloof from political activity. "Friends," he warns his Quaker readers, "can never more be that exclusive body which they have been in the past, shutting themselves off from activities which involve temptation, and confining their exertions to charitable and philanthropic work and to other efforts which do not touch adversely their convictions. . . . And a decay of character will come, not as the result of taking up new fields of activity, but as the result of shirking any field of activity in which it is right for us to enter because of dangers and difficulties in the way." Some of the papers (e.g., "The Welsh Settlers of Haverford" and "How the Friends Freed their Slaves") are particularly helpful to

Somerset House, now uti-Somerset House lized by the British Government as a departmental building, has had many romantic associations since it was first built by the Lord Protector from whom it takes its name, and in recounting its history Mr. Raymond Needham and Mr. Alexander Webster have performed a task which will doubtless afford pleasure to a number of readers. The pleasure would have been increased, however, had the authors displayed less antiquarian and architectural zeal and more interest in the human element in the story of the famous palace. Under the Tudors, and still more under the Stuarts, it was a royal residence where centered much social and political activity; and even in the eighteenth century, when it was degenerating into a "humdrum, lodging-pen existence," there occurred within its walls not a little far from "humdrum." Here Elizabeth fre-

the social historian, and all are instructive.

(Ferris & Leach, Philadelphia.)

quently met her council, Henrietta Maria intrigued for the revival of Catholicism, Oliver Cromwell was laid in state, and visiting royalty and ambassadors were entertained. The two authors have, to be sure, devoted a good deal of space to the historical occurrences, but they relate them in a manner devoid of enthusiasm, and with scant effort to make clear their significance. On the other hand, no fault is to be found with the presentation of the evolution of Somerset House itself, its architectural features, its artistic treasures, the changes effected in succeeding generations, etc. Here the writers are full and precise, and the student will find within their pages much to which access is difficult elsewhere. (E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. \$3.50, net.)

The Testimony of St. Paul to Christ

to St. Paul, especially of all the more important ones. Documentary evidence is thus secured

ones. Documentary evidence is thus secured for the main facts of the Evangelic Tradition embodied in the later-written Gospels from a date no further from those facts than we are from Mr. Cleveland's first inaugura-

tion in the Presidency. The Boyle Lectures for 1903, 1904, and 1905, by Dr. R. J. Knowling, Professor in the University of Durham, England, are occupied with a critical review of the discussions which have established this fundamental position, and exhibit the varied significance of its testimony to Christ. The first series takes up the Pauline documents one by one, and undertakes to establish the genuineness of the few that are still in controversy. The second series critically examines the testimony of the letters to the facts and teaching of the Gospels. The third series reviews their testimony in relation to the life of the Church. Taken together, these twenty-four lectures present a masterly review of contemporary critical work in this important field, together with an appraisal of its results. To the discussion of the theories of radical critics, such as van Manen and Schmiedel, which frequently recurs, is added a special lecture on the critical literature of the latest date in Germany, France, and the United States. As a summary and an appreciation of the present fruits of scholarly work on a fourth part of the New Testament such a work is of uncommon value. (Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. \$3,

Letters to The Outlook

THE SITUATION IN PHILADELPHIA

Referring to your article under the above caption in a recent number of The Outlook, I beg to make some corrections. For the errors in your review The Outlook is not at fault, for two newspapers, one of which has done good work for the reform cause, have published false statements of late, and with such emphasis that a few even of the "elect" have been deceived thereby.

The facts are these:

The Lincoln party, the State reform party, which met with signal success in the November election, is working in perfect harmony with the "City party," which confines its work exclusively to city affairs. The Lincoln party has not " made a fight to secure control of the Republican machine," and will make no such effort in the election to be held February 20. Many times the two Philadelphia newspapers above referred to have declared, the one maliciously, the other having been deceived, that John M. Mack is guiding the Lincolnites into the Republican ranks. There is not a word of truth in this statement. Mack is as thoroughly "down and out" as are his "former political and business partners, Durham and McNichol."

The City party has no use whatever for the Republican machine at present. They are now the dominant party by a handsome majority—more than 35,000 in this city—and present indications seem to assure a still larger preponderance in the coming important election.

The only ground for the temporary misleading of our good people along the lines of your last report of our situation was in the fact that one city newspaper aspired to the distinction of capturing the Republican machine for the Independents in conjunction with a most earnest and active reformer, a leader of the last campaign, and a few former office-holders newly converted to the reform cause, and of launching their scheme upon the public. It was promptly and emphatically repudiated. The scheme is scotched, and now perfect harmony reigns among the hosts of reformers.

Philadelphia. Francis B. Reeves.

WAS THOMAS A SKEPTIC?

In your editorial of December 16 the writer saw but one occasion for criticism, and that only as to the letter, but not as to the evidently intended meaning, in "Conversion did not change him." But the critics of

January 6 present most exaggerated examples of drawing upon one's imagination for facts. We are told that Thomas was not more skeptical than Peter, who thought the stories of the women idle tales. The record is, "seemed to them," etc. If, after a second thought, Peter held the same opinion, why the next sentence, as in the New Version, "But Peter arose and ran," or, as in the Old, "Then arose," etc. Where is Thomas? For he had at this time the same evidence as Peter (Luke xxiv. 9). Each acted in accord with his peculiar temperament. But why try to exonerate Thomas by slandering Peter? True, some doubted, but who shall say that "them" in Luke xxiv. 11, and "His disciples" in Mark xiv. 7, were not the same? Here the words were "His disciples and Peter." These doubted the women, who might have been mistaken, when frightened and overcome with grief, as others failed to recognize him when walking toward Emmaus; but Thomas doubted not only the women, but the other ten, nor would he even investigate. Your critic refers to Thomas as a "sensible, sane, serious-minded man." Mark says, "He . . . upbraided them for their unbelief," etc. Luke quotes, "O fools, and slow of heart," and John, "Blessed are they that have not seen and yet have believed." Was Thomas, then, in this respect the ideal of Jesus?

The next critic dates the church organization at or after the day of Pentecost, and thinks it unfair to look for Christian discipleship or doctrine previous. Yet Jesus had ordained the Apostles, given them authority to remit sins, and sent them to the world, ordering them to wait for a further baptism of the Holy Ghost. Was there no organization of these one hundred and twenty, waiting in prayer? If not, then to what were the three thousand added (Acts ii. 4)? If our theologians manufacture no dogma beyond that of the pentecostal sermon, they will neither be wise beyond nor contrary to what is written. The writer admits being skeptical enough to think it possible, and fair, to go back of the Pentecost to discover much of the meaning of both Christian discipleship and doctrine, even to the words of the Great Teacher, and that the work of this second day of the Feast of the Passover was but supplemental to the constant teaching and familiar with John xx. 29, or consider themselves exponents of more advanced thought, may be left for their consideration; evidently the Creator intended some to be conservative, like Thomas, and some impulsively radical, like Peter, and who shall say that the latter is less sane, useful, or blessed?—one the propelling power, and the other the brakes upon the car of progress.

A READER.

COMMENTS ON COMMENTS

Two comments in The Outlook fill me with wonder. One is on "Musicians and Labor Unions" and the other "The Doom of Political Autocracy." In the first you speak of "musicians lowering their calling and injuring their economic standing by regarding themselves as laborers." Is it, then, degrading to labor? As I understand the purpose of labor unions, it is to protect their members from the tyranny of capital. Their purpose is purely economic. In what way do musicians lose their economic standing in joining the one organization that has made an attempt to raise the economic standing of all labor, and has pretty well succeeded in doing it? As for lowering their calling, do you infer that their calling is higher than that of other laborers? Assuming that it is, instead of lowering their own, are they not rather raising the standard of the labor organization by joining it? Are not the wrongs of all employees of capital the same? Perhaps I should say the economic wrongs.

Personally, I have suffered from the tyranny of labor unions, as have all people who have ever had business dealings with them. On the other hand, we suffer from the oppression of capital, and our personal sympathy must be set aside and the situation regarded as the results of causes. Musicians have ioined the labor unions because they have been driven to it by the same need of protection against capital that created the first labor organization. It is not the purpose of the union to "determine in what fashion a work of music should be performed," but to insist upon moderate hours of work and living wages for its members employed. Orchestral players, chorus singers, and all other musical performers have the same need of these that other laborers have. Joining a labor organization has evidently been their only means of getting them.

of the meaning of both Christian discipleship and doctrine, even to the words of the Great Teacher, and that the work of this second day of the Feast of the Passover was but supplemental to the constant teaching and example of the Master for the three years previous. Whether your critics are not familiar with John xx. 29, or consider themselves exponents of more advanced thought, may be left for their consideration; evidently the Creator intended some to be conservative, like Thomas, and some impulsively radical, like Peter, and who shall say that

Chicago.

Autocrat of Abbé Barrack Blithedale Courtship of Emerson's Evangeline the Breakfast Room Ballads Miles Standish Constantin Romance Early Table **Poems** Longfellow Halévy **Kipling** Longfellow Hawthorne Holmes Cranford Poe's lubscribers to **Poems** Gaakell The Outlook Dream Life Prue and I Mitchell Curtie have the opportunity to secure one The Professor Abbé Daniel or more of the volumes indicated at the Breakfast Table Theuriet Holmes in the margins of this announce-English Reveries of ment by distributing a package of Traits a Bachelor Emerson Mitchell The Outlook Post Card Attic Rubaiyat of Philosopher Omar Khayyam Sonvestre Each card carries with it considerable value and may be used in your correspondence. Shakespeare's **Favorite** Songs and **Poems** Sonnets The Books **Falence** Tales from Violin are printed on fine paper, with fancy titles, pho-Shakespeare Champfleury togravure frontispieces, and other illustrations. Bound in full flexible cochineal levant grain Tartarin of **Fadette** the Alps leather, with gilt tops, silk markers, gold tooling George Sand Daudet on back and side, and fancy end leaves. Each book in a box. Retail at \$1.25 each. Tartarin of Hiawatha Tarascon Longiellow Daudet Full particulars as to how these books may be obtained will be sent with each package of cards. House of Vicar of Seven Gables Wakefield Hawthorne THE OUTLOOK, 287 Fourth Ave., New York Goldsmith Iceland Walden Fisherman Send to Thoreau Loti Mylls of Walton's the King Angler Tennyson Lady of Whittier's the Lake a package of Outlook Post Cards. Early Poems Scott Light of My Uncle Longfellow's Lucile L'Avril Ăsia and My Curé Early Meredith Marguerite **Poems** La Brète Arnold



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The Outlook

Volume 82

Saturday, February 24, 1906

Number 8

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THE OUTLOOK is a Weekly Newspaper and an Illustrated Monthly Magazine in one. It is published every Saturday—fifty-two issues a year. The fourth issue in each month is an Illustrated Magazine Number, containing about twice as many pages as the regular weekly issue, and many pictures.

PRICE.—The subscription price is Three Dollars a year, payable in advance. Ten cents a copy.

POSTAGE IS PREPAID by the publishers for all subscriptions in the United States, Hawaiian Islands, Philippine Islands, Guam, Porto Rico, Tutuila (Samoa), Shanghai, Canal Zone, Cuba, Canada, and Mexico. For all other countries in the Postal Union add \$1.56 for postage.

CHANGE OF ADDRESS.—When a change of address is ordered, both the new and the old address must be given. The notice should be sent one week before the change is to take effect.

DISCONTINUANCES.—If a subscriber wishes his copy of The Outlook discontinued at the expiration of his subscription, notice to that effect should be sent. Otherwise it is assumed that a continuance of the subscription is desired.

HOW TO REMIT.—Remittances should be sent by Draft on New York, Express-Order, or Money-Order, payable to order of The Outlook Company. Cash should be sent in Registered Letter.

LETTERS should be addressed:

THE OUTLOOK COMPANY

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The Outlook

SATURDAY, FEBRUARY 24, 1906

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The Ship Subsidy Bill The bill granting subventions to some owners of some ships

passed the Senate by a vote of 38 to 27. Five Republicans, including both of the Senators from Wisconsin, joined with the Democrats in opposition, and the fact that so stanch a Republican and protectionist as Senator Spooner was among the number is significant. There was no debate worthy of the name, and the opinion is widely and confidently expressed that the House will not pass this bill or one substantially like it. is true that the bill, so far as possible, disguises subsidy as mail subvention: but the distinction is clear in principle between paying for mail-carrying because the service rendered is worth having at the rate paid, for the good of international postal work, and paying large sums in order to encourage shipbuilding and support the business of ship-owners. As it passed the Senate the bill establishes thirteen new contract mail lines, and increases the subvention to the oceanic line running from the Pacific coast to Australasia. The new lines include three to the Far East and ten to Mexico, Central and South America; three of the lines would leave Atlantic ports, four Pacific ports, and six ports of the Gulf of Mexico. All ships receiving subvention are to be of over 1,000 tons, and the aggregate compensation would be at first about \$3,000,000 yearly, and would grow larger; but increased tonnage rates would, it is claimed, offset this to some extent. A subvention is granted at the rate of \$5 per gross ton per year to cargo vessels engaged in the foreign trade of the United States, and at the rate of \$6.50 per ton to vessels engaged in the Philippine trade, the Philippine coastwise law being postponed until 1909. The Outlook has repeatedly recorded its belief that the

theory that the whole people may be taxed to provide bounties for a comparative few carrying on one particular business is totally vicious in principle, and here reasserts the belief and applies it to the measure now in question.

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Railway Rate la

The principal feature of last week's discussion in Congress on the subject

of railway rate regulation was Senator Lodge's speech. He divided the grievances against the railways into (1) rebates, or discrimination between persons; (2) excessive rates; (3) discrimination between localities. As Mr. Lodge says, the present law has undoubtedly largely checked railway rebates, but it has not entirely stopped them. To make the law thoroughly efficient, he would add three provisions. The former penalties, now repealed, of the Inter-State Commerce Law should be restored, and secret evasions of the published rates should be made punishable by imprisonment; for those who evade the law suffer little by a fine, even if it be heavy, as their financial resources are large; they would, however, feel acutely a punishment by imprisonment. Next, there should be a provision to facilitate the procuring of evidence by the Government's law officers, and, finally, the enactment of provisions in regard to private car lines, switching charges, midnight rates, etc. As to the second grievance—that of excessive rates—the experience of other countries shows, he said, that whatever good effects Government rate-making has had, it has not lowered rates; on the contrary, it has made them not only higher, but inelastic. The remedy for the third grievance—that of discrimination between localities—ought not, in Mr. Lodge's opinion, to go beyond the fixing of a

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maximum rate by the Commission, with "the most absolute protection against hasty or prejudiced action through provision for an appeal to the courts." We would add that the pending Hepburn bill expressly admits the power of the carrier to appeal against the Commission's orders, in case the rate is claimed to be confiscatory, but, in the opinion of those conservatively inclined, the language is not sufficiently explicit and far-reaching in defining the courts' power, certainly not as much so as was that of the Esch-Townsend bill passed a year ago. Mr. Lodge said:

I am not yet prepared to substitute for the courts of the United States an executive commission. . . . Legislation cannot prevent an appeal to the courts if it is alleged that the rate is confiscatory; but this is a very narrow ground and a very limited right. A rate may not be absolutely confiscatory, and yet may be in the highest degree unjust and unreasonable, and, indeed, well-nigh ruinous. I am not sure that it would be possible to deprive a citizen by legislation of the right to appeal to the courts as to the justice and reasonableness of a given rate, which is a purely judicial question.

In sympathy with the above, the Senate Committee on Inter-State Commerce has been considering an amendment providing that a carrier may question in the courts the Commission's decisions as to a maximum rate, together with all the testimony on which that decision was reached. The Committee has also voted favorably on two amendments, the first enlarging the membership of the Inter-State Commerce Commission to nine members, fixing their tenure of office at nine years and their salaries at \$10,000, as in the original draft of the Hepburn bill; the second fixing the liabilities of railways on bills of lading in cases of negligence. A possibly equally important event of the week was the introduction by Senator Elkins of a new railway rate regulation bill, the most significant section of which provides that, if the Inter-State Commerce Commission exceeds its powers, or does an unlawful act, the carrier affected may apply to the United States Circuit Court for a restraining order, and the Court may, in its discretion, suspend all or part of the Commission's findings, pending the final determination of the case, the carrier

giving bond covering the sum for which it might become liable in the final decree. It is always easier for the carrier to give a bond covering the time of appeal than for the shipper to pay the excessive rate until the difference is awarded to him by the court of appeal.

(2)

Senator Lodge, in com-Railway Rates paring railway rates in in Germany this country and in Europe, referred to the rates established in Germany by the Government, which operates almost all the roads, as complicated and inelastic, abounding in discriminations (not in the way of rebates or to individuals, but founded on localities and the nature of the articles and industries), with the result, he said, that rates are fifty per cent. higher than our own. This disagrees with the statement about German railways contained in an article by Mr. Russell, lately summarized in The Outlook. The actual facts are stated, presumably with accuracy, in a report by commissioners recently sent by the Prussian Government to the United States to study American railway systems. Their statement shows that such contradictory assertions as we have just referred to arise from not taking into account all the facts concerned. The German commissioners find that the average passenger rate in Prussia (which may be taken as fairly representative of German railway systems) is 0.98 cents as compared with 2.02 cents in America, while it would appear at first sight that the freight rates average 0.78 cents per ton per mile in the United States against 1.36 in Prussia. That conclusion is fallacious because the American figures include freight carried for the railways themselves for which no charge is made, while the Prussian statistics include only freight actually paid for. It is also true that the apparently lower American rate is affected by the fact that it does not include the express companies' business, nor the large sums received by the American lines for carrying the mails, nor does it take account of the fact that the Prussian lines carry an immense amount of postal-package matter for the

Government which owns them, while the American roads carry similar matter for the express companies and receive large pay for it. The commissioners. taking into account these important statistics, conclude that a proper figure for the American average freight rate would really be 1.44 cents per ton per mile, while that for the Prussian railways would be 0.95. This explanation is not only valuable as throwing light on relative rates where the Government has a voice in the fixing of rates and where it has not but also as an illustration of the ease with which false deductions may be drawn from figures perfectly correct but not complete.

The American consular service Consular has never been either a properly paying or a permanent serv-Special attention was called to the ice. first of these faults last week by the resignation of Mr. Davidson, our Consul at Antung, Manchuria, on the ground that he is no longer able to eke out his consular salary by his private income. Mr. Davidson has been an efficient consular officer, serving with distinction at Shanghai and Nanking before being transferred to Antung. His knowledge of the special conditions now prevailing in China is, of course, hardly to be possessed by any man who has not had Mr. Davidson's nine years of service. Davidson's special training and equipment would be peculiarly valuable at this time, not only because we must use such a consular officer for our instruction in avoiding further difficulties with the Chinese, but also because in Mr. Davidson we have an exemplar of the now historic Hay policy, which may have alone preserved China from being partitioned among the Powers, and also made possible the growth of a normal, self-respecting Government there. cause our consular service cannot offer living salaries, in many positions, therefore, there can be no continuity of policy, save as a raw recruit can apprehend it. Why is not the consular service properly paid and why is it not permanent? Because it is not based upon the intelligent and careful choice of men which would distinguish a commercial house in sending agents abroad. But a commercial house is not influenced by political considerations. should our Government be. Members of Congress are at last paying some heed to the persistent appeals for consular reform, for some of the provisions of the bill supported by Secretary Root have been passed by the Senate. We earnestly trust that the House will not only confirm this action but improve on it. influence in that direction is the call just issued for a consular convention to be held March 13 and 14 in Washington. Among the influential organizations supporting the call are, the Board of Trade and Transportation, the Manufacturers' Association, and the Produce Exchange of New York City; the Chamber of Commerce and the Merchants' Association of Boston, the Board of Trade and the Trades League of Philadelphia, the Board of Trade of Chicago, and the Chambers of Commerce of Baltimore. Buffalo, Cleveland, and San Francisco.

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When the investigation of The Guilty fraud and bribery in the Punished Post-Office Department began, there were not wanting those who professed to doubt its sincerity and thoroughness, while a larger number scoffed at the idea that actual punishment would be meted out to those accused men who had been highest in office and strongest in political and departmental influence. But last week George W. Beavers followed August W. Machen into imprisonment. These two men, if not more guilty than others, were at the head of the conspiracy, and were most to be condemned because they were most trusted by the Government and were most deeply involved in a breach of confidence. From the beginning of the prosecution it has been clear that the Administration would be satisfied with nothing less than the substantial punishment of these criminals, and both, after trying every turn of evasion and the law's delay, have been driven to a plea of guilty and the acceptance of sentences of two and four years' confinement in the penitentiary, lest worse should befall them if they

fought their indictments in open court. Moreover, seven other convictions have been obtained by the Government, and one or more cases still await settle-In this sharp and severe treatment of men who violated trust and made wrongful profit out of their public offices, as in the case of the disaster and disgrace that have fallen on hitherto respected men because of the insurance disclosures, there is to be found a tonic for the public's moral health. The very fact that social and personal qualities make such men liked and arouse a certain sympathy not felt for coarser criminals adds to the effect of the lesson. The cheap pessimists who are always sneering at honest ideals, and asserting that in dealing with cities or the Nation everybody will take graft if he can get it, will learn that outward respectability does not secure safety from penalty, and that even the possession of political influence may not protect the guilty. The Government has carried on these investigations and prosecutions for two years without the slightest regard for the accused's party affiliation, without stinting expense, and with tireless persistence. The result has amply repaid the effort, not in the infliction of suffering upon delinquents, but in vindicating public honor and justice.

8

Conspicuous among

the events of the past

Internal Dissension Among the Mine Workers

several weeks emphasizing what appears at this writing to be a drifting of the United Mine Workers toward a widespread strike of the coal mine employees of the entire country on April 1, have been the internal dissensions among prominent officials and members of this organization. These differences culminated last week in the issuing of an injunction by Pittsburg Common Pleas Court No. 2, upon the application of Patrick Dolan, President of District 5 (Western Pennsylvania), restraining the District Convention then in session from removing him from the presidency, or from interfering with his performance of the duties of that office. John Mitchell, the National President of the organization, had previously ruled that the District Convention possessed such authority under the organization's constitution, regardless of the fact that the district president is elected by the members of the district union and not by its convention. The incident indicates a significant division, however small, among the officials as to the advisability of the strike policy outlined by the National Convention, since the Pittsburg district employs nearly 75,000 mine workers, of whom approximately 28,000 are members of the union. These do not appear to approve of President Dolan's attitude, as their District Convention has adopted a resolution declaring vacant the offices of president and vice-president. On the floor of the National Convention the delegates from this district, by an almost unanimous vote, denounced the action of President Dolan in voting with the operators in the Inter-State Joint Conference of the central competitive territory for a continuance of the present wage scale. The feeling against the action of President Dolan was also heightened by his vote, which was one of only three, against a resolution passed by the National Convention to the effect that no contract be signed in any district until all districts reach a settlement. This resolution has received much attention in the press, and is interpreted quite generally as meaning that the anthracite mine employees are prevented from entering into any agreement with their employers unless the soft-coal miners also secure a satisfactory contract. But as the inter-State joint conferences for the central competitive soft-coal territory (western Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois), and the southwestern fields (Missouri, Kansas, Arkansas, Indian Territory, and Texas), have so far failed in securing such contracts, it would more than ever appear that the National Convention had in view a general suspension of coal-mining.

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The Conference in New York

Despite this conclusion from the facts before us, representatives of anthracite mine employees and hard-coal operators met in New York last week

A proposed

presumably with the object of entering into an agreement governing wages and conditions of employment in that industry after March 31, when the Anthracite Coal Strike Commission's award expires. Nothing definite as to the progress of this conference, other than the submission of the mine workers' demands and the appointment of sub-committees to take up these demands for discussion. has been made public. It is the belief of persons well informed as to the policy of the United Mine Workers that if a satisfactory agreement can be made with the anthracite operators the resolution of the National Convention above referred to can be rescinded by a special con-Notwithstanding the peace vention. outlook for the anthracite fields, the internal dissensions among the leaders of the mine workers tend rather to encourage open hostilities with the bituminous coal operators. President Mitchell is on record in the proceedings of the National Convention as well as of the Inter-State Joint Conference that "so far as my advice may be followed, the United Mine Workers of America will not accept a settlement on the basis of the present wage contract." This means, of course, that unless the operators recede from their positive and reiterated position in opposition to any wage increase there will be a suspension of coal-mining on April 1 in the larger number of the thirty-one coal-producing States and Territories. It was to prevent such an outcome, claims District President Dolan in a letter to the public, that he voted as he did to continue the present con-"I know," he says, "that, in the face of the resolution to tie up all districts until all have settled, nothing but a miracle or a complete backdown upon the part of the miners would avert a tremendous strike, the end of which none can foresee, but which threatens us and the country with terrible loss. was alone in my vote, but I was not alone in my opinion." There can be no question that President Mitchell has the confidence and will have the support of the rank and file of the more than 300,-000 members of his organization, despite the fact that the dissensions reported from Pittsburg will affect mine workers

here and there throughout the country. Judging from the expressed sentiments of the delegates at the Indianapolis convention last month, the United Mine Workers organization is carrying the country towards a great industrial war. There is still hope that such a catastrophe will be averted by a reconvening of the Inter-State Joint Conferences and National Convention before April 1. In the meantime the coal-mining industry is receiving attention from other quarters.



Congressional Investigation of Coal-Carrying Railroads

investigation of the softcoal carrying railroads by Congress has developed gradually out of the debate in the House on the Hepburn bill for regulating inter-State commerce. It first took form in the resolution by Representative Gillespie, of Texas, calling upon the President to have the Inter-State Commerce Commission report to the House the status of what is known as the Pennsylvania Railroad "community of interest" and its relation to the Inter-State Commerce Law. The report transmitted to the House by the Commission merely recited wellknown facts as to the relations between the Pennsylvania, the Baltimore and Ohio, the Chesapeake and Ohio, the Norfolk and Western, and the Northern Central railroad companies, through the ownership of stock and the holding of directorships in these various companies. The report proved unsatisfactory to the House, and a more drastic resolution was passed, calling upon the Inter-State Commerce Commission to make a sweeping investigation of the Pennsylvania "community of interest" arrangement and to report its findings to the House. In the meantime the Senate, having begun its debate upon the railway rate regulation issue, also naturally drifted into a resolution somewhat similar in purport to that of the House. It was introduced by Senator Tillman, of South Carolina, and after detailing in general terms charges of discrimination and favoritism by railroads in their relation to coalmining companies, and alleging a combination of common carriers in restraint

of trade, the resolution authorizes and instructs the Inter-State Commerce Commission to investigate and report: First, whether any railroads own or have any interest in, by means of stock ownership in other corporations or otherwise, any of the coal or other products which they carry over their lines. Second, whether the officers of any railroads (including those distributing cars or furnishing facilities to shippers) are interested, by means of stock ownership or otherwise, in corporations or companies owning, operating, leasing, or otherwise interested in any coal mines, coal properties, or any other traffic over the railroads with which they are connected or employed. Third, whether there is a combination in restraint of trade among the carriers of bituminous coal, and, if there is a monopoly in the soft-coal industry, to what extent are the output of coal mines and the price of coal limited and The Commission is also to controlled. report the effects of such conditions, if they are found to exist as described, upon independent coal operators and the consumers of coal. A very important provision of the resolution is that requiring the Commission to investigate and report the system of car distribution in effect upon the several railway lines engaged in the transportation of bituminous coal, and whether the systems are fair and equitable and carried out fairly and properly. The Commission is required to suggest a remedy as well as to report any facts or conclusions which it may think pertinent to the general inquiry. The resolution has been adopted by the Senate by an almost unanimous vote, which action followed the reading of a letter from Governor Dawson, of West Virginia, who claims in substance that West Virginia is in the grasp of a monopoly of which the chief offender is the Pennsylvania Railroad.

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At the same time that Congress was engaged with its resolutions of inquiry into the soft-coal carrying railroads, the situation existing in consequence of the arrangement among the eight anthracite-carrying railroads

was receiving attention from the Legislature of Pennsylvania. That body has passed a resolution directing the Attorney-General of the State to inquire into the conditions under which railroads are engaged in hard-coal mining contrary to the State Constitution, and, if he finds that conditions warrant such a proceeding, to institute suit against such companies. President Baer, of the Reading system practically the dominating head of the hard-coal carrying systems—replied to the resolution in a letter to the public in which he explains the status of his company in its relation to the State Constitution, claiming that it is not engaged in coal-mining in violation of the State Constitution, but that, on the contrary, these rights are explicitly conferred upon it by its charter, granted prior to the adoption of the present Constitution. President Baer also gives figures as to the distribution of the cost making up the increase in the price of coal the past several years, and invites an investigation of the books of his company. This opportunity the Pennsylvania Legislature seized upon at once. and has created a commission for the purpose of examining into conditions among the anthracite carriers which are subject to the laws of Pennsylvania.

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The recent tendency

Taxation of toward the abandon-Personal Property ment of the tax on personal property because of the inequities of its operation is emphasized by statements issued by Governor Folk, of Missouri, in connection with his appointment of a Commission to report on the revenue laws of the State to the Legislature at its next session. The Governor says that the State's revenues are in such shape that it may dispense with the personal property tax, and may secure a sufficient income from real estate, from the public service corporations, and from other forms of property. His reasons for singling out personal property for exemption so far as taxation for State purposes is concerned are those commonly urged by modern authorities on

the subject.

makes a true return," he says, "the

"The honest man who

farmer, and those whose personal property is visible will pay less under the proposed system. The man who now dodges will pay more." He points out the obvious fact that a farmer's stock, machinery, and crops are readily found by the assessor, and that estates of widows and orphans that go through the probate court must pay in full, while the personal property of well-to-do business men frequently escapes taxation. Since the State has a surplus of revenue, the Governor urges that these considerations make it advisable to exempt personal property rather than to lower the tax rate. His suggestion, of course, has to do with State taxes only. He would leave it to the various communities to determine whether personalty shall be taxed for local purposes. Two of the members of the tax commission whom Governor Folk has appointed are Dr. Isidor Loeb, Professor of Political Science in the University of Missouri, and Mr. F. N. Judson, the eminent St. Louis attorney, and author of a volume on "Taxation in Missouri," in which the abandonment of the personal property tax is advocated. It is significant that an influential Governor in such an important matter should have ranged himself with the experts in political science. The Outlook hopes that the State of Missouri will adopt Governor Folk's recommendation, and so set an example for other States to follow. It is a wise because a just change in taxation.

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The contest over the Rapid Transit in Elsberg Rapid Transit New York City Bill now before the Cities Committee of the New York State Senate has two entirely distinct aspects which should not be confused. First, there is a disagreement as to what the chief provision of the hill actually means, and what its effect would be if enacted. It is claimed, on the one hand, by those who favor the bill in its present form, that it merely permits the Board of Rapid Transit Commissioners to let separate contracts for the construction and operation of future subways. On the other side it is contended that the bill would make the separation of construction and

operating contracts compulsory. ambiguity which makes possible such diametrically opposed interpretations by intelligent men stamps the bill, in the opinion of The Outlook, as a bad one. No measure should be enacted into law which is not perfectly clear in meaning. Besides this difference of opinion as to what the bill really provides, there is a more fundamental disagreement as to what it ought to provide. The radical believers in municipal operation as well as municipal ownership of rapid transit lines favor such an amendment as would be mandatory upon the Rapid Transit Commission to separate construction and operating contracts, and would prohibit the letting of a contract for operation until the road should be substantially completed. The movement to secure such a provision seems to The Outlook an attempt to secure municipal operation by indirection. If no bids for a contract to operate a subway could be asked for until the subway were completed, it might very easily happen that the city would find itself without any adequate offers, and compelled to operate the road itself. Whether municipal operation is desirable or not we do not here discuss. But if the principle is to be adopted, it should be done in an open and straightforward way, and not through a measure that purports to aim at something else. The conservative view. probably held chiefly by those who are interested in the present transportation companies in New York, is that the present subway is so successful that the Legislature should let well enough alone. The middle ground between these extremes is held, among others, by the City Club, which has prepared a bill as a substitute for that of Senator Elsberg. The bill provides in unmistakably clear language that the Rapid Transit Commission shall be given full discretion, subject to the approval of the Board of Estimate and Apportionment, to let contracts for construction, equipment, and operation, either separately or jointly, in any way that will in their judgment provide rapid transit facilities most quickly and most advantageously to the city. It further provides that any contract for the operation of a future subway shall

expire in 1954, when that for the present subway expires, or at an earlier date if so determined by the Commission. Outlook believes that this bill should be substituted for the Elsberg measure, and should be passed. It would make more certain the preservation of the principle that the city shall own its subways, no matter who operates them. It would place the Rapid Transit Commission and the Board of Estimate and Apportionment in a strategic position with regard to the interests which are aiming to secure absolute control of the rapid transit facilities of New York City. It would permit municipal operation whenever the people of the city should demand it through their representatives on those boards, or whenever the offers for private operation should prove unsatisfactory or inadequate.

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A great effort in the South Legislation is going on in behalf of for Children children this winter. In Maryland, for instance (outside of Baltimore and three other counties), there is no restriction whatever on the work of children: and in Baltimore, where there is nominally restriction, they are free to work if they have dependent relatives or are dependent on themselves. The bill before the Maryland Legislature provides that no children shall work at any industry until they are really twelve years old, the age limit to be increased the following year to thirteen, and the next year to fourteen. It will apply in all the counties and to all children. whether with dependent relatives or not, since the community can look after such relatives in a more economical way than by ruining the health of little children for a pittance. For five successive years an attempt has been made to get similar legislation in Georgia, but every year the number of children at work in Georgia factories has increased. Children who ought to be in the kindergarten work all night in the cotton-mills. While the women at the meeting of the National Suffrage Association lately held in Baltimore were discussing this problem, and during the night, while they were sleep-

ing, there were in Maryland many hun-

dred little boys, only nominally twelve years old, working all night in the glass works, and very small messenger boys were threading the streets. In New York conditions are as serious, for children almost too young to enter the primary school—"five, six, seven, and eight years old-are working in cellars and garrets, sewing on buttons. making artificial flowers, and doing other real work," instead of being at school and According to the last census we have 580,000 children between the ages of ten and fourteen who can neither read nor write, native-born Americans. In this country two millions of children under sixteen are earning their own living. Great hope is entertained for an improvement of conditions in Southern districts if the bill before Congress for the regulation of child labor in the District of Columbia and the bill to provide a bureau in the interests of children can be passed. The chief emphasis of the Suffrage Association meeting was on the work for children. Whatever else that meeting stood for, it stood for the higher education of all who are capable of taking it, the general education of all citizens, and the safeguarding of the little ones, and no one was more earnest in supporting the convention in these efforts than Dr. Ira Remsen, President of Johns Hopkins University, and Dr. Welch, Professor of Pathology, who presided on different evenings.

6

The Chicago City Coun-Chicago Gets cil, on February 8, passed 85-Cent Gas an ordinance reducing the price of gas from one dollar to 85 cents per thousand cubic feet. The companies affected had indicated their willingness in advance to accept the reduced rate, and to put it into effect at once without protest or litigation. This action is the culmination of a long agitation in Chicago for cheaper gas. The amount of the reduction was not sufficient to satisfy many elements, as there was a widespread demand for 75-cent The new rate, however, is to be operative only for a five-year period, after which a still further reduction may be ordered. Fifteen or twenty years ago

Chicago tried to get cheaper gas through the introduction of competing companies. Franchises were granted to new groups of promoters, but it was not long before these new concerns were subject to the control of the old company, the People's Gas Light and Coke Company. trust that was formed, however, was declared illegal by the courts; consequently, in 1897, at the same time that the scandalous street railway legislation was passed by the General Assembly, the gas companies secured the passage of two laws designed to legalize their mo-One authorized the consolidanopoly. tion of existing companies, and the other made it unlawful for the City Council to grant any further gas franchises except upon conditions as to frontage, consents that were practically impossible of fulfillment. The people were so disgusted with the outcome of the efforts to secure relief through competing companies that they made no effort to bring about the repeal of these measures. There did develop, however, a strong sentiment in favor of legal regulation of the price of gas. In 1900 the City Council passed an ordinance fixing the price of gas at 75 cents, although recognizing that it probably lacked the power from the Legislature to enforce such an ordinance. This ordinance has been in litigation ever since. The Illinois Legislature at its last session passed a law conferring upon the Chicago City Council the express power to regulate the price of gas.

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After this measure was Fixing the Price adopted the companies indicated a disposition to come to a peaceable settlement with the city. The Ogden Gas Company was already selling gas at 90 cents within the very limited territory served by it. The People's Gas Light and Coke Company offered to reduce its price from \$1 to 90 cents. It presented to the Council committee figures showing the cost of manufacture and distribution of gas to be 53½ cents. This company, which has a capitalization of \$68,000,000, claimed that it was entitled to 35 cents per thousand feet as a reasonable allowance for interest charges and dividends.

The Ogden Gas Company gave its cost of manufacture and distribution as 491/2 cents. The companies would not make public their accounts, but the People's Company allowed a firm of accountants named by the committee to go over its books to verify the figures given, under a pledge of secrecy as to everything but the conclusions arrived at. This firm found the cost of manufacture and distribution, as shown by the company's books, to be 45½ cents per thousand feet instead of 53½ cents, as had been claimed. The accountants contended that certain items, the character of which they did not explain, carried on the company's books were not properly chargeable to cost. The figures of 45 1/2 cents included six cents per thousand feet for renewals and repairs. Professor E. W. Bemis, Superintendent of the Water Department of Cleveland, Mr. E. G. Cowdery, Manager of the St. Louis Gas Company, and Mr. Alexander C. Humphreys, President of Stevens Institute and formerly connected with the United Gas Improvement Company of Philadelphia, were called in as experts. They substantially agreed that the cost of manufacture and distribution of gas, including ten cents per thousand feet for renewals and repairs, should be about 52 cents. The differences of opinion arose over the proper amount that should be allowed for interest and profit. The whole question of reasonableness turned upon whether allowance should be made for the water in the capitaliza-The companies admitted that their capitalization was greater than the actual investment in the plants, but said that they had been obliged to buy up competing companies to which the city had unwisely granted franchises to enter the field, and that this element in their capitalization must be taken into consideration. Professor Bemis ignored these claims, and, on the basis of his estimated value of the tangible property, contended that 75 cents was a reasonable rate. Mayor Dunne took strong ground in favor of an ordinance fixing 75 cents as the maximum rate. The committee and the City Council were moved to compromise on the 85-cent rate largely by the consideration that the companies

would put it into operation at once without protest, whereas an attempt to pass an ordinance fixing a lower rate would be met by litigation and delay. At the meeting of the Chicago City Council on February 14 Mayor Dunne vetoed the 85-cent gas ordinance, but the measure was immediately passed over his veto by the vote of 57 to 10. The new rate goes into effect at once, and gas used during the month of February will be charged for at the reduced price. In vetoing the ordinance Mayor Dunne contended that 85 cents was not low enough; that the companies at that rate ought at least to furnish free gas to the city, and that the ordinance otherwise contained features detrimental to public interests.

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The accession to power Sidney Sonnino, as Prime Minister of Prime Minister Baron Sidney Sonnino marks a distinct phase in Italian political development. The Liberals and the Radicals have had their chance; the logical result of their long enjoyment of power is now seen in the return of Conservative control. As in England the Conservatives must expiate their shortcomings so in Italy the Radicals must. He would be a churlish critic, however. who would not give full credit to the Radicals for what they have done for Italy, especially to ex-Premier Giolitti for his astute action during the general strike, by which he succeeded in forcing the Socialists into two camps—State Socialists and revolutionaries. Ex Premier Fortis, who has just retired from office, though perhaps as much of an opportunist as Signor Giolitti, was less successful as a leader. However, in the adjustment of State ownership of railways to the demands of labor, Signor Fortis proved an unexpectedly able negotiator. Towards the Roman Catholic Church the attitude of Radicals has been one of an assumed ignoring of the existence of that body. The absurdity of such a course has borne its own fruit. Sincere Roman Catholics who are also sincere supporters of the Government have no notion of being cut off from a part in the civil administration, despite Pius IX.'s encyclical declaring that it was not expedient for faithful sons of the Church to vote at Government elections. As years went by, the encyclical lost more and more of its force and now has been practically abrogated by Pius X.

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When a new session of any The British British Parliament opens, Parliament there is always a great crowd outside the Houses at Westminster cheering or hooting, according to their political bias, the better-known members, while never-failing enthusiasm is evoked by the arrival of the Yeomen of the Guard to make the search of the vaults, lest another Guy Fawkes lie in waiting there to blow up Parliament! Of course in these respects last week's assembling of Parliament proved no exception to the rule. Inside the Houses, however, there were exceptional scenes because of the new Parliament itself. The leaders were cheered by their adherents in the House of Commons, the Conservatives trying to veil the recent electoral table-turning and the consequent fewness of their members by extra enthusiasm. official called "Black Rod" finally entered and summoned the Commons to the House of Lords, where five royal commissioners wearing robes of scarlet and ermine sat on a bench in front of the throne to receive the Commoners and to deliver the royal commission opening Parliament. The Lord Chancellor then announced that, as soon as the members of both Houses had been sworn, the King "would declare the cause of his calling Parliament together," adding that the "gentlemen of the House of Commons" must appoint "some proper person" to be their Speaker and " present him on the following day for his Majesty's approval." Upon the Commoners' withdrawal the peers met to present their writs and subscribe to the oath, those who had recently succeeded to their titles being introduced in their Meanwhile the Commons had robes. proceeded to the election of a Speaker. The clerk of the House, who is not allowed to speak, solemnly arose and pointed his finger at Sir Wilfrid Lawson, the oldest member in point of service. In his turn Sir Wilfrid arose and, ad-

dressing the clerk, moved in set phraseology the re-election of Mr. James William Lowther. In accordance with precedent, there was no opposition; Mr. Lowther expressed his thanks, and the House adjourned. On the following day about four hundred supporters of the late Conservative-Unionist coalition Cabinet met and passed a vote of confidence in Mr. Balfour as leader-not, however, before the publication on that day of correspondence between Mr. Balfour and Mr. Chamberlain in which the former seemed practically to surrender his retaliationist principles to Mr. Chamberlain's simon-pure protectionist ideas, though placing certain limitations upon acceptance of "a general tariff," with its special inclusion of a duty on corn. The "Daily Graphic," speaking on behalf of the free-traders, who had once supported the late Cabinet, deplores Mr. Balfour's "journey to Canossa" as the price of his retention as leader. As Pope Gregory VII. only emphasized his power by compelling the German Emperor to go to him at Canossa, so, nine centuries later, Mr. Chamberlain has accentuated his own power at the expense of the official party leader.

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The full dimensions The Liberal-Laborite of the recent victory Victory of the English Liberal and Labor parties at the polls may best be seen by comparing the present status of political parties with that which issued from the elections in 1900. In that year the Conservative-Unionists elected 402 members to the House of Commons; this year they have elected, as reported, 157; in 1900 the Liberal and Laborite parties elected 186 members; this year they have elected 430; in 1900 the Irish Nationalists elected 82 members: this year they are reported to have elected 83. This would indicate a Liberal majority exceeding 80 over all other parties; the Liberal and Laborite majority over Conservative-Unionists and Nationalists to be 190; the majority represented by Liberals, Laborites, and Irish Nationalists if they vote together, 356. Not only are these figures impressive, but we should not lose

sight of the fact that the Conservative loss—245 seats—is unprecedented since 1832, the largest Conservative loss since that historic year being 142 seats in 1886. We may also go back to 1832 and to the forties to find an analogous case of the use of political power. For in 1906 the victory is not only a Liberal but a Labor victory, just as sixty and seventy years ago the manufacturers defeated the landowners at the polls. Since then England has followed what is now a time-honored fiscal policy, yet the emphasis given to this policy during these recent weeks is not more important, we believe, than is the birth of the Labor party. That this should have come about under conditions hardly favorable to labor representation shows a gratifying power of co-operation on the part of workmen in providing for the financial sinews not only of an election, but also for the future in sending so large a body of representatives to a Parliament whose members receive no salary. It has been said that the birth of the Labor party marks a peaceful revolution in England. It is rather an evolution. It has certainly been accomplished by non-revolu-The new party is a constitionists. The only disquieting tutional party. questions arising from its birth seem to be: By a somewhat exclusive interest in one subject, will its policy be parochial or imperial? and, by yielding to the possible temptations of vote-trafficking, will it practice politics rather than statesmanship?

When a Government, What Power Shall like that of Morocco, Control Morocco? has shown itself hopelessly uncivilized, the civilized Powers are acting rightly if they try to reform Having assured the supremacy of the executive of that Government (as has been done by the Powers in conference at Algeciras, Spain, for the Moroccan Sultan), there are two ways, among others, to gain control of the country: by supervising the finances, or the The latter of these subjects was under discussion last week at Algeciras, and has provoked an apparent deadlock between France and Germany. As France is the only Power whose

territories abut upon Morocco to any great extent, and as she has long had more direct interests there than any other Power, she not unnaturally claims special recognition in Morocco because of these geographical and historical relations. In particular, she claims the right of reorganizing the Moroccan police, as, by reason of her long Algerian frontier, she would be the Power principally affected by anything less effective than the reorganization which she would compel. On the other hand, Germany, at whose request the Algeciras conference was called, stands for the equal treatment of all nations. This, her representatives think, might be accomplished in three ways: (1) By leaving the police control to Morocco; (2) by exercising it through a concert of the Powers; (3) by confiding it to a minor Power. If there is to be reform, the first of these three proposals is of course not to be entertained; as to the second, the cases of Crete and Macedonia are by no means reassuring; as to the third, the disquieting suspicion might arise that the particular "minor Power" was Germany's tool. There are two fair compromises, we think. would be, in the light of England's creditable history in Egypt, to give the police control to France in return for the latter's solemn pledge that it shall not instigate her to arrogate other exclusive rights, and, in particular, any which would conflict with the principle of the "open door." The second compromise would be to accept Germany's suggestion that the police be controlled by a minor Power—that Power may be Switzerland, the freest from suspicion of anv-and that to France, as a quid pro quo, be granted the other form of control, the financial, which would represent the Moroccan foreign debt, largely held in France, and would also have charge of the Sultan's future borrowings.

(8)

Unrest in China last week increased rather than decreased the general anxiety as to any immediate untoward results arising from the development of the spirit of nationalism. This spirit definitely arose eight years ago. Through the efforts of

certain reformers the Chinese Emperor was led to see that only in educational reform was there hope for the conservation of the Empire's integrity. Accordingly he issued a series of such startling edicts that he was quickly overthrown by the reactionaries, the Empress Dowager at their head. She has continued in power ever since, but has herself become sufficiently convinced of the necessity of incorporating certain features of American and European civilization into China as lately to lend considerable countenance to liberal changes in administration. During the Boxer period (1900) the new liberal spirit of nationalism was overthrown, of course, by the temporary triumph of the reactionaries with their bigoted and fanatical spirit of nationalism. Now, however, we have in some places a union of the two spirits a desire on the part of many Chinese to keep foreigners away from China, yet at the same time to incorporate the liberal reforms suggested by those foreigners. If these are resisted by the Government, the spirit quickly becomes antidynastic, especially in the south, where a strong anti-dynastic spirit has long reigned, for the Chinese there have never quite yielded to their Manchu conquer-Coincidently, in the south the greatest difficulty with regard to America has arisen, since most of the coolies come from the southern provinces, and, in general, from Shanghai in the east and from Hankau in the west, to the southernmost boundary, there has been apparently more mercantile jealousy and anti-foreign spirit than elsewhere. Thus for the present unrest there are, among others, five causes: (1) The anti-dynastic spirit; (2) the liberal nationalistic spirit of 1898; (3) the reactionary nationalistic spirit of 1900; (4) the anti-foreign spirit in general—greatly strengthened since Japan's defeat of Russia; and (5) the anti-American spirit in particular.

(8)

Religion, Education, and Commerce Disturbed has manifested itself in religious, educational, and mercantile domains. As to the first, the Viceroy of the province of Fukien has been ordered to

execute the leader of the mob which destroyed the Roman Catholic and English Presbyterian missions at Changpu a fortnight ago, and has been commanded to punish severely all others concerned in that affair. As to the supposed dismissal of Professor C. D. Tenney, we note that his resignation is still under consideration by the Viceroy of the Province of Chili. If this very powerful Viceroy cannot stem the tide of public opinion in behalf of one to whom he had hitherto shown favor, that opinion must indeed Dr. Tenney well deserved be strong. such favor, as he had organized a new system of education throughout the province, a model for similar work throughout China. As to commerce, Mr. Schwerin, Vice-President of the Pacific Mail Steamship Company, which has much to do with Chinese trade, is reported to have said that our commerce with China is practically gone; that it had been all lost since 1900, when we were the most popular foreigners with the Chinese; that the general awakening is largely due to the work of the Chinese Empire Reform Association, which teaches the reorganization of the Empire on modern lines. Dr. Morrison, the well-informed correspondent of the London "Times," reports: "All the Legation guards have been warned that danger is impending." special danger is the spread of secret societies in the army. Hence six regiments with artillery have been despatched from the capital to Chinchau, perhaps from the fear that they were honeycombed not only by anti-foreign but also by anti-dynastic feeling. Mr. Conger, late American Minister to China, is quoted as saying that serious trouble will come, and that it will be directed against the dynasty rather than against America, though Americans within the zone of the rebellion are liable to be hurt before they can get out; hence it would be the part of wisdom to have our war-ships and troops ready (as they have recently been made ready), if only for the purpose of letting China know that we are watching her. Whatever good may be accomplished by such knowledge, a certain amount of exasperation on the part of the Chinese must also be

taken into consideration. Another diplomat, long resident in China, Mr. Charles Denby, declares that, while the boycott started with the intention solely of forcing modification of our Exclusion Act, it is now extending to an effort towards the total removal of restriction on all Chinese persons, the Chinese Government, however, not being interested beyond the point of responding to popular pressure, which represents the growing spirit of patriotism, the increased appreciation of Chinese citizenship, and consequent resentment at any discriminations. It has taken at least eight years to bring the apparently inert masses of China to the present point. The question arises, How long will it take to allay the present unrest?

American Education

Last week at Har-

and

vard

for the Chinese Universities and at Wellesley College definite and generous propositions were made towards granting the privileges of instruction at those institutions free to Chinese students. Harvard offers ten scholarships, Yale twelve, and Wellesley three. Some of the students, whether men or women, will pay their own expenses as private applicants; others are, it is understood, to be nominated by the Chinese Government, and are to be sent to America at its expense. For a period of four years, however, the instruction under the new scholarships is to be free. In our opinion, nothing has yet been done in this country which will have a greater or more lasting effect in persuading the Chinese that Americans are friendly and not hostile to them than this action authorized by Presidents Eliot, Hadley, and Hazard. This proposal by Harvard, Yale, and Wellesley might well be followed by a similar offer from every American educational institution which has the ability to carry it out. Instead of twenty-five free scholarships, as now provided, we should have five hundred. The men who came over from China to America thirty-five years ago with Yung-Wing

did not finish their courses of study in

America, but, despite the fragmentary

character of those courses, became ulti-

mately important factors in promoting

all that pertains to the higher life in China. religiously, educationally, and politically. Every Chinese student to whom we can now give a fairly complete university course would be, not only a promoter of friendship between America and China, but a guide and an inspiration to China's new civilization.

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In these recent weeks American Law the subject of educa-Taught in France tional reciprocity between America and Europe is receiving deservingly increased emphasis. has been shown especially by the success of the Cecil Rhodes scholarships at Oxford for foreign students, and by that of the interchange of professors between the University of Berlin and Columbia University. It is a satisfaction also to chronicle the interest taken both by the faculties and the students in the lectures on Anglo-American common law which Mr. Charles F. Beach, Jr., a well-known legal authority, is now delivering, following out a plan of his own, at the Universities of Paris and Lille. Mr. Beach's course is introductory and general-leading to specialization in later years. The lecturer speaks for forty-five or fifty minutes in French and fills the remaining parts of the hour with a résumé in English, which is appreciated by the students both for its intrinsic worth and also as an exercise in Mr. Beach hopes a foreign tongue. ultimately to bring about the foundation of a chair of Anglo-American law in the Paris law school (with supplementary courses each year at one or more of the provincial universities), together with a good working reference American law library in connection with the Paris law library. No similar collection of American law books is to be found on the other side of the Atlantic. -Such a library, in a center like Paris, would be not only invaluable to students but a great convenience to lawyers everywhere whose professional business brings them to Europe. The influence of Mr. Beach's lectures may be better apprehended when we remember that at Paris there are about eighteen thousand students, of whom about five thousand are in the law school: at Lille there are about two thousand students, of whom about four hundred are in the law school. Thus at Paris there are more than twice as many students as are to be found at any German university, and about half as many as at all the German universities put together. The University of Lille is of course less well known than the University of Paris. Lille lies close to the Belgian border. With its immense iron and cotton industries, it is a great manufacturing center, while, with its suburbs, it is a center of population in France second only to Paris. The University of Lille dates from the days of Charles V., and the law school from 1562. The faculties of law, letters, medicine, and science are luxuriously housed. Mr. Beach's course at Paris and Lille closes at Easter; he then goes south to the Universities of Bordeaux and Toulouse, for the spring session in France, as in Germany, lasts well throughout the summer.

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A bill which is now The Regulation of before the New Jer-Automobiles sey Legislature embodies in legal phraseology the feeling of animosity toward motor-cars which reckless drivers of these cars have done their worst to arouse. The bill imposes special licenses upon automobiles, which are laid with especial rigor-upon tourists temporarily in the State. It puts restrictions upon automobile users and provides severe penalties for the violation of its provisions. The introduction of this bill has called forth from three societies interested in the subject a letter which sets forth very sanely some principles which ought to govern automobile regulation. This letter states first that the automobile must be made to act "in harmony with other users of the roads;" it is therefore wrong to permit it to become a nuisance for the price of a license, for thereby a class of vested rights is created that is a menace to the community. Moreover, such a license makes a discrimination in vehicles which will not be salutary. The law should deal with these machines so that they can be "kept in a position to be used as a cheap freight-carrier-milk to the creamery,

horticultural and agricultural products to market, and other necessities back to the farm." Instead of a license these societies urge a registration fee to be issued "under the police power of the State, to provide for the identification of the owners of the machines." When it is remembered that in New York State alone the number of automobiles increased from about nine hundred in 1901 to twenty-three thousand in 1905, there can be no doubt that the question of regulating automobiles is one that will become more and more important. present the matter of most pressing necessity is an effective measure by which irresponsible users of the automobile can be summarily called to aecount. Speed regulations are unfortunately, as a rule, a dead letter. If reckless driving were prohibited, and then the question what constituted reckless driving in each case were to be settled as any other question of fact, we think that each community would be in a position to protect the users of its own highways more effectively than at present.

The withdrawal of The Case of the Dr. Gigot and other American Sulpicians Roman Catholic priests of St. Joseph's Seminary, Yonkers, New York, from the Society of St. Sulpice has been misinterpreted as an act of suspension by their superiors on account of their inclination to liberal theology. As a matter of fact their withdrawal was a voluntary act, only indirectly occasioned by questions The Sulpician community of theology. is a free society, whose members are bound by no vows. Its purpose has been to further theological education. It is French in origin, and its organization has been centralized in Paris. When the French Government expelled the orders, the Sulpician community, though not strictly an order, was disrupted. Consequently the American branch of the Society suffered from disorganization. St. Joseph's Seminary, which is a Catholic theological school. been under the direction of Sulpicians. Dr. Gigot, of the Seminary, has been a scholarly and open-minded student of Biblical criticism. Some of his

associates last summer established a periodical named the "New York Review," devoted to "the Ancient Faith and Modern Thought." The Sulpician Society, on the other hand, has been controlled by a traditional spirit. The collapse of the Society in France and the unlikelihood of any autonomy being established in America led to the decision that the Seminary had better be put under the immediate charge of Archbishop Farley, of New York. The members of the order in Yonkers therefore withdrew, and were admitted to the body of diocesan clergy of New York. They all remain at their posts in the Seminary. Although it is possible that the ultrarigid censor regulations enforced by the superiors of the Sulpician Society in France may have hastened the change, it was the disruption of the Society itself that made that change inevitable.

The inquiry which has The Wreck of the followed the wreck of Valencia the Valencia off Vancouver Island last month has indicated that many of the same causes which resulted in the appalling loss of life on the excursion steamer General Slocum in New York harbor a year and a half ago were operating in this disaster. Defective life-preservers and an imperfectly disciplined crew together account for much of the loss of life. there is evidence that the supply of lifesaving stations, signal stations, and telegraph or telephone lines on the Pacific coast is altogether inadequate. Is it not time that Congress took some action in revising thoroughly the laws which are supposed to protect those who travel

More Church
Union

Within two months two strong unions have been agreed upon by two groups of churches of different denominations. In December, as reported in The Outlook of January 13, the Congregational, Methodist, and Presbyterian Churches of Canada agreed to unite; this month, at Dayton, Ohio, the headquarters of the United Brethren, the Congregational, Methodist Protestant, and United Brethren Churches in our own country

by water?

agreed to do likewise in accordance with the plan initiated at Pittsburg in 1903 by committees of the three denominations. Their delegated commissioners, numbering over two hundred, manifested the same unanimity that had marked the previous stages of their mutual approach in accepting the proposed scheme of This now is referred back to the union. National meetings of the constituent bodies for ratification and adoption. Two years or more will be required for this, but no doubt of the ratification is now entertained. Questions of property interests will have to be threshed out by lawyers, but these are said to present no insuperable obstacle to union. The difficulty of combining the decentralized Congregational churches with others more centralized has been surmounted, at least in the plan of organization. This leaves the local churches autonomous as now, and provides for a National Conference, in which every ten thousand members will have one delegate. Provision is also made for annual conferences within State limits. Superintendents elected by these, and the President of the National Conference, are to devote their entire time to the work of the united churches—a highly desirable improvement of the traditional method of Congregationalism. The most significant feature of the union is its doctrinal basis, whose brevity and evangelical simplicity are in marked contrast to the scholastic orthodoxy of the creed adopted by the United Church of Canada. Peculiarly noteworthy is its emphasis on the longneglected social side of Christianity:

We believe that, according to Christ's law, men of the Christian faith exist wholly for the service of man, not only in holding forth the Word of Life, but in the support of works and institutions of piety and charity, in the maintenance of human freedom, in the deliverance of all those that are oppressed, in the enforcement of civic justice, and the rebuke of all unrighteousness.

The union thus formed numbers some eleven hundred thousand communicants, of whom the Congregationalists constitute about seven-elevenths, while the remaining four-elevenths are about equally divided between the other two denominations. These are strongest in Maryland, Pennsylvania, southern Ohio, and the Central West, where Congregationalists are comparatively few. The Methodist Protestants separated from the Methodist Episcopal body in 1828 for the sake of lay representation in the Conferences, conceded subsequently. The United Brethren came out from the German Reformed Church about 1789 for the sake of freedom in promoting evangelism and religious revivals. their union each of the three bodies contributes to the others a desirable element. The example set by them and by the Canadian churches will have its effect on other bodies among whom the tendency to union is already astir.

The Marriage

Miss Alice Lee Roosevelt, the eldest daughof Miss Roosevelt ter of the President, was married to Mr. Nicholas Longworth. Representative in Congress from Ohio, on Saturday afternoon last at the White House. There was a brilliant and large assemblage present of relatives, friends, and official personages, and perfect weather and admirable arrangements for the reception of guests made the scene of the ceremony, which took place in the famous East Room, a picturesque and notable one. The ceremony, which was that prescribed by the Protestant Episcopal Church, was performed by the Right Rev. Henry Y. Satterlee, Bishop of Washington, assisted by the Rev. Roland Cotton Smith, rector of St. John's Church, Washington, of which Mrs. Roosevelt is a regular communicant. There were many reasons why the occasion was of very genuine popular interest, not only in this country, but throughout the world. An event of such great personal significance to the President and his family directed the thoughts of all his friends to the White House on the day of the wedding, and no man in the world to-day has a greater body of friendly and affectionate admirers than Mr. Roosevelt. Gifts and greetings and congratulations came to the bride from all parts of the world, many of which she would be the first to recognize as tributes to her father quite as much as to herself. The Outlook begs to join in these world-wide good wishes and greetings.

This is Not Socialism

The movement to bring the railways of the country under Federal supervision, and that to make the municipalities the owners of the public utilities—water, lighting, transportation, etc.—are essentially one movement. It is neither communism nor socialism; it is not, properly speaking, either communistic or socialistic. Communism is the doctrine that all property should be owned in common. Socialism is the doctrine that the government should own all the tools and implements of industry, and carry on all the industries. Both are fatal to private property and to individual in-This movement does not assail the right of private property; but it does attempt to get for the common people the benefit of the common property. It does not attempt to interfere with individual industry; but it does attempt to secure public control of public industries.

The natural right of private-property rests in the last analysis on the right of man to himself. For the product of his labor is a part of himself; into it he has put himself. Into the picture of the artist, the box of the carpenter, the grain of the farmer, the book of the author, some part of the vital energy of the brain and of the muscle of the worker has gone. It is this that makes the product truly his.

But there are immense values which are not thus the product of any individual's labor. They have been made for man, not by man. He has not by his industry created the coal, or the oil, or the forests, or the prairies. To these natural products he has no natural right. It is sometimes said that we have robbed the Indians of this continent. That is not true. This continent never belonged to the Indians. The fact that they roamed over it did not make it theirs. At the most they owned only the land they cultivated, and that was a very insignificant portion of the continent.

In so far as the coal operators own the coal mines, or the Standard Oil Company the oil wells, or the great mining companies the gold and silver and copper mines, or the great lumbermen the forests, it is because society by arti-

ficial arrangements has given them a title to these gifts of nature—that is, of God. And this society has done because either it has been ignorant and careless, or because it has believed that the best way to secure the practical benefits of the common wealth for the common people was by a scheme of individual ownership and control. This is no finespun theory. It is actual fact. For while the absolute right of a man to the product of his own labor is universally recognized, the right of the owner of the land and its contents is always defined and often limited by law, it is different in different States, and in different epochs in the same State.

To secure the better distribution of this common wealth among the common people society has created artificial persons called corporations. A corporation is a combination by which many hundreds of people jointly own and share in the profits of a property too large to be owned by one individual; a combination by which administration is unified and profits are divided. When corporations which were created to promote the distribution of wealth become an instrument for the concentration of wealth. society has a right to intervene. they fail to fulfill the purpose for which society created them, society which created them has a right to require of them a change in their methods. Society is no Frankenstein, helpless in the presence of the machine it has itself called The machine is its servant, into being. not its master; and the service which its master has a right to demand of it is the just and equable distribution of the common wealth, which by natural law belongs to the whole community, and which has become personal property only by artificial law.

But not only these natural values have been put by society into the possession of these artificial persons called corporations; it has also put under their control the public highways. The railways are the highways of the Nation, and they have become private property. The streets of the city are the highways of the city, and they have become quasi private property. And what has made them so is the act of society, which has

either carelessly allowed them to pass from the control of the public to the control of private owners, or has deliberately done so because it has believed that private ownership and administration for private profit would serve the public better than public ownership and administration.

Two fundamental questions thus underlie both the National movement for Federal regulation of the railways and the city movements for municipal ownership of public utilities. On these two questions the opinion of The Outlook is definite and clear.

First: Is there any difference between a private person and a corporation? or has the corporation all the rights which belong to the private person?

Answer: The corporation has not all the rights which belong to a private person. It is an artificial person created by society; it is created in order to serve society, and society which created it has a right to require it to fulfill its intended function; and if it refuses so to do, society has a right to unmake it. This right it must exercise by just and legal methods; but it is a right, and sooner or later society will find a way to exercise it in so far as such exercise is necessary for its protection.

Second: Is there any difference between the property rights of an individual in the product of his own labor and the property rights of either an individual or a corporation in such natural objects as coal, oil, forests, land, air, and water?

Answer. There is a radical difference. The right of the producer in the products of private labor is absolute; the right of ownership in the earth and its contents is wholly due to artificial arrangements which society has made, and society which has made those arrangements has a right to modify or to unmake them, provided that in so doing it has a due regard to its own promises, express or implied, and is careful not to do greater injury by changes too sweeping or too sudden than the community is now suffering from present conditions.

In other words, society, which has made the present artificial arrangements for the control and administration of the common wealth, has a right to modify these arrangements so that the common wealth shall be administered for the common benefit. This is not communism; it is not socialism; it is common sense.

The Inspiring Vision

The United States has no better representative abroad, no truer ambassador of its highest life, than Bishop Brent, of the Philippine Islands, who stands in a remote part of the world, among a people for whose well-being the United States is largely responsible, as the exponent of the spiritual ardor, the religious aspiration, the passion for humanity, of the best Americans. Such a book as "Adventure for God," which has recently come from the hands of this distinguished missionary, conveys by its title a suggestion of a feeling for religion, a faith in God, and a desire to serve man which place him with a small group of those who, in a century occupied with tasks and works, still hunger for righteousness and follow after the vision of the Divine as the best men and women did in other days when tasks were fewer and work was less pressing. If men at the beginning of the twentieth century do not feel the presence and power of the Infinite as they felt these things in the time of Job, it must be remembered that Job's interests were few, that he had only a single kind of work to do, and that he was not separated and kept apart from the ultimate questions of life by incessant occupation, and the tremendous and unescapable pressure of the activity of the later centuries.

And yet while it is true that the preoccupations of modern life are not so much the fault of the time as the very necessity of its manifold and marvelous material development, it is also true that men cannot live by bread alone, and that when there is no open vision the people perish. Appeals for practical helpfulness, for the interpretation of religion in terms of human service, for the church which has an open door for the worker and holds out a hand to the outcast, speak more and more loudly, as they ought to speak, and with an insistence

which cannot be escaped. The modern Church must deal with modern men by rnodern methods in modern speech. That is the only way in which it can repeat in the twentieth century the service which it rendered in the second, the eleventh, the sixteenth. But the Church in the twentieth century, like that of the sixteenth, the eleventh, or the second century, cannot do its work, bear its burdens, or keep its altars pure without constant freshening of its faith, constant clearing of its vision. Altars, however beautifully adorned and faithfully tended. are vain unless the Spirit of God is there; and the Spirit of God is with those who take time to think about him and to serve him, not simply from a sense of duty, in practical ways and works, but under the inspiration of a steady vision of his presence and nature.

It is this view of religion which Bishop Brent urges in his "Adventure for God "-a view which involves not only the practical and rational work of the day, but the passion of the earliest Church and the romantic temper of the mediæval Church. It is not as a form of self-sacrifice, as a surrender of some of the best things in life, that Bishop Brent interprets the missionary career; it is rather as an opportunity which appeals chiefly and most strongly to imaginative and spiritual men of large ability and commanding purpose; the life which is in itself one of the greatest of careers, and offers the noblest of rewards. " What has been termed 'respectable inefficiency," writes Bishop Brent, "among the clergy, is more often due to poverty of inner experience than lack of technical training. I can conceive of no more wretched fate than for a young man to find himself in the ministry, solemnly commissioned to give a vision to others without ever having had one himself; charged with the duty of spiritualizing the commonplace activities of his fellows without ever having spiritualized his own. . . . Elisha made the young man see the horses and chariots of fire because he himself saw them. . . . There is no instance of an Apostle being driven abroad under the compulsion of a bald command. Each one went as a lover to his betrothed on his appointed errand.

It was all instinctive and natural. They were equally controlled by the common vision, but they had severally personal visions which drew them whither they were needed."

It is in the vision and by the vision that men live great lives and are able to lead other men into strength and peace. It is the men of vision who rise above the dust of the highway, who see the stars, and charge their tasks, their duties, and their work with the spirit of sacrifice and with the consciousness that all tasks and work are part of the spiritual education, who make men willing to endure routine, to bear drudgery, and to give their strength out in a thousand details of daily toil instead of the one great adventure for which they long. was by the vision of the spiritual unity of the country that Mr. Lincoln was sustained. It was the constant presence of the vision of the spiritual order in the world that made Phillips Brooks not so much priest as prophet; one who stood on a mountain and held men enchained by the picture of the larger landscape which unrolled itself before him.

The Leadership of Germany

Quite lately Mr. J. J. Hill, one of the highest authorities on organized finance in this country, and one of its most farseeing business men, commented on the wastefulness of Americans in the use of their resources, while Dr. Pritchett, in the current number of the "Review of Reviews," describes the sagacity and intelligence with which Germany is using science to aid her industrial development. While a host of Americans are ruthlessly cutting down forests, exhausting rich soils, handling properties possessed of great possibilities of future development for the purpose of getting the largest sum of money out of them at the earliest possible date, instead of developing them as solid and large-earning properties, Germany is husbanding her resources, studying the possibilities of her development, and, with a rare combination of statesmanlike foresight and trained intelligence, steadily

making her way to the front. At the close of the war with France, Germany was comparatively a poor country. agricultural and mineral resources are limited; she has a great army to maintain, involving not only a vast expenditure of money, but the withdrawal from the field of active work of a very considerable part of the working population; and she has suffered heavily from the drainage of her population by emigration. In this country, on the other hand, resources are practically unlimited, taxation is relatively light, army duty does not exist, and, instead of being depleted by emigration, the country is constantly filled by immigration.

Yet, measuring the two countries by their relative resources, Germany has steadily gained on the United States, and that gain has been due almost entirely to foresight and education. The Outlook has more than once commented upon the extraordinary sagacity of the German Emperor, who, on his accession to the throne, saw clearly that, in order to maintain her position, Germany stood in need of a far-seeing and thoroughly applied policy of industrial development. defined that policy at an early date, and he has never deviated from it. It is due in no small measure to his clear perception of what Germany needed, and to the skill with which he has evoked the expert ability of the Empire, and to his tireless industry, that Germany now stands in the front rank of the nations of the world, and leads them all in the application of science to industry.

There has been nothing haphazard or accidental about this remarkable achievement. The habit of discipline and the thoroughness of training which made Germany a century and a half ago the first country in the world in point of scholarly research, and a generation ago revealed her as the most thoroughly organized country from the military point of view, with the most admirably equipped and highly educated army, has been put into business and has produced the same results.

The German university, the breedingplace of scholars and the nursery of knowledge, has of late years been feeding the factories and putting expert men

into every department of trade. When the thoroughly trained chemist can be persuaded to set up a laboratory in connection with a private business, the owner of that business becomes at once a successful competitor against the man who relies solely on native sagacity and the usual methods of trade advance. The chemist and the laboratory in the factory mean the manufacture of the product below the cost of its manufacture in the rival establishment where science has no recognition. The German Government, which has so firm a hand on the whole educational system of the Empire, has persistently and consistently done its utmost to make places in connection with the industries attractive to men of science. It has established schools of applied science in various forms; it has developed the most thorough business schools in the world; it has not only trained its young men in all the methods of business, but has made them accomplished linguists, so that when they go out in large numbers to the farthest corners of the world they carry with them a knowledge of the language of the people with whom they are to work. In this way, by taking science into partnership, by giving business men a scientific education. by studying the possibilities of trade through consuls and agents in all parts of the world, Germany has set an example and has achieved a success which put our easy-going methods, our wastefulness, our indifference to thorough training, our unbusinesslike and humiliating use of consular service for political instead of business uses, to shame. We have prided ourselves on our business capacity, and there has been reason for our pride; but when we remember how much has been done for us in the way of natural capitalization of the continent and how little has been done for the Germans, and compare what they have done with their limited resources and what we have done with our unlimited resources, it ought to silence the tall talk in which some of our public men are in the habit of indulging, which is simply a flamboyant advertisement of their own ignorance, and make us willing to take lessons of an educated business people.

Dr. Pritchett emphasizes the strong

1906 national spirit which has been developed by the accomplishment of German unity; the same spirit, however, has been developed in this country since the close of the Civil War. He brings into clear relief one of the great secrets of the industrial power of Germany in its development of the spirit of research through its universities, which for years past have trained an army of men These exto be expert investigators. perts have now turned their attention to industrial problems, and the fruits of their investigation and research are being placed at the service of the material evolution of the Empire. A single example of the way in which the German Government fosters the business interests of the country is afforded by the evolution of the Royal Testing Office, which began its career about thirty-five years ago in testing the strength and nature of such materials as iron, building stones, cement, and brick, and in conducting chemical and metallurgical investigations concerning the construction of steel and iron, chemical substances used in commerce, and chemical properties of the soil. ginning in a series of detached laboratories, this work has now been housed in a great technical school in the suburbs of Berlin, and has become a national research and experiment station in which all the resources of science are at the command of the manufacturer. If a manufacturer confronts a problem which he is unable to solve by reason of limited means, he takes it to the research laboratory, and the Government co-operates with him. If a builder or an owner

anywhere in Germany discovers a stone

which he thinks may be valuable for

building purposes, he sends it to the

laboratory to be tested. Machines, tex-

tiles, cotton thread, beams of iron and

steel, chemical substances—everything,

in fact, that enters into the material side of modern life—are examined and their

value determined by experts at the ex-

pense of the Government. Our Government has made some advance in this direction, and is maintaining experiment

stations which are largely devoted to

agricultural and mechanical instruction

and experiment; but nothing has been

done here on the scale of the great

German institution. It is in a way the key to the growth of modern Germany, and it has immense meaning for the United States and for England. Both countries must wake up to the fact that business without science under modern conditions is doomed to failure.

Is it Safe to Study the New Testament?

There are two creditable grounds for opposition to the scientific study of the Bible. One ground is honest fear that by such study the foundations of faith will be undermined. This fear, it might be said, arises from smallness of faith; if the faith were large enough, and established not on externals but on spiritual experience and conviction, there would be no fear of its destruction. Nevertheless faith, even if it is timid, The other ground of demands respect. opposition to the scientific study of the Bible is the natural repugnance to the analysis of that which is intimate and sacred. This is due, not to the smallness of faith, but to its depth and reality. There are some experiences which seem to have a right to privacy; and religious faith is one of these. The instinct that would preserve it from rough handling is natural and right.

Both of these reasons for dislike of the so-called Higher Criticism become intensified when it is proposed to apply the principles of criticism to the New Testament. Concern for the foundations of religion becomes stronger when the statements of the New Testament are subjected to scrutiny, because the facts of the New Testament seem to be much nearer the foundation than the facts of the Old Testament. Doubt as to whether Elisha really made the ax-head float seems to have little immediate connection with personal religion; but doubt as to whether Jesus actually performed the miracle of feeding the five thousand touches very closely the matter of loyalty to Christ which is the heart of the Christian's faith. Repugnance to the scientific examination of what is counted sacred also becomes stronger in the case

of the New Testament than in the case of the Old, because the New Testament is much the more closely involved with personal religion. Even in the Psalms, full of personal religion as they are, questions of authorship and date make comparatively little difference; but in the sayings attributed to Jesus questions of authorship seem almost heartless to one who treasures these sayings as from his Lord.

As a consequence of these perfectly intelligible feelings of fear and repugnance aroused by the suggestion of New Testament criticism, much of the saner study of the New Testament has not been thorough, and much of the fearless study of the New Testament has been directed by men who have not been devout, and therefore have been mechanical in their methods. The conclusions of modern scholarship regarding the Old Testament have become current among the more thoughtful of the people; but even such conclusions as modern scholarship has reached regarding the New Testament remain the possession of but a very few. Most of the books which have popularized the results of Biblical study have dealt with the Old Testament, and therefore the growing interest in the literary study of the Bible is confined to an interest in the Old Testament.

This state of affairs is not wholesome. It does not promote either sincerity or freedom of religion. It is not right that the New Testament, which is for Christians the most vital part of the Bible, should be the part most open to erroneous interpretation, and most promotive of ignorance, even though it be a devout ignorance. If modern critical scholarship illuminates what it touches, it will bring light upon the New Testament as well as the Old; upon the life and character of Jesus as upon the person and influence of Moses or David or Isaiah. Literalism has been the nurse of almost every form of eccentric offshoot from Christianity. Mormonism, Dowieism, and even Christian Science are based upon the acceptance of Scriptural statements as verbally Such cults cannot stand where scholarship holds sway. Atheism of the Robert Ingersoll type has become grotesquely antiquated, for it is based upon the assumption that the believer must accept as literal fact whatever he finds within the Bible; it is therefore made powerless by the assumption on the part of the believer that he has liberty of discrimination. The critical study of the Old Testament has freed the Old Testament from this hurtful and superstition-breeding literalism. It can free the New Testament likewise.

It is therefore the duty of those who prize the New Testament most highly, and who have most certainly found it an inexhaustible source of faith, to guide the critical study of it, and to accept with open minds the results of such study. It is neither right nor safe that such study be relegated to those who prize the New Testament least, nor that only those should be free to accept the truth who seek it merely to satisfy their curiosity.

This is the significance of a letter which has recently been signed by fourscore clergymen and laymen of the Episcopal Church. Originally prepared in England and signed by seventeen hundred clergymen of the Church of England, it has been accepted, mutandis mutatis, as an expression of a conviction that applies to religious conditions in America. It records a "sense of the grave and manifold religious issues involved in the present critical discussions," a desire "that as many of the clergy have already welcomed important results of a patient, reverent, and progressive criticism of the Old Testament, so the clergy, as Christian teachers, may now receive authoritative encouragement to face the critical problems of the New Testament with entire candor, reverence for God and his truth, and loyalty to the Church of Christ;" a fear "lest the door of ordination should be closed to men who patiently and reverently apply historical methods to the Gospel records:" a conviction "that it is not without grave responsibility and peril that any of us should build the faith of souls primarily upon details of New Testament narrative, the historical validity of which must ultimately be determined in the court of trained research;" and a confidence "that the faith of the Church in the years to come, whatever historical revisions may await us, will stand, without risk and without discontinuity, upon the spiritual foundations to which Christian experience and the Creed of the Church alike bear testimony."

This action of clergymen of the Church of England and clergymen and laymen of the Episcopal Church in America is a stimulating example to men of like mind in other churches. The Church by this time has learned that skepticism is cultivated by the attempt forcibly to suppress free inquiry into religious truth; such an action as this should be imitated, because it proclaims the principle that to encourage fearless inquiry is the best way in which to disarm skepticism.

The Spectator

The Spectator had the pleasure of meeting the other day a gentleman, no longer in his first youth, but by no means what one would call an elderly man, who has given a great deal of his time and attention to the breeding and training of horses. Naturally, the use and the utility of the horse are a good deal in his mind, so that when the conversation goes horsewards he is generally not displeased. The Spectator, knowing this, remarked the fact that he had seen the statement that day that, notwithstanding the use of automobiles and electric tramways in New York and the other great cities, quite one-half of the accidents in the streets were still.attributable to horses. "And why not?" the Spectator's friend asked. "Any one is considered good enough and capable enough to drive a horse, while men are trained and regularly taught to drive automobiles and electric cars. It is rather astonishing, considering the ignorant chaps in the grocery and butcher carts, that more of us are not killed. I tell you it is impossible now to cross over a crowded street in New York and preserve your dignity and your life at the same time. You owe your life to the nimbleness of your heels, and your dignity you leave behind as you flee. They charge you first on one side of the car track and then on the other. Lickitysplit they come, cabs, wagons, vans, automobiles, every blessed driver trying to bowl the pedestrian out. Why, it will soon be as bad as in Paris, where I have heard that the cabman who runs down the most foot-passengers in a year is rewarded with the Legion of Honor.

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" Any one is thought good enough to intrust a horse to," the Spectator's friend continued; "why, last autumn, when the drivers of the mail wagons went on strike, it was decided by the postal authorities that there was no virtue in the position of the strikers because driving was not skilled labor, but could be done by any man of ordinary intelligence. I do not recall what the strike was about for shorter hours or higher wages, or both, I do not recall—but the idea of saving that skill is not needed in the driving of horses indicates to me that the authority who made the ruling knew nothing about the noble art of horsemanship. I feel almost warranted in saying that he did not have even the ordinary intelligence to which he referred in his ruling.

"And driving is an art, an art that may be acquired only through practice, instruction, and imitation. It does not come merely by the light of nature. Some persons can acquire a foreign tongue with what seems an easy facility, while others of equal mentality have the greatest difficulty and never succeed in any eminent degree. Those to whom the acquirement of foreign tongues is easy have a gift for languages, just as some others have a gift for mathematics or for rhyming or for drawing. And so it is with driving. To some driving comes easily, to others it is difficult, while some others seem incapable of learning. In driving it appears the easiest thing in the world to say 'get up' when it is desired to start, or to say 'whoa' when it is desired to stop; to pull on the right rein to go to the right and on the left rein to go to the left. I sincerely believe that in the popular mind that last sentence is a complete compendium and manual of instruction for drivers. That is the reason we have so many accidents. It seems so easy

that comparatively few ever take the trouble to learn driving as a fine art. 'I have sometimes,' says a recent writer on the subject, 'been nearly scared out of my wits in driving with a man or woman whose every act displayed ignorance of even first principles. Probably no more grievous insult could be paid to a man than to betray lack of confidence in his capacity to drive, and latterly, when I have been asked to go with a man even to the golf links two miles away, when I knew he did not know how to handle the reins or manage a horse, I have blandly declined. Death comes to all of us, but there seems to be a lack of wisdom in seeking it in such an ignoble fashion.'

"When a grocer or a butcher or any user of a delivery wagon needs a driver, he takes the first chap that comes alonga fat German boy, a newly landed Italian lad—without reference to experience or qualifications. In cities this should be prohibited by ordinance. This inexperience is too dangerous to be tolerated; besides, it is cruel to the horses that are so used. It takes experience to know what may and what may not be done with a horse. Horse-owners would consult their own interests and save money by hiring only competent drivers; but these tradesmen alluded to are handicapped by their own ignorance. In New York the greatest offenders against the proprieties and courtesies of the road are the drivers of the delivery wagons of the yellow journals and the drivers of the mail vans. The yellow journals get their rules of the road from the same storehouse of cheek that they draw their other obnoxious supplies from; the mail-wagon drivers do as they please under the mistaken notion that there is something sacred and superior in their occupation in carrying the mails that raises them above all local laws. Of course such an idea is pure nonsense. An employee of the United States is just as amenable to local laws as any other citizen. But the idea carries weight, for the mailcarrying contractors are permitted to use horses so unfit for work that the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals should interfere.

may be added to all this that a man driving a horse must drive all the time to do his full duty to the horse and to others he may meet or pass. There are hundreds of little things that should never be neglected, but the first great principle is to keep your eye on your horse. The horse is not the wonderfully intelligent animal that some think him; on the contrary, he has very little intelligence considering his close relations to mankind. It is the driver who should be intelligent in his control of the horse, and convey his intelligence to the horse by the reins, the whip, and by speech. Genius, some one once said, consisted in the infinite capacity to take That is a capital definition of the art of driving—the good driver must take pains, and keep on taking pains."

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When the Spectator had got this far in telling what his friend thought about drivers and driving, it was necessary for him to leave his desk and go out into the As he was going over Fourth Avenue, though his mind was perfectly alert, he got wedged in a group of vehicles traveling at different rates of speed. A newspaper wagon struck him slantingly, threw him in front of a grocery cart, which knocked him down, when he was run over by a truck. The next thing the Spectator knew he found himself on a cot in a hospital. As no very serious damage was done, he was back home in a week; but he had lost a week of time, while he had undoubtedly suffered much pain. Bruises and contusions get well, but they are not pleasant when they are green. While the Spectator was lying in the hospital, he could not help wondering whether those drivers who ran him down had not in some occult way known of what he was doing before he ventured out into the street. If they did know, they had their revenge in advance of the offense. The only satisfaction the Spectator possibly has is that his painful mishap supplies a personal illustration of the truth of what his horse-loving friend had told him some time before. This, then, may be properly called a personally conducted excursion into an old field.

RUSSIAN TYPES and SCENES



A PEASANT PATRIARCH

THIS SIGNIFICANT GROUP OF PICTURES
WAS COLLECTED BY ERNEST POOLE, WHO
WENT TO RUSSIA LAST YEAR AS THE SPECIAL REPRESENTATIVE OF THE OUTLOOK



They are vigorous, intelligent, keen. For fifty years they have fought the Government by ceaseless obstruction. The local police, tax collectors, and judges are thwarted and outwitted at every step



PEASANTS OF THE SOUTH

They are physically, mentally, and morally degraded, starving and toiling for years in sullen silence, then rising in a frenzy to riot and burn and kill



The Caucasus—three times as large as Switzerland—has been for thousands of years the mixing-bowl for the races of the world. It holds now ten million people—Armenians, Tartars, numberless Caucasian tribes, and a sprinkling of Greeks, Persians, and Turks THE GATEWAY PROM ASIA INTO EUROPE





THE COSSACKS

The Czar's mounted police, four hundred thousand strong. Centuries ago they were planted in the southeast—on the steppes and in the mountains—as a bulwark against the hordes of Asia. Savage, reckless, unmoral, superstitious, they are the mightiest weapon of the Czar to hold his people down.



A CAUCASIAN VILLAGE

Driven by sixty years of oppression, by the Japanese War in which fifty thousand of their young men were killed, and now by the unceasing outrages of the Cossacks, these people are everywhere uniting in secret meetings in forests and on mountain sides, making ready for the struggle to be free.



A CAUCASIAN VILLAGE LEADER
Seventy years ago at his birth his mountains were free. He is one of the most dangerous of the Czar's countless enemies



PERSIAN PEASANTS ON THE SOUTHERN BORDER OF THE CAUCASUS The Caucasian women are often called "The Diamonds of Russia"

EVERETT COLBY, THE MAN WHO "GOT MAD"

BY JESSE LYNCH WILLIAMS

T so happened that about the first thing I ever heard Mr. Colby say seemed to explain in a sentence why he is succeeding where so many men of his own sort have failed—though that was not the intention of his remark.

I was asking him to tell me just how he happened to go into the now famous fight last year which smashed the machine, busted his boss, and, best of all, frightened the boss's bosses so thoroughly that within the last few weeks they have actually surrendered (shrewdly enough—pending the expected reaction!) and are preparing legislation in accordance with the demands of the platform on which he won his place as the youngest State Senator of New Jersey.

Now, I had warned him that The Outlook had asked me to write something about him, and here was a good chance for him to intimate delicately that, "recognizing the sovereign right of the people, perceiving how they were being misrepresented, he considered it his sacred duty, at the sacrifice of time and money, to throw himself into the breach," or something of that sort. Moreover, this could have been backed up, for I knew that in his fight against the railroad and allied corporate interests which owned the government of New Jersey he had spent about thirty thousand dollars of his own money inherited from a railroad-builder. His father was the late Charles L. Colby, of the Wisconsin Central Railroad. I knew, too. how hard he had worked all last summer, giving up his plans for fun and absenting himself almost entirely from his young wife, which he probably considered a greater sacrifice.

However, this was his answer: "Well, you know," he said, with a smile very different from that of a self-satisfied reformer, "I'd like to think I saw a vision or got religion over night, but as a matter of fact it was because I got mad."

This is not a mere illustration of Mr. Colby's engaging candor, which pleases the people, who nine times out of ten know a real man when they see onethough few of the bosses and fewer reformers seem to understand this—the unexplosive kind of candor which appeals to voters as much as it perplexes the bosses and annoys their employers, including both the hypocritical kind and the "honest grafters" who would feel so much surer of "getting him eventually" if he only took the high and holy purpose This reply tells much more than that this firm-jawed, blue-eyed young man of thirty-one is a good fellow, with common sense and an adequate sense of humor, though that is important enough, especially since "they" are doing their best at the present moment to give him a big head—which again illustrates their shrewdness.

In the first place, Mr. Colby did not go into public life from an abstract sense of duty; if he had, the chances are that he would have gone out long since from a concrete sense of failure. He went into politics very much as he went in for football at Brown University not many years previously; he liked the game, he wanted to make the team, and also doubtless had a normal human desire to run with the ball. He is charged with ambition. I, for one, hope he is guilty of that terrible crime. But as he became captain of the best eleven his college ever turned out, and is now leading the most successful reform movement his State has ever known, and as it requires team-work to advance the ball in both these games, it looks as if he knew how to keep this normal human trait from developing abnormally.

But the chief reason Mr. Colby is making a success of reform is that he is not a Reformer. He was caught young, and did not go into the game with preconceived notions to work out. He played as he was coached from the side

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lines—as long as he could play clean. Then he got mad and played his own game. The trouble with so many reformers is not that they do not know enough, but that they do not feel enough. They are working for abstract principles academically derived from the outside. Contrary to the popular notion, they often have a clearer and more comprehensive understanding of the situation than the bosses themselves, and can write books about it which serve as useful manuals for those who wish to become Complete Grafters. But reformers so seldom get all the way into the game. The reason is that it does not matter enough to them personally.

It matters so much to the bosses. They are there for business, "for my own pocket every time." It does not mean mere principle to them, it means interest. Likewise with railroads and other corporations whose very existence devolves on legislation. They are not always so much wickeder than we are; they are in politics for the same reason that keeps out most of us who yell at them—namely, blind absorption in their own affairs, the trait which makes the success of Americans and has been threatening the failure of America.

II.

It has been related how Mr. Colby's political ambition was lighted by the torches of political parades which used to stop at the Colby curbstone. The youngster told himself that when he grew up to be a man like his father, he, too, would make speeches. Most healthy American boys get about that far along in a political career. In this case, however, the flame was kept lighted, although nearly quenched by a period of yearning to become a stage-coach driver. while at college—he was in the class of '97—he went in not only for athletics, but for speaking and writing. a debater; he was one of the editors of the "Brown Magazine." Accordingly, after studying law and making a trip around the world, he "went into politics." He was led in by the hand of the great Major Lentz, the boss whom he afterwards overthrew.

It is unnecessary to repeat here the

intermediate details. It has already been done by a master hand. I can't help feeling, however, that Mr. Colby began to see what kind of game he was up against a little earlier than he is given credit for by Mr. Steffens. The trouble was that he did not get mad for some time, which was a good thing for him and the cause. His enemies, who are trying to make the most of everything, are now spreading the report that he is stupid. Incidentally, I may mention that each member of his cabinet-for he has adopted that team-work idea of Mayor Fagan's, the righteous and lovable Mayor of Jersey City—has been mentioned to me with great positiveness as being the real "brains" behind the movement. Mr. Colby is warm in his praise of all of them, each one supplying an entirely different quality-which shows his long head in the choice of a cabinet. one of his best advisers has not been mentioned at all, and that is Mrs. Colby. She is not only interested in what her husband is doing—which is rare enough, Mr. James says, in this country—but is of real use to him with her instinctive judgment of men and things.

But it really does not matter about where the brains behind the movement are kept so long as it continues to move in the right direction. Thus far it has done so, despite occasional bad advice from the inside as well as from the out. This is due in great part to the fact that "Colby is not a brilliant man," but cool, clear-headed, and capable, which is so much better. The conservative way in which he conducted a radical campaign shows that. The quiet, sagacious manner in which he is going about his job since indicates it, too-so convincingly that some of the friends he lost during the fight because he would not employ wild-eyed, yellow methods have since come back to him.

Every one grants that he has determination, but recently there have been signs to indicate that he has developed resourcefulness as well. He has grown a good deal during the past year. For instance, the adroit way in which he met the difficult question of bolting the caucus the other day when he took his seat in the Senate. He had had experience



EVERETT COLBY
From a new portrait made for The Outlook by Arthur Hewitt

in caucus-bolting already when he was in the Assembly. Moreover, he saw what a costly and dangerous thing it had proved for his friends this season in the House who got there on his ticket and had bolted at his advice. So when it came his turn to do the same trick in the Senate, he improved on it by simply putting the rest of the party on the defensive. He said in his quiet way that he didn't want any hard feeling, but as they knew as well as he did the platform on which he had been elected, and as he had asked in vain for an expression of an opinion on those points from the man proposed for Speaker, he thought that he had better quietly withdraw. He was about to do so; in fact, his hand was on the knob of the door when he was called back. They knew how important to the people Colby's platform looked by this time, and they knew how it would make them look if Senator Colby were forced out of the caucus on account of those issues. So they passed a resolution to the effect that Mr. Colby should remain and vote only on such questions as he saw fit to vote upon. This is a new wrinkle in caucus-bolting and ought to prove a powerful political weapon when properly wielded; better yet, perhaps, it will help to do away with the caucus evil entirely. Contrary to his expectations, they turned over to Senator Colby the full amount of patronage due the gentleman from Essex.

It may be that Mr. Colby's modest manner has misled some of his friends. as it has his enemies. However that may be, he had not been in the political game many months before he saw that the cards were stacked. He wanted to be appointed to the Committee on Railroads and Canals. His father had been a railroad man, and he was interested in that sort of thing. He carried a pocketful of letters from men whose opinions he guilelessly thought ought to convince the powers of his fitness for the position. But it was not a question of fitness with the powers. His uncle, Gardner R. Colby, had once wanted the nomination for Governor of the State, and had clashed with Sewell, the Pennsylvania Railroad's man. Therefore they feared young Colby might not

have the proper attitude toward the Pennsylvania Railroad, chief owner of the State. This opened his eyes not a It is an excellent example of the little. consistent thoroughness of the great, omniscient, sleepless System which during the past decade has implanted itself upon our entire Government, with the petty local bosses at the bottom of the unseen but weighty pyramid on up to the powerful apex in the United States Senate. If we on the outside can catch glimpses of this thing through the chinks of the cracking shell of representative government, it would be strange indeed if those inside could not see it. They are brought face to face with it every day; their every movement is hindered by it unless prompted by it. See it? Of course they see it, but what good does that do! It is not a question of knowledge, but of power. Colby saw it, and it "made him tired."

Now, if he had been a Reformer he would no doubt have tried to "do something" right away, before either he or the time was ripe, with the result that he would have become discouraged and quit like many another nice young man who goes into politics in order to reform it according to theories learned in col-But he did not want to quit. He liked the game, even though it was not all it was cracked up to be, and he kept on playing as he was coached—when he He declined to break his word, could. which they told him did not count "to a Democrat," in that matter of the Excise The bosses knew he could not be bought, so they tried bullying-it would Then cajolery—it had no not work. permanent effect. But they fooled him more than once. He was on the wrong side of the movement for equal taxation of the railroads, which was later one of the planks of his own platform. (Therewas great political capital for the opposition in this!) He made the average amount of mistakes, but he would not play double. He was showing signs of his future fight. They should have taken warning and got rid of him. But they liked him, wanted him, and had hopes of licking him into shape. It had been done so often before with others.

Even Mayor Fagan's historical letter

to the Governor, accusing the Republican party (which included Colby, and Fagan himself) of betraying the people who had elected them, did not make him try to do something. He was House leader at the time. He says he sat there stunned and ashamed. "But," he adds, to quote from Mr. Steffens's story, " even then, the truth falling like that didn't kill, didn't even change things essentially." He was not yet mad clean through, and it was not up to him personally. He, like Mark Fagan himself, supported the Republican party again that fall. What else could he do? Vote the Democratic ticket? His hands were tied, and nothing had happened as yet to make him mad enough to break loose and strike out with his fists, risking the consequences.

III.

The chief trolley system in New Jersev, and one of the joint owners of the government of the State along with the Pennsylvania Railroad, the Fidelity Trust Company, and the Prudential Life, is the "Public Service" corporation, which some people in our State consider a smugly humorous name for it. Now, to build trolley lines you must have franchises, and to hold franchises you must hold town councils in the palm of your hand. Of course it is easy enough for those of us who devote our energies to other lines of endeavors to call corporations names; but as long as we give away the rights to monopolize industries which are so remunerative, and as long as human nature remains as it is, there will always be plenty of shrewd men willing to take the necessary steps to have such gifts "given" to and retained by themselves; there will always be plenty of men in local governments willing to have the necessary steps made in their direction. No amount of reform, religion, or even social ostracism will eliminate this sort of thing; the prizes are too big. We do not allow the Government to go into business of this kind, which might be bad, so business gets into the Government, which is undoubtedly worse. If the Government does not own the monopolies, the monopolies will own the Government. This principle is at the

bottom of nearly all our corruption. It is not mere "big business" which makes the trouble, but specially privileged business—privileged by those who are the losers.

The Public Service is no worse and no better than many similar corporations throughout the country. They recognize their business necessities and comply with them with the cheerful capacity for self-deception which we all share to a greater or less degree. They believe in their trolleys and they believe in themselves. They look straight along the track of success, and thereby cultivate for other objects within their mental and moral range of vision a blind spot, which should be considered and treated not so much as a crime, but as a disease. They are "more to be pitied than scorned."

The Public Service commendably desired to extend the civilizing influence of their trolley system. They got up through East Orange, but they struck a snag when they came to Orange proper. So they decided that, as certain coy suburbs of Newark could not be seduced—which was more gentlemanly it would be necessary to abduct them. That is, they turned to the Legislature, of which they are large owners, to create a "Greater Newark." Thereupon the Orangemen in self-defense also decided to go to Legislature, and got up a modest little bill merely to forbid the granting of franchises for a period longer than twenty-five years. They did not wish to appear too presumptuous about their own streets, so they went about it politely, as it seemed to them. Their own legislators, however, seemed disinclined to back any such measure as that. haps to them it seemed audacious. Colby was asked to take it up, since he seemed to be an independent sort of a fellow. He heard that they were about to come to him, and he wanted to get both sides of the case before he did anything. So he took the first opportunity that presented itself of speaking to the president of the Public Service about the matter. "But he turned on me," says Mr. Colby, "as if my proposition merely to talk the matter over were a presumptuous impertinence. Hedeclared angrily that his company would not touch anything but perpetual franchises with a ten-foot pole, and turned his back on me."

"That was amazing enough," Mr. Colby says, but it was the next meeting with the trolley president that made him really mad. This was at a large luncheon at Trenton. The Public Service had heard that "young Colby" had not dropped the franchise matter, and it seems to have made the president furious. "You introduce that bill," he cried, in a voice which attracted the attention of the entire room, although Mr. Colby had not asked his advice in the matter at all—"you introduce that bill, and you lose every friend you have in Essex County!"

Now, the president of the Public Service Corporation has two elder brothers. The elder of these is the Attorney-General, who enjoys the confidence and warm esteem of the entire State, including Mr. Colby, who speaks in no uncertain terms of the Attorney-General's sympathetic and generous attitude towards him in the delicate position brought about by the ensuing fight against the trolley Towards the Public Service president's other brother his feelings are different. On the way home from that luncheon this brother, he says, took him in hand and tried to pour the oil of flattery on the troubled waters. "We think you have a great political future," he said, "and we don't want to see you throw it away." But it was not water now, but fire, the oil fell upon. He says it was such palpable flattery that it amused him even while it filled him with wrath and disgust.

That was all that was needed by this time to make him want to introduce it more than any bill in the world. He went home mad clean through.

The rest is now a well-known chapter in the political history of New Jersey. But from that day dated the reform movement now quietly spreading throughout every county of the State. It is an up-hill fight, and the future cannot be forecast. But this shows how a real man with the right stuff in him came to the parting of the ways, how the primitive man was aroused within him to help sweep the civilized man into the right path. He not only saw but felt now to what a farcical climax representative government was tending, when not only the will of the people was ignored, but their representatives, elected by them, presumably to carry out their own desires, were used for bringing about measures against them-and then were insulted and threatened for merely suggesting the consideration of their point of view! His fighting blood was up now; he did not care what it cost or whether it offended some of his friends or not. He no longer considered his friends, his future, or his own prefer-He was stirred to the depths. He wanted to break something. wanted to get out into the open and stand up and fight in man-fashion. And that is how he found himself; he will fight to a finish now.





QUEEN WILHELMINA

THE HOME LIFE OF THE QUEEN OF HOLLAND

BY HENRIETTE S. S. KUYPER

Mademoiselle Kuyper, who contributes this article about the Queen of Holland, is the daughter of his Excellency Dr. A. Kuyper, who for four years was Prime Minister of Holland, and before that for a score of years Professor of Theology and Literature in Amsterdam, and who is the author of many well-known books. Mademoiselle Kuyper knows Queen Wilhelmina personally, and what she says concerning the domestic relations of the Queen and her husband is worthy of the most implicit confidence.—The Editors.

URING the three months that I have spent in this delightful country I have been most thoroughly impressed with the interest the Americans take in my native country—Holland—and Queen Wilhelmina, a fact which contributes in no small degree to

make the visiting Hollander feel at home. But this most agreeable sensation is at the same time tempered by the discovery that almost every American believes in our Queen's unhappy domestic relations.

Wherever I have set my foot, sooner or later, often in evident concern, the

question has been asked, "Is Queen Wilhelmina happy with her husband?"

I have always been glad to answer with an enthusiastic affirmative, and to state the origin of the slander. This has been about my chief occupation while here—a "twice-told tale" in private and public, at dinners, receptions, and calls.

But what are drops removed, when an ocean has to be emptied? For this big wave of slander seems to have swept this whole country. We Netherlanders have always been famous for building

happy marriage, brought up amidst the environment of affectionate family life, she has no other wish than to profit by so noble an example, and conduct her own life in accordance. The marriage was a love match; nothing short of this would have been worthy of her or of the splendid education given to her by her mother.

The slander started with the dismissal of a coachman in the employ of the Queen Mother. To revenge himself he crossed the Channel to England and told



HET LOO, QUEEN WILHELMINA'S COUNTRY SEAT

From a photograph made by the Queen herself

dikes to free our country from invading waters. May I try, in a foreigner's limited vocabulary, to build a dike against this invading slander, which has absolutely no raison d'être?

Queen Wilhelmina and Prince Henry are perfectly devoted to each other. Our Queen has the same high ideals of marriage and home life that I have found in this country. A greater compliment I could not give either to her Majesty or to the American Nation. Born of a very

the English press he had Dutch court scandal to sell. It was at the time of the Boer War. Neither our country nor our Queen had nidden their sympathy for the Boer cause. I fear that the English press was only too glad to purchase, and so "hurt two birds with one shot."

It became a "shot heard round the world." Are not we apt to pity those we love? The rapidity with which the false report spread, the ease with which it was believed, tell in a very pathetic way of our young Queen's popularity.

Especially so in this country. In Holland, however, the slander has never been credited.

Though my task is finished, I know my readers will feel disappointed if I do not tell something personal of our "little Queen," as she is mostly called here. "Little" she is, indeed-but we don't think this to her disadvantage. belongs to her country; a little Queen of little Holland. And yet a Queenave! every inch a queen! She shows to the best in evening dress at one of the court functions. Though moving about among stately gentlewomen and proud matrons, no one would for a moment mistake the little lady of beautiful complexion, wearing such magnificent diamonds, to be other than the Queen. Hers is, indeed, the wonderful mystery of majesty-in her look, in her voice, in her attitude. And yet, with it all, she combines the freshness of buoyant youth. This combination gives a wonderful charm to her personality, which no one who has the honor to meet her can fail to be impressed by.

As to our Queen's character and talents, I could not better picture her than to say that she is thoroughly Dutch. She shows all the characteristics of our nation in her simplicity, sense of duty. love for the home life, instinctive dislike of display and society. Her manifold social duties are faithfully performed, but as a duty, not as a pleasure. Her happiness begins when she leaves, with the Prince, The Hague and court demands to take up the informal life at Het Loo, her lovely country seat in the province of Gelderland. Here they drive together without any attendance through the beautiful woods, and at picturesque points the Queen will leave her carriage to paint some lovely bit of landscape. She is very clever with her brush, and expert at amateur photography. She is not particularly musical. In sympathy with her nation, her chief talent lies, not in the world of sound, but in the world of color—a talent combined

with a passionate love of the Dutch landscape.

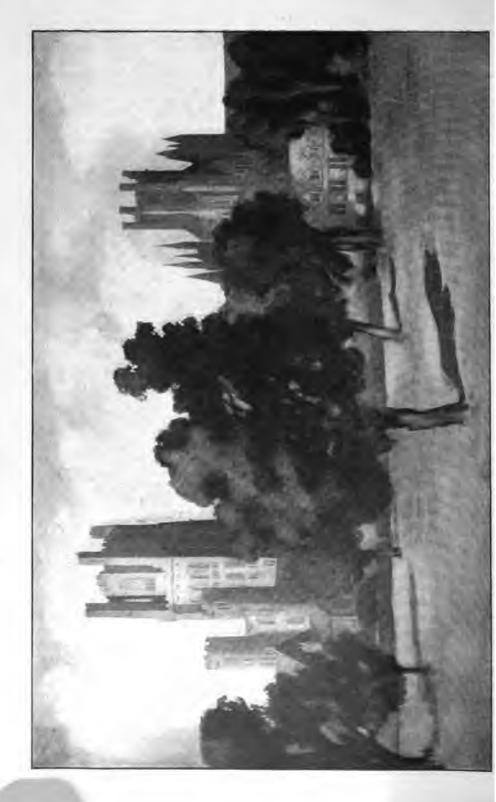
Like the average Hollander, our Queen cares little for travel. Neither the grandest mountain scenery nor the wealthiest world city compares in her eyes to the unique charm of one Dutch windmill reflecting in the quiet little canal, or of one typical village half asleep between its horizon of green meadows.

The Queen has a decided taste for Dutch language and literature. She has a musical voice, and is a remarkable speaker. Her wise mother, knowing that one of her principal duties would be public speaking, had her trained accordingly, and it is a sincere pleasure to hear her deliver a speech, in a voice clear and melodious and in perfect style. She makes a special point of preparation for these speeches.

Her strong sense of duty is perhaps nowhere better shown than in the difficult task of reigning over her independent little country. To be a sovereign, and yet bound at almost every step to an elaborate democratic constitution; to be conservative with the conservatives, progressive with the radicals; to have a mind for art, an eye for science, an ear to the social needs; to please all, to harm none—be the country great or small, the task of the modern sovereign is a difficult one, requiring talent, force of character, and the well-balanced conception of mature age.

Our Queen had just passed her eighteenth birthday when the regal symbols were laid in her hands. Yet I have more than once heard her Ministers say that she entered into the detail of law and administration in a way "most admirable."

I hope that it may be my American mission to Europe to correct a part of the Old World of some of its prejudices against America. If I may have corrected a part of America's false impression concerning our Queen's marriage, I shall feel that my European mission to America has not failed in its highest aim.



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To the Robin in Ety Catnedral

(St. Bartholomew's Day, 1905)

By Charles W. Stubbs

Dean of Elv

"Beati qui habitant in domo tua, Domine! in sæcula sæculorum laudabunt te."-Ps. lxxxiv. 5.

T

O blithesome brother Robin,
God bless thy scarlet breast,
So joyously proclaiming
Thy merry heart's behest!
What hast thou here to tell us,
Here in God's sacred place,
That thou hast donn'd red cassock,
A chorister of grace?

Thou singest, singest, singest,
High on the lofty screen,
Till all the nave roof-spaces
Echo thy plaintive keen.
And when out peals the organ
Its deepest, fullest chord,
Thy flute-like treble answers,
"Let all men praise the Lord!"

TTT

And now before the altar
Crooning thy sweetest notes,
Thy "Gloria in excelsis"
Soft o'er the stillness floats
O merry, happy Robin,
Tell me what thou wouldst say
To these good minster people,
What means thy pious lay?

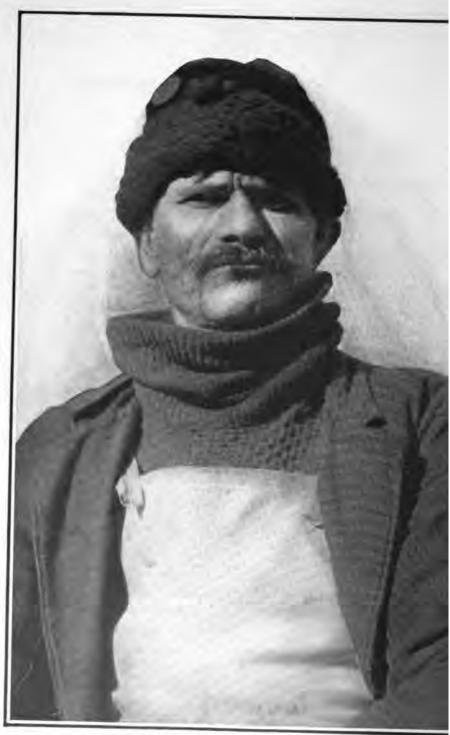
IV.

"I mean, I mean men should be
As bright and blithe as I,
And learn the heart of gladness
In all things to descry.
Be merry, merry,
Is all that I would say.
The sad heart soon grows weary,
The glad goes all the day."

The Deanery, Ely.

V.

O happy brother Robin,
Uplift thy pious song.
Thy brave voice echoes gayly
Our minster aisles along.
Pour out thy notes, sweet singer,
Thou bird that man loves best,
Thrice welcome to our choir-place,
God bless thy scarlet breast!



THE MAN WHO IS DIGGING OUR SUBWAYS

THE COMING OF THE ITALIAN

BY JOHN FOSTER CARR

ILLUSTRATED FROM PHOTOGRAPHS BY ARTHUR HEWITT

TEVER judge a ship from the shore," say the Tuscans, and the contadino, who is fond of proverbs, often quotes this bit of traditional wisdom when he finds that his wolf was only a gray dog after all. Hamlet's cloud is not a camel; nor is an honest workman a shiftless beggar buffoon. The laborer and not the organ-grinder now represents the Italian in America; but the popular idea mistakes the one for the other. Thanks to the secluded ways of Italians, the actual facts of their life among us are almost entirely unknown. In common with Mexicans and Jews, they are pilloried by insulting nicknames. They are charged with pauperism, crime, and degraded living, and they are judged unheard and almost un-These short and sturdy laborers, who swing along the streets with their heavy stride early in the morning and late at night, deserve better of the coun-They are doing the work of men, and they are the full equals of any national army of peasant adventurers that ever landed on our shores.

To brand an Italian immigrant with the word "alien" is to curse him for being unlike ourselves. But when we know who and what he is, and why he comes to the United States, and what he becomes after he gets here, we recognize human kinship, and see what we ourselves should be with different birth and breeding. One serious misconception starts in a name. It is as misleading to dub a nation "Latin" as "Anglo-Saxon." Italians differ from one another almost as much as men can differ who are still of the same color. Ethnography now makes its classifications according to cranial formation. Most northern Italians are of the Alpine race and have short, broad skulls. southern Italians are of the Mediterranean race and have long, narrow skulls. Between the two lies a broad strip of country, in northern and central Italy,

peopled by those of mixed blood. History has a less theoretical story to tell, and explains the differences that separate near neighbors, in the north as in the south. If a single race ever inhabited Italy to form an original parent stock, it has borne the grafts of so many other races that all sign of it is lost. For prolonged periods sometimes one part of the land, sometimes another, and sometimes the whole peninsula and the islands, have been held in the power of Phœnicians, Greeks, the countless wild hordes of the North, the Saracens, the Spanish, French, and Germans. They all came in great numbers and freely married with native women. In the northeast there is a Slav intermixture. and a trace of the Mongol, In appearance the Italian may be anything from a tow-headed Teuton to a swarthy Arab. Varying with the district from which he comes, in manner he may be rough and boisterous; suave, fluent, and gesticulative; or grave and silent.

These differences extend to the very essentials of life. The provinces of Italy are radically unlike, not only in dress, cookery, and customs, but in character, thought, and speech. A distinct change of dialect is often found in a morning's walk, and it would probably be impossible to travel fifty miles along any road in Italy without meeting greater differences in language than can be found in our English anywhere between Maine and California. The schools, the army, and the navy are now carrying the Italian language to the remotest province, but an ignorant Valtellinese, from the mountains of the north, and an ignorant Neapolitan have as yet no means of understanding each other; and, what is more remarkable, the speech of the unschooled peasant of Genoa is unintelligible to his fellow of Piedmont, who lives less than one hundred miles away. A Genoese ship's captain can understand his Sicilian sailors, when they are talking familiarly

among themselves, about as well as an English commander of a "Peninsular and Oriental" liner can follow the jabbering of his Lascar crew. Nor can ignorant men from some of the provinces understand the pure Italian. Two classes were recently held in the Episcopal Church of San Salvatore, in Broome Street. New York, to teach Sicilians enough Italian to enable them to use their prayer-book.

The age-long political division of Italy into a number of petty States preserved all differences and inspired

an intense local patriotism; nor did the narrow belfry spirit wholly vanish with the political union of 1870. Relics of it are still found. Ask a Roman peasant if he is an Italian, and he is as likely as not to say "No," that he is a Roman; and so with a Genoese or a Neapolitan. In dislike or indifference toward those from other parts of the country, the Italian abroad usually seeks those of his own city or province. In the same way, little circles of friends are formed in the Italian army and navy. Question a group of sailors on shore leave from an Italian man-of-war, and you will probably find that, with perhaps a single exception, they are all of one place. Ask them how this happens, and they may tell you, as they have told me, laughing: "Friendship is for those from the same fatherland.

These profound dissimilarities make sweeping generalities about Italians impossible. Yet in one point every province is alike. The poor everywhere are all crushed by heavy taxes for maintenance of the large army and navy which make Italy a first-class European power.



THE ORGAN-GRINDER IS NO LONGER OUR REPRESENTATIVE ITALIAN

More serious than the exactions of the tax-gatherer is the long-continued agricultural depression that has reduced a large part of the South to Nor is poverty. this all. The peasant's lot is made infinitely worse by an Irish question that is the blight of nearly all southern Italy, Sicily, and Sardinia. There are the same huge entailedestates and the same lazy, reactionary, and absentee landlords. Throughout large sections great tracts of fertile soil support only one shepherd or one farmer per square

mile. To these idle lands must be added the vast stretches of barren mountains, and the malaria-infested fifth of the entire surface of the peninsula. No new territory has been added to the kingdom, while the population has been increasing within twenty years from twenty-eight and one-half to thirty-two and one-half millions—an average density for the whole country of 301 per square mile. And the excess of births over deaths amounts to nearly 350,000 a year—the population of a province. Through whole districts in this overcrowded land Italians have to choose between emigration and starvation.

A definite economic cause drives the poor *Meridionale* from his home, and a definite economic cause and not a vague migratory instinct brings him to America. He comes because the country has the most urgent need of unskilled labor. This need largely shapes the character of our Italian immigration, and offers immediate work to most of the newcomers. Almost eighty per cent. of them are males; over eighty per cent. are between the ages of fourteen and forty-five; over eighty per cent. are from the southern

provinces, and nearly the same percentage are unskilled laborers. who include a large majority of the illiterates. These categories overlap, so that the bulk of our Italian immigration is composed of ignorant, able-bodied laborers from the South. They come by the hundred thousand, their great numbers are quickly absorbed withdisturbing out either the public peace or the labor market. In spite of the enormous immigration of Italians in 1903 and 1904, the last issue of the United



THE MAN WITH THE SHOVEL IS OUR REPRE-SENTATIVE ITALIAN TO-DAY

States Labor Bulletin shows that the average daily wage of the laborer in the North Atlantic States—the "congested" district at the very gates of Ellis Island-had increased within the year from \$1.33 to And 1904 was not a particularly prosperous year. Equally significant, in view of the unprecedented Italian immigration of the first six months of this year, is the announcement in the last number of the Bulletin of the New York State Department of Labor that the improvement in the conditions of employment has been so marked, and "the proportion of idle wage-earners has diminished so rapidly, that the second quarter of 1905 surpasses that of 1902, the record vear."

The demand of the East for labor is first heard by the new arrival who needs to look for work, and probably a majority of Italian braccianti never go more than a hundred and fifty miles away from New York. Immediate work and high wages, and not a love for the tenement, create our "Little Italies." The great enterprises in progress in and about the city, the subways, tunnels. water-works,

railroad construction, as well as the ordinary building operations, call for a vast army of laborers. For new and remodeled tenements alone. authorized by the Building Department between April and June, 1905. the estimated cost was over \$39,000,000. This gives measure of the demand. A labor leader has furnished another. At a recent conference, arguing that restriction of immigration would benefit American labor, he said that an authority in the building trade had

calculated that with immigration suspended, common labor in New York would be receiving \$3 within a year. He had not calculated the paralysis that such a wage would inflict upon industry.

Of all that come in response to our National invitation to the worker, the educated Italian without a manual trade is the Italian who most signally fails in America. He is seen idling at the cheap restaurants everywhere in the Italian colonies. But the illiterate laborer takes no chances. He usually has definite knowledge of precisely where work is needed before he leaves home. thousand immigrants sometimes reach Ellis Island in a single day. Yet each Italian must earn his living in some way, and that at once, for he brings no more than eight or ten dollars with him.

This same inborn conservatism that risks nothing makes of southern Italians the most mobile supply of labor that this country has ever known. Migratory laborers, who come here to work during eight or nine months of the year, and return between October and December, are a very large part of the annual immi-

They form a stream of workers that ebbs and flows from Italy to America in instant response to demand; and yet the significance of the movement has gone almost entirely unnoticed. than 98,000 Italians—laborers and others. but chiefly laborers—went back to Italy in 1903. In 1904, owing to a temporary lull in our prosperity and the general business uncertainty during a Presidential campaign, the demand slackened. The common laborer, who ordinarily pays a padrone fifty cents as a fee for employment, was offering as high as five dollars for a job in the summer of 1904. In the end, more than 134,000 Italians returned to Italy within the year, and we were saved the problem of an army of unemployed.

If the ignorant immigrant is a menace, the mobility of Italian unskilled labor has conferred another blessing upon us, for it is the very element that contains a large majority of the dreaded illiterates. The whole number of them who enter the community thus gives no indication of the number who are permanently added to our population, and the yearly percentage of their arrivals since 1901 has fallen from 59.1 per cent. to 47 per cent., and is likely to fall still lower. But there is something to be said on behalf of the illiterates who remain among us. They are never Anarchists; they are guiltless of the so-called "black hand" letters. The individual bracciante is, in fact, rarely anything but a gentle and often a rather dull drudge, who still has wit enough to say that he knows he cannot be Cæsar, and is very well content to be plain Neapolitan Knowledge is power, but an Nicola. education gives no certificate of character, and still less does ability to read and write afford any test whatever either of morals or of brains. A concrete instance gives a practical proof. There are more than four times as many illiterates in the general population of the United States as were found, according to the last published report, among those arrested in Greater New York between January 1 and March 31, 1905: 44,014 persons were arrested; of these, only 1,175, or a little over 2.6 per cent., were unable to read or write. The percentage of illiteracy

for the entire United States is 10.6 per cent., and for that of the native whites alone 4.6 per cent.

The very success of American schools goes far in explaining the mystery of our exorbitant demand for unskilled labor. In proportion as they fulfill their mission they are depriving us of the rough la-The boy who is forbidden by the New York law to leave school until he is fourteen years old and has reached the fifth grammar grade, later in life does not join a gang that digs sewers and subways. Such laborers are recruited from the illiterate, or nearly illiterate—those who have failed in the beginning of the struggle in which brains For our future supply of the lower grades of labor we must depend more and more upon countries with a poorer school system than ours.

Lies have short legs, the Florentine tag has it, but the Italian is still accused of being a degenerate, a lazy fellow and a pauper, half a criminal, a present danger and a serious menace to our civilization. If there is a substantial basis of truth in these charges, it must appear very clearly in Greater New York, which is now disputing Rome's place as the third largest Italian city in the world. Moreover, New York contains nearly two-fifths of all the Italians in the United States, and in proportion to its size it is the least prosperous Italian colony in the country, and shelters a considerable part of our immigrant failures—those who cannot fall into step with the march of American life.

First, as to the paupers. The Italian inhabitants of New York City number nearly 450,000; the Irish, somewhat over 300.000. In males—the criminal sex the Italians outnumber the Irish about two to one. Yet by a visit to the great almshouse on Blackwell's Island and an examination of the unpublished record for 1904, I found that during that year 1,564 Irish had been admitted, and only 16 Italians. Mr. James Forbes, the chief of the Mendicancy Department of the Charity Organization Society, tells me that he has never seen or heard of an Italian tramp. As for begging, between July 1, 1904, and September 30, 1905, the Mendicancy Police took into custody



IN THE BLEECKER STREET COLONY



A GENOESE RESTAURANT KEEPER, HIS COOK AND WAITRESS The cook, who comes from Parma, only seventy-five miles from Genoa, has had to learn Genoese as a new language



SIGNOR ANTONIO STELLA

A prominent physician and philanthropist

519 Irish and only 92 Italians. Pauperism has a close relation with suicide, and of such deaths during the year the record counts 89 Irish and 23 Italians. The Irish have always supplied much more than their share of our paupers; but Irish brawn has contributed its full part to the prosperity of the country; and the comparatively large proportion of Irish inmates in all our penal institutions never justified the charge that the Irish are a criminal race, or Irish immigration undesirable. That was the final answer to the Know-Nothing argument!

Nor do court records show that Italians are the professional criminals they are said to be. Take the city magistrates' reports for the year ending December 31, 1901—the latest date for which all the necessary data are available. At that time, using Dr. Laidlaw's estimate of additions by immigration to the population of the city to May 1, 1902, there were about 282,804 Irish and 200,549 Italians in Greater New York. If the proportion of the sexes remained unchanged from the taking of the census, there were 117,599 Irish males, and 114,673 Italian. This near equality of the criminal sex in the two



SIGNOR ANTONIO FRANCOLINI President of the New York Italian Savings Bank, prominent in reform movements and philanthropy

REPRESENTATIVE ITALIAN

nationalities makes possible a rough measure of Italian criminality.

In these columns of crime the most striking fact in the Italian's favor is a remarkable showing of sobriety. During the year, 7,281 Irish were haled into court accused of "intoxication" and "intoxication and disorderly conduct," while the Italians arrested on the same charge numbered only 513. With the exception of the Russian Jews, Italians are by far the most sober of all nationalities in New York, including the native born. Next, noticing only offenses committed with particular frequency, the Italians again appear at a pronounced advantage in: Assaults (misdemeanor), 284 Irish and 139 Italians; disorderly conduct, 3,278 Irish and 1,454 Italians; larceny (misdemeanor), 297 Irish and 174 Italians; vagrancy, 1,031 Irish and 80 Insanity is here listed with Italians. crime, and there are 146 Irish commitments to 35 Italian. Irish and Italians are nearly at an equality in: Burglaries, 63 Irish and 57 Italians; and larceny (felony), 122 Irish and 94 Italians. the other hand, Italians show at the worst in: Violation of corporation ordinance (chiefly peddling without a license),

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SIGNOR ANTONIO ZUCCA

President of the New York Italian Chamber of Commerce, prominent in politics



SIGNOR ROSSATI An Italian agricultural expert

SELF-MADE MEN

196 Irish and 1,169 Italians; and assault (felony), 75 Irish and 155 Italians. In homicides, quite contrary to the popular impression, the Italians are only charged with the ratio exactly normal to their numbers after taking the average per 100,000 for the whole city, while the Irish are accused of nearly two and one-half times their quota: Irish 50, Italians 14. The report for 1903, the last published, after important changes effected by almost two years of immigration, shows an unchanged proportional variation: Irish 59, Italians 21.

The one serious crime to which Italians are prone more than other men is an unpremeditated crime of violence. is mostly charged, and probably with entire justice, upon the men of four provinces, and Girgenti in Sicily is particularly specified. It is generally the outcome of quarrels among themselves, prompted by jealousy and suspected The Sicilians' code of honor treachery. is an antiquated and repellent one, but even his vendetta is less ruthless than the Kentucky mountaineer's. It stops at the grave. Judged in the mass, Italians are peaceable, as they are law-abiding. The exceptions make up the national criminal record; and as there is a French or English type of criminal, so there is a Sicilian type, who has succeeded in impressing our imaginations with some fear and terror.

The Mafia is the expression of Sicilian criminality, and here, as in Italy, the methods of the Sicilian criminal are the same. For some of his crimes he is more apt to have an accomplice than most other criminals. But there is no sufficient reason for believing that a Mafia, organized as it often is in Italy, a definite society of the lawless, exists anywhere in this country. No one who knows the different Italian colonies well will admit the possibility of its existence. The authorities at police headquarters scout the idea. As with the Mafia, so with the Black Hand. I went to Sergeant Petrosino, who is said to know every important Italian criminal in New York. He disposed very summarily of the bogey: "As far as they can be traced, threatening letters are generally a hoax; some of them are attempts at blackmail by inexperienced criminals, who have had the idea suggested to them by reading about the Black Hand in the sensational papers; but the num-

ber of threatening letters sent with the deliberate intention of using violence as a last resort to extort money is ridiculously small."

It is important that two or three other truths about the Italian should be known. Like all their immigrant predecessors, Italians profess no special cult of soap and water; and here, too, there are differences, for some Italians are cleaner than others. Still, cleanliness is the rule and dirt the exception. The inspectors of the New York Tenement-House Department report that the tenements in the Italian quarters are in the best condition of all, and that they are infinitely cleaner than those in the Jewish and Irish districts. And the same with overcrowding. One of New York's typical "Little Italies" is inhabited by 1,075 Italian families—so poor that only twenty-six of them pay over \$19 monthly rent-and yet, when a complete canvass was made by the Federation of Churches, the average allotment of space was found to be one room to 1.7 persons. Like the Germans and Irish of the fifties, our Italians are largely poor, ignorant peasants when they come to us. But by the enforcement of the recent law our present immigrants are greatly superior physically and morally to those of the Know-Nothing days. The difference in criminal records is partly the proof of a better law. The worst of the newer tenements are better than the best of the old kind, and every surrounding is more sanitary. Better schools, recreation piers, public baths, playgrounds, and new parks are helping the Italian children of the tenements to develop into healthy and useful men and women.

To understand our Italians we need to get close enough to them to see that they are of the same human pasta—to use their word—as the rest of us. Thev need no defense but the truth. In spite of the diverse character that all the provinces stamp upon their children, our southern Italian immigrants still have many qualities in common. peculiar defects and vices have been exaggerated until the popular notion of the Italian represents the truth in about the same way that the London stage Yankee hits off the average American. Besides,

as the Italian Poor Richard says, "It's a bad wool that can't be dyed," and our Italians have their virtues, too, which should be better known. Many of them are, it is true, ignorant, and clannish, and conservative. Their humility and lack of self-reliance are often discouraging. Many think that a smooth and diplomatic falsehood is better than an uncivil truth. and, by a paradox, a liar is not necessarily either a physical or a moral coward. No force can make them give evidence against one another. Generally they have little orderliness, small civic sense, and no instinctive faith in the law. of them are hot-blooded and quick to avenge an injury, but the very large majority are gentle, kindly, and as mild-They are docile, tempered as oxen. patient, faithful. They have great physical vigor, and are the hardest and best laborers we have ever had, if we are to believe the universal testimony of their employers. Many are well-mannered and quick-witted; all are severely logical. As a class they are emotional, imaginative, fond of music and art. They are honest. saving, industrious, temperate, and so exceptionally moral that two years ago the Secretary of the Italian Chamber of Commerce in San Francisco was able to boast that the police of that city had never yet found an Italian woman of evil character. Even in New York (and I have my information from Mr. Forbes, of the Charity Organization Society) Italian prostitution was entirely unknown until by our corrupt police it was colonized as scientifically as a culture of bacteria made by a biologist; and to-day it is less proportionately than that of any other nationality within the limits of the greater city. More than 750,000 Italian immigrants have come to us within the last four years, and during that entire time only a single woman of them has been ordered deported charged with prostitution.

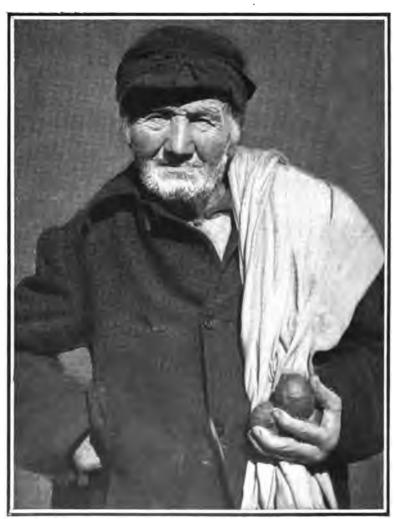
So far from being a scum of Italy's paupers and criminals, our Italian immigrants are the very flower of her peasantry. They bring healthy bodies and a prodigious will to work. They have an intense love for their fatherland, and a fondness for old customs; and both are deepened by the hostility they



meet and the gloom of the tenements that they are forced to inhabit. The sunshine, the simplicity, the happiness of the old outdoor ways are gone, and often you will hear the words, "Non c'é piacere nella vita"—there is no pleasure in life here. But yet they come, driven

preservation of the Italian spirit and tradition.

But there are limits to the building of an Italian city on American soil. New York tenement-houses are not adapted to life as it is organized in the hill villages of Italy, and a change has come over



A LEMON PEDDLER FROM CAMPO BASSO

from a land of starvation to a land of plenty. Each year about one-third of the great host of industrial recruits from Italy, breaking up as it lands into little groups of twos and threes, and invading the tenements almost unnoticed, settles in the different colonies of New York. This is a mighty, silent influence for the every relation of life. The crowded living is strange and depressing; instead of work accompanied by song in orangeries and vineyards, there is silent toil in the cañons of a city street; instead of the splendid and expostulating carabiniere there is the rough force of the New York policeman to represent authority.

There is the diminished importance of the church, and, in spite of their set ways, there is different eating and drinking, sleeping and waking. A different life breeds different habits, and different habits with American surroundings effect a radical change in the man. It is difficult for the American to realize this. He sees that the signs and posters of the colony are all in Italian; he hears the newsboys cry "Progresso," "Araldo," "Bolletino;" he hears peddlers shout out in their various dialects the names of strange-looking vegetables and fish. The whole district seems so Italianized and cut off from the general American life that it might as well be one of the ancient walled towns of the Apennines. He thinks that he is transported to Italy, and moralizes over the "unchanging colony." But the greenhorn from Fiumefreddo is in another world. Everything is strange to him; and I have repeatedly heard Italians say that for a long time after landing they could not distinguish between an Italian who had been here four or five years and a native American.

Refractory though the grown-up immigrant may often be to the spirit of our Republic, the children almost immediately become Americans. The boy takes no interest in "Mora," a guessing match played with the fingers, or "Boccie," a kind of bowls—his father's favorite games. Like any other American boy, he plays marbles, "I spy the wolf," and, when there is no policeman about, baseball. Little girls skip the rope to the calling of "Pepper, salt, mustard, vinegar." The "Lunga Tela" is forgotten, and our equivalent, "London bridge is falling down," and "All around the mulberry-bush," sound through the streets of the colony on summer evenings. You are struck with the deep significance of such a sight if you walk on Mott Street, where certainly more than half of the men and women who crowd every block can speak no English at all, and see, as I have seen, a full dozen of small girls, not more than five or six years old, marching along, hand in hand, singing their kindergarten song, "My little sister lost her shoe." Through these children the

common school is leavening the whole mass, and an old story is being retold.

Like the Italians, the Irish and the Germans had to meet distrust and abuse when they came to do the work of the rough day-laborer. The terrors and excesses of Native Americanism and Know-Nothingism came and went, but the prejudice remained. Yet the Irish and Germans furnished good raw material for citizenship, and quickly responded to American influences. They dug cellars and carried bricks and mortar; they sewered, graded, and paved the streets and built the railroads. slowly the number of skilled mechanics among them increased. Many acquired a competence and took a position of some dignity in the community, and Irish and Germans moved up a little in the social scale. They were held in greater respect when, in the dark days of the Civil War, we saw that they yielded to none in self-sacrificing devotion to the country. Thousands of Germans fought for the Union besides those who served under Sigel. Thousands of Irishmen died for the cause besides those of the "Old Sixty-ninth." "Dutch" and "Mick" began to go out of fashion as nicknames, and the seventies had not passed before it was often said among the common people that mixed marriages between Germans or Irish and natives were usually happy marriages.

From the very bottom, Italians are climbing up the same rungs of the same social and industrial ladder. But it is still a secret that they are being gradually turned into Americans; and, for all its evils, the city colony is a wonderful help in the process. The close contact of American surroundings eventually destroys the foreign life and spirit, and of this New York gives proof. Only two poor fragments remain of the numerous important German and Irish colonies that were flourishing in the city twenty-five or thirty years ago; while the ancient settled Pennsylvania Dutch, thanks to their isolation, are not yet fully merged in the great citizen body. And so, in the city colony, Italians are becoming Americans. Legions of them, who never intended to remain here when they landed, have cast in their lot



A GROUP OF SCHOOL CHILDREN, ALL ITALIANS
"Through these children the common school is leavening the whole mass"

definitely with us; and those who have already become Americanized, but no others, are beginning to intermarry with our people. The mass of them are still laborers, toiling like ants in adding to the wealth of the country; but thousands are succeeding in many branches of trade and manufacture. The names of Italians engaged in business in the United States fill a special directory of over five hundred pages. Their real estate holdings and bank deposits aggregate enormous totals. Their second generation is already crowding into all the professions, and we have Italian teachers, dentists, architects, engineers, doctors, lawyers, and judges.

But more important than any material success is their loyalty to the nation of their adoption. Yet with this goes an undying love for their native land. There are many types of these new citizens. I have in mind an Italian banker who will serve for one. His Americanism is enthusiastic and breezily Western. He has paid many visits to the land of his birth, and delights in its music, art, and literature. He finds an almost sacred inspiration in the glories of its Beginning in extreme poverty, history. by his own unaided efforts he has secured education and wealth; by his - and State in which services

he lives he has won public esteem. Perhaps no other Italian has achieved so brilliant a success. But as a citizen he is no more typical or hopeful an example of the Italian who becomes an American than Giovanni Aloi, a street-sweeper of my acquaintance.

This honest spazzino of the white uniform sent a son to Cuba in the Spanish War; boasts that he has not missed a vote in fifteen years; in his humble way did valiant service in his political club against the "boss" of New York during the last campaign. And yet he declares that we have no meats or vegetables with "the flavor or substance" of those in the old country; reproaches us severely for having "no place which is such a pleasure to see as Naples," and swears by "Torqua-ato Ta-ass" as the greatest of poets, though he only knows four lines of the Gerusalemme. by side over the fireplace in his livingroom are two unframed pictures tacked to the wall. Little paper flags of the two countries are crossed over each. One is a chromo of Garibaldi in his red shirt. The other is a newspaper supplement portrait of Lincoln.

A man like Giovanni Aloi, yearning for the home of his youth, sometimes goes back to Italy, but he soon returns. Unconsciously, in his very inmost being,

prophecy of Bayard Taylor's great ode is fulfilled. Their tongue melts in ours.

he has become an American, and the Their race unites to the strength of ours. For many thousands of them their Italy now lies by the western brine.



THE "SPAZZINO"

NIAGARA

BY FLORENCE WILKINSON

THE WATER TALKED TO THE TURBINE
AT THE INTAKE'S COUCHANT KNEE:
Brother, thy mouth is darkness
Devouring me.

I rush at the whirl of thy bidding;
I pour and spend
Through the wheel-pit's nether tempest.
Brother, the end?
Before fierce days of tent and javelin,
Before the cloudy kings of Ur,
Before the Breath upon the waters,
My splendors were.

Red hurricanes of roving worlds,
Huge wallow of the uncharted Sea,
The formless births of fluid stars,
Remember me.
A glacial dawn, the smoke of rainbows,

The swiftness of the canoned west, The steadfast column of white volcanoes, Leap from my breast.

But now, subterranean, mirthless,
I tug and strain.

Beating out a dance thou hast taught me
With penstock, cylinder, vane.

I am more delicate than moonlight,
Grave as the thunder's rocking brow;
I am genesis, revelation,
Yet less than thou.

By this I adjure thee, brother, Beware to offend! For the least, the dumbfounded, the conquered, Shall judge in the end.

THE TURBINE TALKED TO THE MAN
AT THE SWITCHBOARD'S CRYPTIC KEY:
Brother, thy touch is whirlwind
Consuming me.

I revolve at the pulse of thy finger.

Millions of power I flash

For the muted and ceaseless cables

And the engine's crash.

Like Samson, fettered, blindfolded,

I sweat at my craft;

But I build a temple I know not,

Driver and ring and shaft.

Wheat-field and tunnel and furnace, They tremble and are aware. But beyond thou compellest me, brother,
Beyond these, where?
Singing like sunrise on battle,
I travail as hills that bow;
I am wind and fire of prophecy,
Yet less than thou.

By this I adjure thee, brother, Be slow to offend! For the least, the blindfolded, the conquered, Shall judge in the end.

THE MAN STROVE WITH HIS MAKER
AT THE CLANG OF THE POWER-HOUSE DOOR:
Lord, Lord, Thou art unsearchable,
Troubling me sore.

I have thrust my spade to the caverns;
I have yoked the cataract;
I have counted the steps of the planets.
What thing have I lacked?
I am come to a goodly country,
Where, putting my hand to the plow,
I have not considered the lilies.
Am I less than Thou?

THE MAKER SPAKE WITH THE MAN
AT THE TERMINAL-HOUSE OF THE LINE:
For delight wouldst thou have desolation,
O brother mine,
And flaunt on the highway of nations
A byword and sign?

Have I fashioned thee then in my image
And quickened thy spirit of old,
If thou spoil my garments of wonder
For a handful of gold?
I wrought for thy glittering possession
The waterfall's glorious lust;
It is genesis, revelation,—
Wilt thou grind it to dust?

Niagara, the genius of freedom,
A creature for base command!
Thy soul is the pottage thou sellest:
Withhold thy hand.
Or take him and bind him and make him
A magnificent slave if thou must—
But remember that beauty is treasure
And gold is dust.

Yea, thou, returned to the fertile ground
In the humble days to be,
Shalt learn that he who slays a splendor
Has murdered Me.
By this I adjure thee, brother,
Beware to offend!
For the least, the extinguished, the conquered,
Shall judge in the end.



A WOMAN'S IMPRESSIONS OF THE PHILIPPINES

BY MABEL T. BOARDMAN

Miss Mabel Boardman was a prominent member of the party of Government officials and others under the charge of Secretary Taft which visited the Philippines last summer. In response to a request from The Outlook for a woman's impressions of the Philippines, Miss Boardman has written the following account of her observations there. Miss Boardman is a resident of Washington, and has been active and efficient in the reorganization of the American National Red Cross.—The Editors.

To find so far in the East, with such Oriental surroundings, a city like Manila, with its many traces of Western civilization, convinces any one who stops to think, that in the Philippines exist conditions which are not to be found in the neighboring countries. It is true that in the ports of China and Japan many of the streets and houses may have European aspects, but this is entirely due to the encroachments of Western commerce.

As we drove from the dock on the Pasig River, where we landed on Saturday morning, August 5, up through the streets of the old walled city to the Ayuntamiento, the Government building, I was immediately impressed with the Spanish appearance of the houses, the convents, and the churches that we passed. The light-colored two or three storied buildings, some with overhanging galleries, were a marked contrast to the long rows of low, black houses that line so many of the streets of Tokyo. After the jinrikishas we had seen in Japan, and the chairs we were to use in China and Korea, the scores of little native carriages, with occasionally a large victoria of some American or foreign resident that rattled along beside us, brought again a sense of European civilization. An attempt was once made to introduce jinrikishas into the islands, but the Filipinos were so opposed to their fellow-men being transformed into beasts of burden that it had to be abandoned.

Spanish again is the fine Government building, the Ayuntamiento, which fronts on the Plaza McKinley, and crowded was its great marble hall with Filipinos

and Americans when we arrived. the dais sat the Governor-General of the Islands, the Philippine Commission, and the Secretary of War. Behind them on the wall hung high the portraits of Presidents McKinley and Roosevelt, and in close juxtaposition, on carved wooden medallions, were the heads of the Spanish Queen-mother and the little boy-All that such a scene typified aroused in me, and I think in many others, a new and intense emotion. First the soil of that mysterious East, then the foundation of Spanish Christian civilization; and now, what manner of structure are we, the American people, to build thereon?

Here, at this meeting of welcome, the freedom of the city was presented to the Secretary of War by the Mayor of Manila; and I noticed there, as on other like occasions, the eager interest with which the Philippine people of all classes listened to the speeches. These had always to be translated either into Spanish or into English, so that even brief addresses became somewhat lengthy affairs; but the standing crowds at the sides and back of the room never thinned, nor did the eyes of the listeners turn away from the speakers. How many of them comprehended the import of what was said? How many listened, as children will listen, to a story they do not understand? These are questions I cannot answer, for nowhere did we come in such touch with the tao, the man of the people, as to have an opportunity to learn his point of view. But is it probable that he differs from the great majority of the rest of mankind, contented if he has enough to live comfortably according to his

wants, and discontented if conditions are otherwise?

After the welcome at the Ayuntamiento we were driven to the houses of the various hosts, most of them being American officials. There had apparently been some friction between the Americans and the Filipinos in regard to the entertainment of the Commission. On the one hand, we were told that the Filipinos had not shown any energetic anxiety to entertain the party, and that when asked what nights should be reserved for any of their hospitality few responses were received, so that the Americans took the matter in hand and planned many dinners, receptions, and other entertainments. The other side of the story, for there was another side, was not so easily to be learned. To a people brought up on the mañana principle the direct and energetic questions, "Whom will you entertain?" or "What evenings do you wish for a dinner or a ball?" are much too startling for a prompt response. Furthermore, inquiries had been made as to whether or not Chinese cooks, those cordons bleus of the East, were kept, or horses and carriages for their guests' convenience. These questions had made them hesitate to proffer such hospitality as they felt they were able to offer. The few members of the Commission who did stay in Philippine families could have re ceived no greater kindness and hospitality than were shown them by their hosts.

Monday was the day of the great civic, industrial, and military parade. After a shower or two came a bright, sunny day, the temperature no higher than an average summer day at home, though the humidity takes the starch out of one's energy as well as one's clothes. For two hours or more the procession passed-regiments of United States soldiers, native constabulary, thousands of school-children, floats representing municipal and governmental departments, the various trades and manufactures, the manual training school, and bands by the score. Bands before and after everything! and at one time, when nothing more could be found to precede and follow, they preceded and followed each other, marching happily along, fourteen strong, each

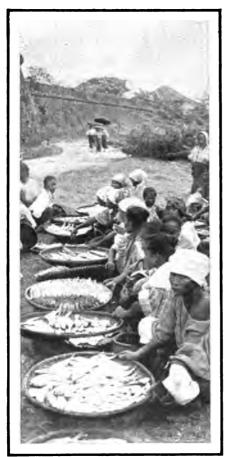
serenely playing a different tune. And finally came the end, the fire department of the past, an ancient and for once subdued Filipino pony dragging slowly a small water-cart, beside which walked a dozen men carrying pails. Then, like whirlwinds from the high bridge up the street, came tearing down and thundering by, one after the other, the great American fire-engines—the East and the West again.

But if we try to rush our Western ideas into the stolidity of the East with the same chariot-race speed, we may learn that patience is a greater virtue in the Oriental march of human progress than a superfluity of American "hustling." It was all very interesting, but the sight that had left the deepest impression was that of the thousands of school-children marching along under the American flag. With them rests the future of their country.

One morning the Secretary, Miss Roosevelt, and some of the rest of us gave to a visit to the Manual Training School-now full of pupils-and to the Normal School. The young Philippine woman at the head of the girls' dormitory of the latter school told me that among those girls, many of whom speak different tongues, English is now used as the general language. After a tour of inspection we found about two hundred of the Normal School young men and women assembled in a large hall. Watching the faces as the Secretary spoke to them most earnestly of their great responsibilities—no interpreter was needed, so well did they understand English—I noticed among the young men one or two whose expressions seemed to warn us of days of future mistaken patriotism on their part, but the majority of them looked happy and contented. The faces of the young women were especially bright and responsive. other morning Miss Roosevelt and four or five other women of the Commission's party went to a meeting of the Women's. Club, whose President, Miss Felix, read a well-written paper in Spanish on "The Philippine Woman, Past and Present," a translation of which was afterwards given by one of the American teachers. A women's club in the tropical Orient,

in the midst of the Eastern subjugation of women—what a flavor of the West!

A Philippine entertainment came at last—a musicale in a private house. We drove through a small garden, and under a porte-cochère. A broad stairway led from the lower hall to the main hall above, where we were received by Señor and Señora Limjah. Off from this hall,



FROM STEREOGRAPH, COPYRIGHT, 1908, BY UNDERWOOD & UNDERWOOD
THE FISH MARKET AT MANILA

as is usual in these houses, opened the various rooms of the house, including most of the bedrooms, and in the hall the musicale was held. The Philippine people are exceedingly fond of music, but it seemed to me their playing and their singing lacked expression.

Fortunately, that evening I had the opportunity of meeting a number of Philippine women.

Only a very few of them spoke English, and my conversation was somewhat restricted by the limitations of those who did. There was a certain pathos in a remark one of them made: "We have talked and talked for months of your coming, and when you do come we have seen so little of you. Now you go away so soon you cannot come to see us in our homes."

Saturday night, at the Ayuntamiento, a ball was given by the Filipinos for Miss Roosevelt. Here, as at all other balls, came again the West with its social life. Waltzes and two-steps were danced, and a square dance called the rigadon. This Miss Roosevelt and some of us had learned on the steamer, tutored by the Secretary and some young Philippine fellow-voyagers, so that we could dance it without being reduced to the hopeless confusion that generally ends our own lancers. A sympathy in pleasures and amusements goes a long way in cementing a friendship.

Sunday we sailed away from Manila on the transport Logan for a two weeks' tour of the islands, and on Tuesday morning our first stop, Iloilo, on the island of Panay, brought us into the heart of the sugar-growing country. We ran up the river in a procession of little boats to near the municipal building, in whose upper hall were assembled a number of the ladies of the town to welcome us, brave in their mestizo dresses and many diamonds in spite of the early morning hour.

In the afternoon carriages were provided for a sugar-mill visit and a tour of the surrounding country. It fell to my fortunate lot to be taken on this drive by a young Miss Lacson, daughter of a prominent sugar-planter of Occidental Miss Lacson, having been educated in a Hongkong convent, spoke both French and English. We tagged on behind the long procession of army wagons in a small victoria drawn by a pair of diminutive ponies, whose erratic actions occasionally snapped some part of the harness. The readiness with which the driver produced string to repair damages, and the absolute unconcern of my companion, proved the commonness of such experiences, and



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PLOWING A RICE-FIELD WITH A WATER BUFFALO

reminded me of Mr. Kipling's description of his departure after a visit to some Indian rajah, when he drove away in a victoria "which the horses dragged by a few pieces of string and the grace of God." As the army wagons held together better than did we, we were soon left behind, and thus escaped the sugarmill, visiting instead a fine old Spanish-In the lower hall or court stood house. an array of family carriages. The walls and doors of the large upper hall and salon were of beautiful old carved mahogany, and especially attractive were the delicate arches that separated the rooms from the gallery that surrounded The outer sides of this gallery consisted mainly of the great sliding windows that opened towards a picturesque but unkempt plaza. Not content with the ancient splendor, the good dame of the house had draped the beautiful mahogany walls with festoons of crinkled flower-printed paper in honor of this festive occasion, and the tables of the salon were filled with rolls of jusi, left there in hopes of a sale. The house swarmed with children, Señora Jalandones having nine of her own, and, with their patriarchal way of living, cousins innumerable seemed to be part of the household.

My little companion, Miss Lacson, was most eager to have the tariff on Philippine sugar removed, so I gladly presented her to several of the Senators and Representatives. It is to be hoped that her gentle plea in broken English, "Please take off the sugar Dingley tariff, then I can have a little money to go to Washington to thank the Senators and Representatives for helping us here," will not be without results.

While we were walking through the picturesque old cathedral of Jara she slipped away from my side and knelt for a moment before the shrine of a transept chapel. How could one doubt the nature of that silent little prayer that the Blessed Virgin would soften the hearts of the Senators from the beet and sugar growing States!

At the banquet in the evening the tables formed the letters I L O I L O.



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IN THE SUBURBS OF MANILA

1906

The menu, as at all other banquets, was that of a European dinner, save that such fruits as mangoes, lanzones, chicos, etc., were unfamiliar to the most of us. Philippine women appear very fond of fruits and sweets, and the orderly course of a menu is not always to their liking, so that I was not surprised to see some of my neighbors at table partake of fruit or cake whenever the fancy seized them, rising up from their chairs to reach for some distant sweetmeat. If I glanced in their direction, it was immediately interpreted as a like desire, and a hospitable hand was promptly extended to deposit beside my plate a share from the plundered dish. Affairs were not prosperous in the sugar-growing provinces, and the resulting discontent showed itself in several of the speeches; but have not hard times in our own country had a tendency to arouse dissatisfaction with the party in control and a desire for a change of administration?

The trip next day in small coast boats across to Bacolod on the island of Negros was not undertaken by many of the

women, as there was a chance of rough water. Even the small coast boats could not go within a mile or two of the shore. and we were transferred to a most remarkable raft of bamboo, constructed for the occasion, with an elaborately decorated pavilion top. While the men were listening to sugar hearings, we went for a drive, escorted by the Governor's wife, whose victoria boasted two pink satincovered pillows. At the Governor's home were assembled a number of the ladies of the town, one or two of whom spoke a little English, and we were ushered into a salon where most of them were seated in two long rows of chairs that were placed facing each other down the center of the room, and here we were entertained by a small girl of ten at the piano, and then by a young woman who recited a Spanish speech of welcome in which we were called "the fair flowers of America." I felt then, as at other times, that in spite of our Anglo-Saxon smile over the flowery Spanish metaphor we ought to appreciate the spirit back of it.

On our drive to the large pavilion



ROM A STEREOGRAPH, COPYRIGHT, 1908, BY UNDERWOOD & UNDERWOOD

A FILIPINO HOME AND RICE-FIELD ON THE ISLAND OF CEBU

built for the banquet near the quaint old Spanish church our driver and the ponies had the usual differences of opinion, in which, as usual, the ponies came off victorious, so that, in spite of a few mild remonstrances from the Governor's wife and many hopeless efforts on the part of our native jehu, we drove several times round the plaza before the ponies con- FROM A PHOTOGRAPH BY BURR M'INTORH sented to stop at the pavilion in the cen-



A DATTO

Here the many expected speeches had to be cut out because of the lateness of the hour, and, as every Filipino is an orator, many a disappointed Demosthenes or Cicero must have gone home with bitterness in his heart against the men of the West who had spent so many hours in the morning gathering facts that they had no time left for eloquence. However, it is deeds, not words, that count, and to talk of independence to a people in no way fitted for such freedom can only do harm; but to lower or abolish the tariff on their products will be of practical benefit to them and prove an honest desire to aid in their progress and prosperity.

Onward to the south we sailed from Iloilo, leaving the complex problems of the Filipinos for the more pictures que and less perplexing questions of the Moro country. Here is more virgin soilrocky perhaps, but not so sown with weeds and tares, and simpler in the cultivation. Around us, as we lay off the pretty harbor of Zamboango, swarmed the small native canoes with their broad out-

riggers extending on either side.

The native constabulary, in khaki, barefooted, and on their head that sign of the Moslem, the fez, lined the dock where we landed, and on the pretty parade-ground of the post, bordered by rows of palms, were scores of prominent dattos brilliant in their many-hued costumes, of which red was the predominating color. Many of them, accompanied by their parasol-bearers and betel-nut carriers, were presented by Colonel Mans to Miss Roosevelt, and one old datto, as he gazed at the slight, girlish figure carrying her own parasol, inquired, with some suspicion, "Is that



FROM A PHOTOGRAPH BY BURR M'INTER

NATIVE CONSTABULARY

the one?" Governor Finley, the military Governor of the province, has established a Moro exchange to encourage them in peaceful pursuits, and there we bought mainly bolos, trusting that by so doing we might indirectly assist in this effort to " beat their swords plowshares into and their spears into pruning-hooks." Watching the sale of a bolo, one of the Moros, standing by, volunteered the advice to the purchaser to buy a rough-hilted one, as the handle of smooth silver became slippery as soon as covered with blood -a counsel that thought might easily have come from one of our own red men at home.

Sulu or Jolo, like Zamboanga, has a most picturesque harbor. There we were entertained by Moro sports of a primitive nature. Back of the stand

on which we sat stretched a most beautiful tropical scene, a view of greensward under groves of cocoanut-trees, dotted with bright-colored Moro groups, and the blue sea with its scattered islands glistening beyond in the sunlight.

In the Moro country no question of social equality vexes conditions, and though at the dance at the Army Club the stout little Sultan in a uniform resplendent with gold lace, and many of the dattos in their native dress, were present, yet, save when presenting Miss Roosevelt with a Moro saddle, a bolo, or a baroque pearl, they sat in a little group



FROM A PHOTOGRAPH BY BURR M'INTOSH

A MORO SPEARMAN

near the door gazing with mild interest upon the dancers.

Except for a day's excursion through a rice-growing country from Manila to San Fernando, our only interior view of any of the islands was in Mindanao. where we crossed a narrow neck of land from Malabang on the south to Camp Overton on north. The narrow road wandered up much of the way through a forest jungle, great ropes of vines binding the unfamiliar trees and enormous ferns together like huge twisted serpents. Here and there. swinging in the branches, we caught glimpses of some bold monkey that our advance guard of cavalry had not frightened away. Only once did we pass a cluster of little native grass houses, and hardly a Moro was met on the way, yet we had a largeguard, for the

jungle presses close on the roadway, and could easily shelter any unfriendly datto whose bolo thirsted for prey. The black volcanic soil through which the road was often cut holds promises of great future wealth when the island is developed, and on the rolling plains around Camp Vickars and Camp Keithley it produced a dense growth of grass eight or ten feet high. Leaving the wagons beyond Camp Vickars late in the afternoon, we climbed down a mile or two of steep and muddy trail to the beautiful Lake Lanao. All around it were the mountains fading away under a black storm-cloud in the



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PRIMARY PUPILS IN THE MUNICIPAL SCHOOL AT MANILA

distance, and down to its very borders crept the forest. Clusters of cocoanuttrees with little groups of grass huts were scattered along the eighteen miles of shore by which we sailed before night and the storm shut down upon us. Camp Keithley was reached in a deluge of tropical rain, and we shivered under our mackintoshes with a thermometer not up to seventy that August evening.

We stayed with the officers' families in their little houses of bamboo and grass, and when in the morning the light shone in through the chinks in the outer walls of our room, and we pushed up with long poles the thatching that hung down over the glassless windows, Miss Roosevelt and I felt ourselves in quite a Robinson Crusoe atmosphere. There was hardly time before we left in the morning for a glimpse on our side of the camp of the beautiful lake still under the

haze of early dawn, and, on the other, of the distant sea. Eighteen miles of road led down to Camp Overton, twelve of which no vocabulary can be found to describe—mud to the horses' knees, ruts to the hubs of the wheels, and miles of bamboo corduroy that consisted mainly of holes.

On Cebu the rice crop had been damaged by an early drought, and back of the decorations, parade, banquet, and ball there was some discontent of a political nature and some real suffering from lack of food. Illness had followed in the wake of famine, and two American women had established a small hospital for the sick women and children—a hospital without any nurses except themselves, and with such medical attendance as they could secure. The expenses of this hospital of fifty or more patients, and the feeding of three or



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A CLASS IN THE NORMAL HIGH SCHOOL AT MANILA

four hundred other persons, had cost only about ten dollars a day. Twenty thousand doctors, I was told in Manila, are needed throughout the islands, and it is fortunate that a number of young Filipinos, who are studying in the United States, intend to pursue that profession.

To reach Taclogan we had a most beautiful sail on small coast boats through the picturesque, river-like Straits of San Juanico, often not a third of a mile broad, which separate the islands of Samar and Leyte. Conditions were different here. We were in the hemp-growing provinces, and with prosperity came contentment that manifested itself in the speeches, and the hope was expressed by some that the Philippines might one day be a new star on the flag of the United States.

Albay, whose seaport is Legaspi, and Sorsogon, being likewise in the hemp

country, were prosperous, and so there also we found contentment. As we sailed that early morning up to Legaspi, who that saw it still unveiled by clouds can ever forget that wonderful volcano of Mayon, rising a perfect cone nearly nine thousand feet out of the sea? Could it borrow from Fuji the white cap of snow, it would outrival in loveliness and grandeur that famous volcano of Japan.

Our last three days in Manila the Secretary of War, Miss Roosevelt, and I spent as the guests of Señor Benito Legarda, one of the three Philippine members of the Civil Government Commission. The house was as large and generous in its proportions as the hospitality we received there. The broad stairway led into a great square hall in front of which was an equally spacious salon, and off of the hall and salon

opened the bedrooms. At the end of an extended part of the hall stretched the dining-room, the width of the house, that could easily have held twoscore or more of dinner guests. The house of the Philippine gentleman is apparently the house of his friends, for all day long the great hall was occupied, the men sitting by the open windows disposing of one long cigar after another, while occasionally some one drifted to the grand piano, or a special group disappeared into the Secretary's room to discuss Philippine conditions.

After the return to Manila the Commission devoted a day to a hearing of the malcontents, who desired immediate independence; one among them stating that if this was granted they would do away with all taxation. Upon being questioned by a member of Congress as to how he could support the government, he promptly replied that that was a mere detail he had not yet considered. A sufficient answer, it seemed to me, as to the Filipinos' present fitness for self-government.

On Thursday, August thirty-first, I, for one, reluctantly sailed away from the Philippines. We had seen much, yet all too little, of these intensely interesting islands.

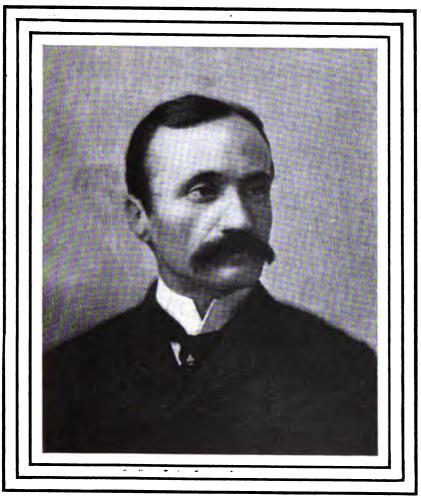
And what of final impressions? I can speak only for myself. The problem is a great one, but therefore the more interesting, the more worthy of a great people, and, if it is eventually solved, Manila will prove to the United States as valuable as Hongkong is to England, and the rich soil of the Philippines will

bring back to us in manifold returns the bread now cast upon its waters. He who goes out to the islands in official capacity must study conditions not only from the American's but also from the Filipino's point of view, if he would understand and deal justly with this people. The man whom President Mc-Kinley appointed the first Civil Governor of the islands set the highest example of what a colonial official should be—strong but sympathetic, progressive yet patient; and to-day no one has so great an influence with the people there, because of their trust and confidence in him.

The small social courtesies mean much more to a race educated under Spanish tutelage than to the Anglo Saxon, and in such matters our American women can play an all-important part if they will. The Philippine women are sensitive, but quickly and warmly responsive to a true courtesy that is without condescension.

There rests an equally grave duty to the Philippines upon certain of our officials and legislators here at home—a duty of the strong towards the weak. To give them independence now would be as great a crime as to turn a child out into a winter night. Rather out of our plenty let us grant them a little by such wise legislation as will aid their productions and increase their prosperity.

For my part, I do not think the question is whether or not the problem can be solved, but whether or not we are capable of rising to the high plane of patience, sympathy, and unselfishness that such a solution requires.



ARRIGO BOITO

ARRIGO BOITO, POET AND COMPOSER

BY DR. ENRICO FONDI

HAVE just met Boito again. As always, his giant figure was a bit curved. He was clad in a black suit. His face was clean-shaven, save for his gray-sprinkled mustache, becoming more and more like his whiter hair. His blue eyes were as expressive as ever, and under his stiff hat his head gently moved with the movement of his body.

Boito is doubtless the greatest living Italian musician. He is so, first, because he is the most erudite as well as the most inspired of present-day Italian composers, and, second, because he is also a poet, pure and simple. Like some of the ancients, he unites in himself two departments of art. But, it may be added, Boito represents another double asset,

that of race. He is the son of an Italian, the Cavaliere Silvestro Boito, and of a Pole, the Countess Giuseppina Rodolinska. Born in 1842, in Padua, Arrigo Boito has always given some evidence of this double racial nature, Latin and Slav. He knows how to be as ardent as a vagabond of the steppes and as calm as a pagan philosopher. From this union emanates the double essence of his art. With his Slav blood he can keenly appreciate northern poetry, with its peculiar romantic characteristics, the cavalcades of specters, the languishing virgins, the dæmonic angels (images which, after 1815, also invaded Italian literature), together with the crunching of the bones of the dead, the sighs and tears of countless mourners, the grimaces of the demented, and the delirium of the fevered, all marking a grotesque passion in poetic imagination. This kind of romanticism, this distortion of vision, this dolorous antithesis of life, did not have its Italian poet, par excellence, until after 1860, and then he appeared in the person of Arrigo Boito. With this late comer all these romantic ingredients were by no means mere incumbrances and rubbish, as they had been with many other European poets; with him they became a living force because they found a sympathetic and truly appreciative interpreter. In him the romantic form, however, is quite the contrary from that which had distinguished the so-called Italian romanticists; his is far more completely worked out and concentrated, as it is also fuller of imagery and sensation. He has been Italy's one latter-day romantic poet, even if he did appear a long time after our so-called romanticists, those who bore in reality, however, only the mask of romanticism.

His poetic genius had a precocious development. Among his lyrics the masterpiece is the fable of King Bear, in which the narration borrows much theatrical make-up from old-time romanticism (dwarfs, headsmen, enslaved Hebrew maidens, cruel princesses, troubadours, devils masquerading as monks, serpents, hyenas, wolves, lapwings, the mixture of wedding scenes with serenades by enamored poets, with apparition flights, with banquets, with burials—and all this in

very varied form which hides harmonious verse, a verse which now dances, now trembles, now lulls us, now even terrifies us. King Bear represents Evil, not that of manhood, but that of mere angry Nature, the Evil represented by ferocious wild beasts, by atmospheric storms, by oceans in tempests, by volcanoes in eruption. Opposed to Evil stands the Worm, death. We thus are in the presence of poetic symbols such as popular fantasy creates, or, in accord with it, the fantasy of a sympathetic artist. Boito's lyrics arouse in us a real sense of musical emotion. The tragico-humoristic "vision of King Bear " was followed by the very original "Dualism," "The Mummy," "The Merry Mothers"—composed with his friend the poet Emilio Praga-and the libretto of "Hamlet," written for another friend, Franco Faccio, the composer.

From that time to the present Boito's literary work, known by his name or by that of the clever anagram, Tobia Gorrio, or given forth anonymously, was chiefly that of the libretto-the necessary transformation for the Italian lyrical stage of the texts of "Rienzi," "Tristan and Isolde," a version of Wagner's songs, "Hero and Leander" (put into music first by himself, and then, destroying his notes, given to his friend Bottesini and then to Mancinelli) (1879), "La Gioconda " for Ponchielli (1884), " Othello " (1885) and "Falstaff" (1893) for Verdi, not to mention a "Pierluigi Farnese" for Palumbo, a "Zoroaster," "Iran," and "Eclogues" for Coronaro, and "The Sickle " for Catalani.

Before the composition of "Mephistopheles "--" Mefistofele " in Italian-the union of Boito's poetic and musical activity is represented by "The Fourth of June" (1860) and "The Sisters of Italy" (1861); but they represent also a collaboration with Faccio, Boito's companion at the Milan Conservatory. These achievements were presented at the closing exercises of the scholastic term at the Conservatory; they gained for each student the sum of two thousand francs, with which the young Italians were able to make a foreign tour. They visited Germany and France. At Paris they presented a letter of introduction to Verdi, which had been given to them by the Countess Clara Maffei. From this dated the memorable friendship of Boito with the great master—a friendship so fecund for the art of music as interpreted by Verdi that Boito produced the words for the elder composer's "Hymn to the Nation," "Simone Boccanegra," "Othello," and "Falstaff." These libretti make us regret that our poet Boito had not been born two decades earlier in order that he might have united his worth-while co-operation with Verdi's For Boito's libretti are true works of art. Wherever delicacy of thought is allied to sincerity of sentiment, wherever the supreme law of rhythm dominates all, wrapping ideas and actions in a sweetly sonorous wave, Boito's libretti are to be mentioned. Moreover, I would say that, as we have noted with Boito's lyrics, they arouse in us a sense of true musical emotion. The composer has been an efficacious reformer of the libretto; he has brought new life to it.

Up to the present the only work of poetry and music which exhibits to us Boito's entire soul is "Mefistofele," created when Boito was but twenty-six years old, and now one of the corner-stones of the Italian stage. Having returned from the Garibaldi expedition of 1866, Boito devoted himself to the completion of this work, words and music. It is certain that the words cost him the greater labor, and also cost him a characteristic and more tormenting hesitation than did the music. Gounod had contented himself with taking a simple, amorous episode from Goethe's "Faust." But Boito, following a more comprehensive plan, condensed the poem, admirably coloring it, into six pictures, and with such a clearness that with a glance we are all able to understand them. This is the first reason for the superiority of "Mefistofele," which was first produced at the Scala, at Milan, on the 5th of March. Alas that one must chronicle its 1868. memorable failure! It is true that the Prologue and the Scene in Greece were applauded, but these were alone exempt from the tempest of howl. the third representation of "Mefistofele" the noise was so deafening that Faust could not even hear the orchestra, and hence was unable to sing in tune. The

orchestra was directed by Boito himself —tall, thin, pale, fair, imperturbable, and serene as a statue which would await from the future its consecration of glory. At the close some friends, with the principal men of the orchestra, pressed about him, congratulating and embracing him. The bitterest polemical discussion arose, however, in which all Milan took part. It lasted several days, and even caused duels. No work of art ever aroused such a warlike spirit, I believe. newspapers called Boito's music "not music at all, but pedantry," and called Boito himself "a blockhead." Let it be added, however, parenthetically, that Beethoven's famous "Kreutzer Sonata" was dubbed by a Leipsic paper "all that is most grotesque."

Beyond anything, the public could not pardon Boito the frankness with which he had shown himself to be an innovator. At that time it would not admit as worth while anything new since Rossini, Donizetti, Bellini, with the exception of Verdi; and if this was true in general, in particular was it true that the public deemed it unpatriotic to accept any reforming influence which an Italian, with such antecedents as Boito's, might draw from foreigners. With these sentiments, on the first night of "Mefistofele," many went to the theater armed with huge keys with which to make the utmost hissing and noise. A crowd of men in the adjoining Caffé Martini awaited the result, and rejoiced, as for a piece of national good fortune, when they knew that the opera had been hissed.

Times and tastes soon changed. On October 4, 1875, "Mefistofele" came back to the stage and appeared at the Teatro Comunale of Bologna—that noble city which, first of all in Italy, opened wide her gates to "Lohengrin" and the art of Wagner. Thenceforth "Mefistofele" never left the Italian stage. thusiasm which it awakened spread to the Milanese, who in 1881 changed their first judgment. But his failure in Milan in 1868 had taught Boito to have some regard to certain exigencies of the theater; he had recast the orchestration of "Mefistofele:" he had eliminated an entire act and also a symphonic intermezzo; but he had

added certain other features, among them the exquisite serenade of "Sabba classica." As has justly been said. " Mefistofele " cannot be called an opera in the sense that its predecessors were operas, because it is constructed on new ideas, gigantically ample in form and outline; because it represents a thoroughly modern treatment, whether we consider rhythm, harmony, melody, or instrumentation. "Mefistofele comes to us as a grandiose conception, the revelation of a vast prospect, created by a new and audacious apostle of the divine art of sound, who sees the world in his own way, and thinks, musically, as few have thought before him.

For over thirty years Boito has been working on another opera, "Nero," or, in the Italian, "Nerone." Taking into consideration the permanent success of "Mefistofele," no one doubts that "Nerone" will be the consummate work of art of Boito's later years, crystallizing

his maturer experiences.

To the many accusations from the public that Boito has not produced enough, he is accustomed to reply, "You accuse me of indolence and of little love for work. Very well. Let me tell you that 'Nerone' has fully occupied many years of assiduous labor. Why, I have not had time even to write a symphony."

It is true that Boito might seem averse to work were we only to see him of an evening when, with his friends at the Caffé Savini, he is amusing himself with his pet diversion of solving the various puzzle problems printed in the papers. This passion comes, I think, from Boito's fancy for the strange, the hidden, the esoteric. One notes it in his verses, which are often bizarre in rhythm, have queer conceptions, eccentric meters, and words of double significance. Boito's thought, whether expressed by sound or by the printed word, was born in him complex and profound. Before he gives it birth, it passes through a minute work of revision. This probably accounts for the delay in the production of "Nerone," continually remade and re-fused. Such is Boito's fastidious criticism when applied to himself that I should not be surprised to learn of his displeasure at having published "Mefistofele" at all, so great would be his delight in retouching it, and perhaps remaking it from beginning to end.

Another impression of sloth is given by Boito, unconsciously, because he is apt to receive one in dressing-gown and slippers. Moreover, he never lets you suspect what he has done and what he is doing. He is entirely unostentatious. He has many decorations, Italian and foreign, but he always hides them.

In 1893, together with the composer Saint-Saëns, he was made Doctor of Music by the University of Cambridge.

Boito has long lived in Milan, in the Via Principe Amedeo, No. 1. reception-room is furnished in gray, but his workroom is specially inundated with sunlight. Like Goethe, Boito adores the There is little furniture—a piano. of course, on which the works of his "divine John Sebastian Bach" are apt to rest; a high writing-desk, where the composer must stand to write; then another writing-desk, which is also a safe for the treasure produced by his brain. On the bookshelves may be seen Boito's favorites in prominent array—the Bible, Dante, Petrarch, Tacitus, Horace, Rabelais. Among the portraits bearing dedicatory inscriptions which hang on the wall one notes those of Rossini, Verdi, and Wagner. Finally, four large figures in statuary look down upon the Italian composer—those of Dante, Raphael, Bach, and Beethoven. In their varied spirits, meditative and interpretative, these giants of art seem to watch over the genius of our latter-day giant; they are there to greet the coming of that masterpieee of Boito for which the beginning of the twentieth century is waiting.

TARRY AT HOME TRAVELS

BY EDWARD EVERETT HALE

"My mind impels me to write on places where I have been and on some of the people whom I have seen in them"

SEVENTH PAPER

New York

THIS series of papers began in the counsels of Mr. and Mrs. Gentle Reader. As it happens, they end in the same counsels.

They go to bed at 9:30. It was now five minutes before nine. He had just been reading to her Mr. Hale's paper about Connecticut in The Outlook. She said, "The trouble about Mr. Hale is that he always supposes that other people can do what he does. He has been at the top of Katahdin and at the top of Mount Washington and at the top of Mansfield and at the top of Wachusett. He has been on Ingham Peak in Rhode Island and on West Rock in Connecticut, and so he writes as if I had been there or as if we could go there as easily as we can go to bed."

"Well," said Mr. Reader in reply, "I do not see why he should not say so. You and I are younger than he is, and we have this very summer before us. What do you want to do most?"

She said that she should forget everything that she had been told about New England, and that she wanted something like what her old schoolmistress called a "review." She would like to take that review, and at the same time she would like to see something in her tarry at home travels which had not been described or represented in The Outlook.

"Very good," said he. "Mr. Hale begins by saying that New England is a peninsula with an isthmus not two miles wide at its western end. How should you like to go round by Bar Harbor and the end of Nova Scotia, see the Bells at Baddeck, and then go down to the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and make a call at one of Grenfell's hospitals at Newfoundland, take the steamer up to Montreal, and then go by rail to St. John's above the Lake; there meet Ransom with our house-boat, and so go by the house-boat near Burgoyne's line to Saratoga? You shall arrive at Saratoga on the day of the anniversary of the battle of Benning-I, meanwhile, will have my canoe painted. The day you start I will start, and I will go down the Connecticut and then paddle along the Sound from Saybrook to New York and put the canoe on the deck of the steamer which shall take me to Albany. Then I will paddle up to Cohoes and make a carry at the falls there, and so, on the eleventh of August, I will get on the house-boat and I will find you all there. And at the spot where General Gates received General Burgoyne's sword, I will fold you in my arms and kiss you, and after that you will remember that New England is a peninsula and that you and I have stood on the neck which separates it from the mainland."

These words were spoken in their bungalow near Windsor on the Connecticut River.

To all she agreed. Now you must know that they were at the omnipotent



THE BATTLE OF SARATOGA
From an old print

This age is any age between fourteen and ninety-five, if only you be pure of mind, peaceable, and easy to be entreated. For then you can use omnipotent power if you want to. In this particular case these young people had been married twelve years. He did not drink, nor smoke, nor play at poker or other games of chance. He had no yacht, and he disliked the stock market. loved him and her children. Her French and German were better than his. They lived in the open air every moment when they could escape "those prisons which we call homes." So they were always a little beforehand. He was always surprised that his bank balance was a few hundred dollars better than he thought it would be. She was constantly finding that her dividends from the Green Consolidated were larger than she expected they would be. On this occasion they parted from each other for nearly three weeks' time—the longest parting they had ever known. He told Ransom to have the house-boat well scoured out, painted where the paint was worn, he gave him the money to buy two mules with, told him he was to have the houseboat at Whitehall on the sixth of August.

She told old Ruah, who had had charge of the children ever since Nathan was born, that she was to put the children on the house-boat at Albany, and that Ransom would take them all to St. John's. Then she wrote Gertrude Ingham, the same who had been her literature teacher at Vassar College, and asked her to make the voyage to Nova Scotia, Baddeck, Newfoundland, and the St. Lawrence with her. Gertrude said she would come up and join her.

Meanwhile, Mr. Reader had done as he He had given orders to John Tintoretto, the Italian who presided over such things up the river, to paint the canoe, he had sent down to Cocknell's for three paddles—one long one and two short ones. He had provisioned the canoe for a short voyage down the Connecticut River and through the Sound, and on the fatal Monday which the gods provided, they started on their way. You see, when they had this talk of which you have heard, at nine o'clock in the evening, it was about the time when the days were the longest. Before July was well advanced all these preparations had been made of which you have been told.

¹ Ruah is short for Lo-ruhamah.

So she went to White River Junction, and they rattled across the country to Portland, with their Outlooks in their They refreshed the memory of hands. Maine and New Hampshire as well as you can from an express train. They went to Bar Harbor by the Flying Yankee. They did not miss one connection at the New Brunswick St. John, or at Halifax, or at Baddeck. At Baddeck they saw some of Mr. Bell's wonderful kites at Le Bras d'Or, which is the name of that great shore loch where a bath is so charming. By means known to residents of that region, they went across to the Newfoundland St. John. and then by great good luck they joined Miss Merciful as she was taking round some supplies to a hospital in Anticosti. Fortune favors the brave, and the Strathcona came along, and carried them from that ship to another on the north side of the river, and then there was a Government steamer to go that very afternoon up the St. Lawrence to Quebec, and of course it happened that Dr. Abernethy was on board, to whom Dr. Grenfell had given them a letter.

When you are at Quebec, everything is easy sailing to Montreal. I do not know which of these young women is the better traveler. I know they always light on their feet. They always see whatever



GENERAL JOHN BURGOYNE.



BARON FRIEDRICH ADOLF RIEDESEL

there is to be seen, and it does not surprise me, therefore, that on the appointed day and hour, as old Ransom stood on the front of the house-boat, scolding and advising and keeping an eye on all the children and instructing dear old Ruah on the points where she was doubtful, Gertrude and Abra looked out each from her own window of the cab which took them from the Prince Royal at Whitehall down to the canal. Great was the joy, as you may imagine. children had been more than a fortnight parted from their mother. Ransom had nothing but success to announce. Dear old Ruah, with worthy pride, said she had not had to give anybody any medicine, and that they had been good boys and girls, all of them. Abra and Gertrude went round to see the mules, patted them and praised them. Without so much as turning the boat around, the mules were taken round on the tow-path and attached to the other end of the boat. The cabman was paid, with a shilling extra to buy candy for his babies, and before they were ten minutes older the reunited party were going south on the Champlain Canal, where the children had but just now, under Ransom's auspices, been traveling to the north. So they found the way ready for them, and so the mules, well pleased, led them step by step from "blue Champlain." Old Ransom sometimes, when they were

coming to a lock, let the boy Nathan run along with him on the shore finding wild roses and pond lilies for his mother.

Meanwhile, Mr. Reader had taken his own coat-box in his hand out to the express office, had given his instructions at the post-office, where he found Tintoretto, and walked down to the river, rolled up his duster and tucked it under the front seat of the canoe, had bidden Timothy in the water, keeping her head to the south if the river flowed south, and east when it flowed east, and west when it flowed west. There were places where he could run in under the shade, but not many such places now. There were one or two long reaches where he had to paddle if he meant to keep up a good average day's work. Sometimes at nightfall he padlocked the canoe to a convenient post and walked up into the



DE WITT CLINTON
From an engraving after the bas-relief by W. J. Coffee

good-by, and pulled out into the Connecticut.

"1905," he said to himself; "it was in 1774 that John Ledyard floated down here from Dresden College, as he would have called Dartmouth College. That was the beginning of the Nile and Congo for him."

And for a little relief he stretched himself out in the boat, with one paddle

town. He did this at Springfield and at Hartford. But five times out of six he found some trees, where he could roll himself in a blanket and let the sun and morning birds waken him. At New York the Mary Powell people were glad to take him and the Water Witch on board, and as the passengers came down he met the Birdsells and the Havilands and the Schuylers and a dozen other of the

pleasantest people of the world, and they were early enough to pick out good front chairs on the upper deck, and so a very happy day was provided for.

At Albany he went up to see what there was left of dear Hunt's picture of Anahita: he uncovered his head reverently before the noble statue of Robert Burns; he wondered how that man in the public garden makes his lotuses and nymphæas grow so much better than his own do. He called on Mrs. McElroy, who told him good news, and an hour before nightfall he walked down to the landing to find that the Water Witch was ready for him. And then, under the strokes of his own paddle as he worked his way up the river, he should arrive quite on time to see the only house-boat on the Champlain Canal and to wave his handkerchief and to jump on board.

It is not part of this series of papers to give local direction to travelers, which they can obtain much more to the present point by the local guides and the local guide-books. Enough to say that he gave Abra the kisses which he had promised, that she did not refuse. Enough to say that he made the little boy ride with him from one of the streams which flows into the North River across to one of those which flows into Lake Champlain. Nathan is an intelligent little fellow who has lived in the open air, and was made to understand that this was the isthmus of the peninsula of New England.

They spent a whole day in going over the Burgoyne battle-grounds with a clever local guide, who had provided Baroness Riedesel's journal, and they read again her pathetic letters. He told them the story of the mysterious third Nathan Hale and perhaps mythical Nathan Hale. He made Nathan commit to memory, so that he could declaim it to his mother when they came home, the lines about the "great surrender," how the Brunswick colors

Gayly had circled half the world
Until they drooped, disgraced and furled,
That day the Hampshire line
Stood to its arms at dress parade,
Beneath the Stars and Stripes arrayed,
And Massachusetts Pine,
To see the great atonement made
By Riedesel and Burgoyne.

You see he tried to make the boy understand that the battles at Saratoga are among Colonel Creasy's "Fifteen Decisive Battles of the World." The reader may go back in these papers to see what is said about this in the chapter on Vermont. Nathan, who understands a map, pointed out to him that the battles of Bennington were fought on the New York side of the Vermont line.

Possibly some enthusiastic German-American will write me a line to say just what the Brunswick colors and the Hessian colors were which were "furled" at Saratoga. We want replicas of those colors badly in the Old South Meeting-House in Boston, which is our museum of such things. But somehow no one in Frankfurt seems eager to send them to

(In a parenthesis let me ask if you happen to know how the Rothschild fortune began. It was when one Napoleon was driving the Elector of Hesse out of his palace, and the Elector had some ready money by him. He found a young Jewish banker and placed this money in his hands at a very low rate of interest. It happened that the Jewish banker had no opportunity to return it till the Elector came back in 1814, and on the profits on that silver money the Rothschild fortunes were already well begun. Now, if you please, that silver money which the Elector had in hand was the identical store of shillings and half-crowns which one George III. had paid this gentleman for the troops who were killed at Red Bank, who surrendered at Bennington and again at Saratoga, and who spent the rest of the war as prisoners of war in Virginia. Perhaps the House of Rothschild some day will be grateful enough for this acorn from which grew a great tree, to endow a university for the study of the metaphysics of war, in one of the Old Thirteen States. Saratoga would be a good place for it. There could be a long vacation in July and August, when visitors could reside in the college dormitories.)

No American will go to see the battlegrounds of Saratoga or the place of the capitulation made by Burgoyne without remembering that, a hundred years after, a great American soldier died at Mount McGregor. Yes, and if any one wants to spend more time than our young friends did, here is the McGregor House, and hard by Saratoga Springs, and not far away is Ballston.

I wish we could make room and had a right to print here the diary of Miss Edes, a pretty Boston girl who came to Ballston about a century ago with a great-uncle or somebody who was good to her; and she danced and perhaps joined in the flirtations of the infant watering-place. Recollect that "Ballston Spa" was a fashionable wateringplace before Saratoga was. Ballston Spa, I think, is still the county seat. Not to go into geology or paleontology, for the present is more than we can handle, it will be enough to say that the different wells and springs both at Ballston and Saratoga to-day are what one may properly call bilge-water of the early world. Fortunately for us of this time, the waters of that day settled in some sort of underground lake at the bottom, and so we are able now to drink water like what the megalosaurus or the Carnegiesaurus and other creatures of those early formations drank. People who are oldfashioned enough to read the "Last of

the Mohicans" and the "Pioneers" will find some nice allusions which Cooper made to the early outpour of the springs.

But Mr. and Mrs. Reader and the children had not time to study the geology or paleontology while they were in that region, and a day more saw them in their comfortable home, the house-boat, on their way to Niagara. They were quite careless whether the journey should last fifteen days or five-and-twenty days. In the open air, with God's sky overhead and all the time there is, and the good long days of August, and their own good company, with cardinal-flowers and pondlilies, not to say an occasional sacred bean or water-chinquapin, there was enough to make a good large life of it, even if they did not pick up the morning newspaper.

Nine out of ten of the readers of these lines have no acquaintance with the house-boat but that which they got from Mr. Black's charming story of such a journey as this in England. But there are still left in America some of our old canals of the last century, where one can get away from cinders and smoke and dust, and have the comforts of his home and the joys of open air life very



THE ERIE CANAL AT LOCKPORT
From an old print

closely knit in with each other. One of the very best of such opportunities is that given on the Erie Canal.

I have done my level best in the last few years to place the name of De Witt Clinton among the names of the American heroes in the New York University. I am sorry to say that the New Yorkers themselves hardly seem to be aware that there was such a man; but all the same there was. De Witt Clinton, of the great house of Clinton, one of the two great houses that fought each other in the early politics of the State of New York, was the leader of what was the Democratic party, which in those days was called the Republican party. In 1801 he became Senator of the United States. He left the Senate to be Mayor of the city of New York, was removed and reappointed in 1811, and continued Mayor till 1815. He took up early in life the policy of canal construction between the Hudson and Lake Erie and Lake Champlain. In 1817 a bill was passed authorizing the work at the expense of the State. In the same year he was chosen Governor, and in 1825 he had the "felicity of being borne from Buffalo to Albany in a barge, on the

great work with which his name is identified."

With the construction of the Erie Canal the development of the States then called the Northwestern States, which are now the great Middle States of the country, became possible. The success of that canal was an incentive in every American State to what used to be called "internal improvement." For these reasons I should have been glad if the honor, for it is an honor, of a place among the heroes of America in the Hall of Fame could have been awarded to De Witt Clinton.

The valley of the Mohawk gives a line so convenient that the suggestion of a canal was made very early. There is a story, undoubtedly authentic, of Washington, who knew from his boyhood the lake country to the west, predicting a canal soon after the establishment of the Constitution. Between the Hudson River and the Lakes the highest summit which is surmounted by the lockage of the canal is 688 feet above the sea. The height of Lake Erie above the Hudson is 568 feet. There is the whole flow of the water eastward from the lakes, calculated, I think, on a plan of a



THE ERIE CANAL AT THE LITTLE FALLS, MOHAWK RIVER From an old print

moderate descent of half an inch in a mile. I believe the engineers to this hour think that the original construction reflected great honor on those self-taught engineers who were engaged in that work. They managed to build it for seven million dollars—an investment repaid to the State again and again and yet again by the wealth, not to be calculated, which has made the city of New York what it is and the State of New York what it is.

Of course the cargoes which move from the West to the East on the canalboats are much more bulky than those which pass from the East to the West. A dollar's worth of grain takes much more room and weighs more than a dollar's worth of jackknives. Of course, also, it takes longer for a barge-load of grain to float from Buffalo to Albany under the propulsion of some meditative mules than a car-load on a railway which travels by night as well as by day, with one of the giants of modern times leading the train. All the same, the transfer of the food of the West to the breakfasttables of the East by the canal is very cheap, and the canal holds its own in face of railway competition. So you and I, dear Reader, if we live on a seaport, ought to be thankful for it that it settles for us a good many of the questions as to the cost of freight.

This is certain, that whoever prays for his daily bread in the morning owes a good deal to De Witt Clinton and his followers, as the years go by. In December, 1815, a barrel of flour of the best brand cost anybody in Boston nine dollars. The best flour he can buy now costs five dollars and twenty-five cents. We owe the difference to the Erie Canal. One goes nowadays from Albany to Buffalo at the rate of fifty or sixty miles an hour. When the passenger service was well organized on the Erie Canal, the passenger boats went by day and night, and achieved eighty-five miles in twenty-four hours, on an average. But the traveler of to-day does not begin with Cohoes Falls. He does not see where Sam Patch made his celebrated leap, he certainly does not gather the sacred bean of India, nor does his little boy run along on the tow-path, and, if he capture a frog small enough, jump on board the boat with it and make mamma put it in her thimble. Such are the joys of such travelers as Mr. and Mrs. Gentle Reader. They do not, however, make eighty-five miles in the twentyfour hours, nor do they pretend to.

Dear Innocents, they had all the time there is. This is the phrase which Red Jacket used and which Mr. Emerson used to quote with so much humor. If anybody wants to know who Red Jacket was, he was an Iroquois Chief on the line of this same canal. And if anybody wants to know when he was, let him go ask my dear sister Julia Ward Howe, who told me that when she was six years old her mother introduced her to Red Jacket in his home. No, no, no, Abra and her husband were in no hurry, the children were in no hurry, nor were the mules in any hurry. From time to time old Ransom affected to be in a hurry, but really he was not in a hurry. I am painfully aware that this reader will not follow their example, but let us hope that he is not in such a hurry that he must cross the State in five hours, must "do" Niagara in five more, and must return to his brownstone house in New York by a night train.

Schenectady? Yes, of course they stopped in Schenectady. They had many pleasant people to see in Schenectady, they had to hear the traditions of Dr. Nott. It was vacation time, so that they could not see all the pleasant people, but they could refresh themselves on the historical centers. They shed the right number of tears over the grave of Miss McCrea; they saw the Glen House or the Saunders House. Reader called it the Glen House and Abra called it the Saunders House. Here are their notes on Schenectady:

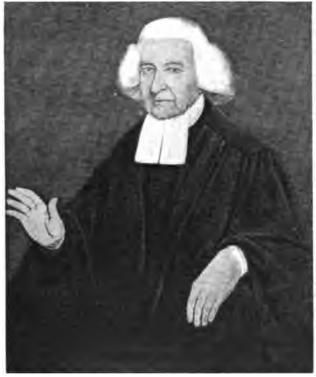
"Have you not read up about the Schenectady massacre? It is high time you did. At all events, you will like to go down to the Saunders house, which stands as a sort of memorial to that massacre, although it was built afterwards. This is the family of the Glen. Perhaps you do not know that Saunders and Glen are the same word. This family of the Glen, I say, were always good to the Indians. They always

had something to eat for the Indian tramp, and they never fooled him by giving him water too hot to wash his hands with. They were nice to him. What happened, then, when the massacre took place was that the Glen family or the Saunders family—have it as you like, though nobody called them Saunders then—were spared, and their house, too, was not destroyed."

"Now, if any student of the higher

"It was exactly as Lafayette had six names he could call upon, and if he did not want to be Lafayette he could be Motier. But you can find the Saunders House if you ask for the Saunders House. If you want memorials of the Glen, you can go over to Glen Falls."

As you go west as they went, or on either of the railways, you can see the pretty "chutes" where the Indians said the sun rolled down as he was approach-

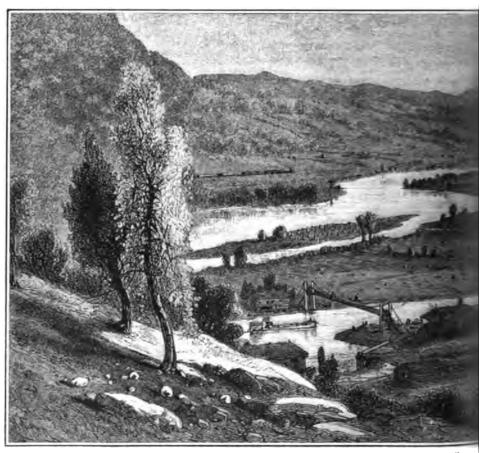


EZRA STILES

criticism wants to know why Saunders are sometimes Glen and Glens are sometimes Saunders, 'let him read,' as Mr. Browning says. Some of these people went down in Louisiana, and one of them, being named Alexander Saunders, used to be called Sandy and Sanderson there, and was then called Saunders of the Glen. When his children and his children's children grew up and came back to Schenectady, some of them thought they were Saunders and some of them thought they were Glens, and they chose their names accordingly."

ing his setting. For the benefit of the New York Observer, I will say that in literal fact the sun does not roll down this mountain side; but there are periods of the year—trust me who have seen it—when the sun hugs the mountain range curiously close, and to the savages, who had not studied with Flamsteed, Langley, or Pickering, it did appear to roll down on that toboggan slide.

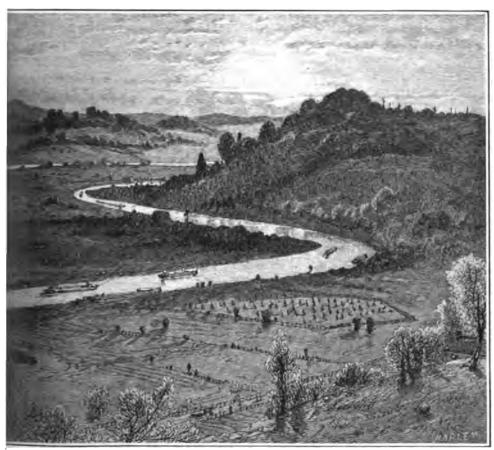
But it would never do to try to tell what they saw, nor will The Outlook care to publish their journal from one end to the other. One thing Mr. Gentle



THE MOHAWK From an old

Reader learned which he had not learned before, though I had often told it to him—he learned how this country is governed by its small cities and its large towns. He learned that in such places as Schenectady and Utica and Syracuse and Batavia and Rochester and Le Roy and Buffalo and a hundred others the public opinion of the town is sound and strong, and that dawned upon him which I had not been able to impress upon him in talking that a great city like New York or Philadelphia or Chicago or Boston has no such control over the real policy of the country as have, in the aggregate, such towns as Akron and Goshen and New Padua and Runnymede, which make the public opinion of Us the People. A man learns this lesson very well as he goes from one end of the State of New York to the

other. I remember I was speaking years ago in the city of New York at a great Alpha Delta Phi convention. I called attention to the fact that a member of the lower house in Albany represents about as many people as a member of the English Parliament represents. Somebody in the audience laughed. I said: "I am sorry that any person The three persons whom I recollect as members of the Legislature of New York would certainly have done honor to any parliamentary assembly in any nation in any period of history since parliamentary institutions took on their present form." The three people whom I had in mind when I spoke were Andrew Dixon White, of Syracuse, Carlton Sprague, of Buffalo, and Theodore Roosevelt, of New York City. I think that twenty years have justified what I



VALLEY cograving

said of those three men. And I am apt to remember this speech of mine and these men when I read in a New York or Boston newspaper about hayseed legislation, with the implication that nobody knows anything unless he lives in the particular town in which the newspaper is printed.

When you go by canal or by the railway, you have a chance to see the oldest work of God which you will ever see on this planet, which I have referred to already in our first number. According to Agassiz and the other men who know, when this world passed into the Paleozoic out of the Eozoic condition—that is, when it passed from the dawn of life to the antiquity of life—certain red-hot rocks showed above the water, with much steam, I fancy, and much hissing. They were the range of ancient rock which divides

the waters of the St. Lawrence from the waters of New England and New York. The railway as it runs west from Schenectady takes its course through this red rock, and Mr. and Mrs. Gentle Reader and the children saw it as the mules traveled along on the pathway of the canal. At Little Falls the boys rushed out to sell them diamonds. These are not of the brand of Golconda or Johannesburg, but they are cheaper, and the children were well pleased to begin their mineralogical cabinet with them.

No! I will not pretend to tell of the various adventures of those happy ten days. I will not tell of messages up to cheerful-looking houses and the return of milk and cream and eggs for the support of man and woman. Then at such places as Ilion or Utica or Rome or Rochester or Batavia, there would be a

walk or a drive through the neighborhood, with every adventure ranging from the simplicity of a canal ride up to the highest civilization. With the nice cordial inmates of other boats Reader and his wife and the children made cordial acquaintances, some of which will ripen into the friendships of half a century. For you must please to understand, dear reader, that the sailor, whom I must not call a seaman, who commands a vessel of three or four hundred tons which makes regular passages backward and forward from New York to Buffalo and perhaps further west, lives on his craft with his family. The boat is their home. Nahum learns from his mother there that B a t spells bat, and Tryphena learns there how to broil a steak and how to bake a potato. If there were a long line of locks together, with so much of business as to keep the travelers half a day, our boys played marbles with other boys of the fleet, or perhaps the girls from the rest of the fleet came aboard the house-boat and played checkers or backgammon.

Are you, alas! as fortunate as they in your vehicle? I am afraid you are riding at sixty miles an hour as you turn this leaf rather impatiently. But all the same there are one or two points which you should notice. Keep on the watch after you pass Schenectady if you are on the northern of the two parallel roads. Even to a flying traveler those black and red rocks seem more hard and cruel than most rocks do, and well they may.

They were what Mr. Sprague saw,

"When the young sun revealed the glorious scene

Where oceans gather And where fields grow green."

Certainly I do not know, and I do not think that anybody else knows, how long was it after the sudden uprising of these silent rocks before the ice-waves from the north, bringing down icy floes and glaciers even, came southward in their flow, lodged for a trifle of a few hundred thousand centuries (be the same more or less) on the north side of the Laurentian Range, and then surmounted it and all other such trifles, and passed southward till they melted away before summer suns? You and I need not bother ourselves

about the length of time. What men know is that these waters which filled the Lake Ontario of that time, the ancestors of the waves which now go down the St. Lawrence so peacefully, were barred by the piles of icebergs in their way, and that they swept across to find the sea by way of the Hudson River. Men know their track by the boulders, and gravelsheets, and bits of sand which they have left behind them. When it was last proposed to enlarge the great Erie Canal, there were people who thought that this old tideway of the very dawn of things might be cleared from its rubbish and made to do our great business of daily bread. If you want to follow out this little bit of prehistoric annals, cross from Utica or Syracuse to Lake Ontario and find some of those intelligent gentlemen there who will give a happy month to you to show the course by which that unnamed river found its way to Manhattan and the sea.

Or, if you have not the month to give to this, go down the bay between Staten Island and Long Island with some intelligent pilot, and he will tell you where is the deep gorge which those old icebergs chiseled out as they worked their way to the Atlantic.

Do not pretend to make your first or your fiftieth visit to Niagara without possessing and studying the directions to travelers prepared in 1903 by the Commission for the Preservation of Niagara. In this very interesting report you will learn much that the average sightseer misses; you will learn things which nobody knew thirty years ago. One or more days may be spent to great advantage in going down the Niagara by trolley. crossing it at its mouth at Kingston, and returning on the other side. Stop over at the station, where a very clever fellow (Yankee clever) will take you down into the gorge where Tom Moore thought how nice it would be

"By the side of you sumach whose red berry dips

In the foam of this streamlet, how sweet to recline,

And to know that I sighed upon innocent lips Which had never been sighed on by any but mine."

This is as good place as any to say that in any collected edition of Moore's

poems the Gentle Reader will find a curious series of "Poems Relating to America." When Moore left Bermuda, "on account of a disorder in the chest," he landed at New York, and by what he called the "Cohos" came to Niagara, and so went down Lake Ontario and the St. Lawrence to Montreal, and Halifax, when he sailed in the frigate Boston for New York. The poem from which I quoted four lines above is a very curious monument of the America of that time. I suppose the Boston, which was an English frigate and not an American frigate, was the same Boston which the poor State of Massachusetts lost to the English in the Penobscot in 1778.

It is quite worth while for any one who has a spark of historical interest to take with him on his house-boat, as he goes from Albany to Buffalo, the journal kept by the girl Fanny Kemble, as she went to the "Falls" for the first time, The journal ends as she sees Niagara for the first time, "O God! who can describe that sight!!!"

There the reader can see how before the days of syndicates men traveled by There was a superstition first that you had to have an inclined plane by which to ascend to a town and another by which you went out of it, as you went out of Albany by an inclined plane. There was another superstition that when you arrived at a town you must leave the train and ride across in a different carriage (technically called a hack) to another railroad. You went from Albany to Schenectady on one, from Schenectady to Utica on another, from Utica to Syracuse on another, from Syracuse to Rochester on another, and from Rochester to Buffalo on another. One must not say it even in a whisper, but it required syndicates to unite these four or five roads into one.

If you will carefully read the Commissioner's direction for visiting Niagara, you will learn about the discussions which have gone on since Lyell's time, and even before, as to the place of the cataract in different ages, as to the different courses by which the waters from the upper lakes pass down through Ontario to the sea. It really seems probable that there was a time when the

upper part of Lake Huron discharged itself by a much shorter channel.

Ah me! I have only brought our adventurous family to the western line of the State, and all southern New York is as yet in the inkstand.

The Outlook is so generous that it permits me to give my little boom to the Erie Canal, which sometimes seems to need a little cordial friendship in its various trials. But we cannot take the happy family back by the same route, for fear that they should be frozen up on the long level east of Rochester. The reader may take any route he chooses. There is the Erie, for instance, which will take him through the classical names. may have his choice from Homer to Ovid or Martial or Painted Post, and he can hardly make a mistake wherever he goes.

Recollect, in general, O Gentle Reader, that New York is the Empire State because it holds this central place between the oldest mountains in the world and the latest Paris fashions as exhibited in New York stores. When you are by Chautauqua Lake, it is a toss of a sixpence whether your cigar end, when you throw it into a brook as you drive, shall go down the Mississippi and enlarge Florida. or the St. Lawrence and feed the dun fish of your next winter's Sunday morning breakfast. Let me say in passing that if you have not spent a week at the annual Chautauqua you do not know your own country. There and in no other place known to me do you meet Baddeck and Newfoundland and Florida and Tiajuana at the same table: and there you are of one heart and one soul with the forty thousand people who will drift in and out there—people all of them who believe in God and in their country.

Further east, whether you are on foot, as I hope you are, or are traveling in Mrs. Diederich Stuyvesant's automobile, as I hope you are not, you will be tempted by each of the Five Finger Lakes, as the geologists call them.

Here lived in happier days the "Five Nations," who became six nations. Here Jemima Wilkinson settled among them, and introduced peaceful arts. O that The Outlook would give me two numbers to tell who Jemima Wilkinson was, who is known to no one of the three million readers of this page.

If by accident any one wants to know how the Five Nations grew up to be one of the gardens of the world, let him read the new life of Jan Huidekoper. He will see here how a young Dutch man, landing when he was twenty years old with twenty dollars in his pocket, lived for six or seven decades and died in his own palace in Crawford County in Pennsylvania, caring in the meanwhile for the Holland Purchase and for other like regions. The biography of one man serves you for a study of a nation.

Rochester? Pray let us stay in Rochester for a day or two, if only to see the beauty of the fruit in August or September or October. Do you know that the Rochester Bank, which was the Flour Bank when Rochester flour was the best flour in the world, is now the Flower Bank, because the Rochester nurseries and gardens challenge the comparison of the world?

Syracuse? We must stop over here if it were only to see Mr. Calthrop and to go out to the model village where they make ready for market the alkalies which are far older than our Laurentian hills.

Utica? We shall have bad luck if we do not strike a convention there. And we must spend three or four years at Ithaca with Mr. White and President Schurman, and talk Browning with Professor Corson. We used to say of Ithaca that there were only young professors there, that they had their reputations to make and were making them. Now that they have made them, it is worth while to recollect that prophecy.

Among all these great names, which appear in every newspaper, I should like to remind the reader, who is very gentle, of what he never heard of, and that is Schoharie Cave. Back from the Catskills, back from Schenectady, back from Sharon, back from everywhere. It is one of those curious limestone caves in which the electric light now shows such wonders. And without going to the Mammoth Cave you may see the underground wonders of the world.

Sharon and Richfield and Saratoga

and Ballston and forty other wateringplaces all offer you their temptations.

The people of New York City themselves do not know the wonders of their system of parks. I am sure I did not know them till a traveler from London, from the Park Commission there, told me how much time it had taken him to examine them, and gave me a hint of how much was before me when I had a month or two for the examination.

Fossils? Yes, fossils if you want them. Lions? Yes, lions if you want them. Here is the very lion which the little Carnegie girl saw in his cage somewhere on the Rhine and asked her father to send to New York. A great English botanist once told me that I could study palm-trees better in the great palm gardens at Kew than if I were in Java or Malacca. I am quite sure that I know more of the habits of the hippopotamus from my observations in the Central Park than do all my bragging traveled friends who have been up the Nile and down half a dozen times.

The Outlook reader will be on the outlook as he tarries at home in his travels for something, be the same more or less, which will show him how man is to be lifted to the higher plane and come nearer to the good God. He will do well, then, if he take the Outlook office as a central point, and if, by the arts of a genial nature and the simple life, he communicate with the officers of the Associated Charities in the same building, he may learn from them more and more of the marvelous charity systems of the city and State. Do not let Argus-eyed Press deceive you here. Argus-eyed Press has a knack of seeing the worst and making the most of it. If John Flaherty knock out his wife's brains with a flatiron, John Flaherty will be the hero of the next nine days. Meanwhile, hour by hour or day by day, week after week, assiduous, tender, Christian charity is working its way up hill and down dale in the great city and in the great State. At the office of the Associated Charities they will show the Gentle Reader how and where to learn what he wants to know of the care which men and women can give to men or women who are in trouble.

And in the organization of public education by steady steps, still advancing, the Empire State of New York has learned what it has to teach to the rest of the civilized States. Here at my side I have the last reports of the University of the State of New York-the One Hundred and Seventeenth Annual Report and the One Hundred and Eighteenth Annual Report. What is called the University of the City of New York is wholly different from that of the State of New York. In the year 1784 the corporation of the Regents of the University of the State of New York was formed by the infant Legislature. It is now a State department and at the same time a federation of more than nineteen hundred institutions of "secondary" and higher education. Its field includes high schools, union free schools, academies, colleges, universities, professional and technical schools, and also the work of education connected with the libraries. study clubs, and extension courses.

To speak of one detail of the supervision which this Board exercises over the higher studies, or home education department, the library department has been a model to the Nation. It is difficult to make people understand that by the lending library system of the State of New York there are now in that State five hundred and twenty-one libraries. with two million three hundred thousand books, circulating annually on an average four hundred issues to each hundred families. The State established a library school which has attained a National reputation. The State Library ranks as second in the country in its equipment.

And so, Gentle Reader, we must part. We have traveled through seven States, and yet we have tarried at home. I did not know you by sight when we began, I do not know you by sight now. But then we were strangers to each other. Now I have that feeling of gratitude to you which none but he who feels it knows—none but a writer. He is used to readers who lay his valuable tractates down to be read on the next Sunday, and then to be forgotten with the dust of three days upon them. You have not treated me thus. If you did, these words would be as blank paper to you.

Seven States we have gone through. They are States which have made their place in the civilization of the world and need not be afraid of their future. When in 1750 dear Ezra Stiles, who was quite competent to this duty, approached the history of one hundred and thirty years of New England, he ventured to prophesy. He had found out how often the population of New England doubled; he supposed that it would double three or four times at the same rate before another century ended in 1850. He was sure that the religion of the Congregational churches was the best in the world. He was sure that the stuff of which Connecticut and Massachusetts were made was the best in the world. and he calculated, therefore, that in 1850 six or seven million of us would be living in the four New England colonies of his day-well, let us own it-that this confederated little Nation would be as well advanced in the world as any of the old Englands or Hollands or France or Spain. He did not conceive it possible that any man in his senses would ever move west of the Hudson River to live. Dear Ezra Stiles, I am afraid that he never pardoned his friend Franklin for establishing himself in Philadel-

It has not turned out just as Ezra Stiles meant it should, but when I go to Tiajuana, and when I spend a Sunday in Vienna, and when I take my coffee in the arbor in the Alhambra, and I run against a compatriot who has one of the New England names or those of their New York cousins, I am apt to find that he is glad to tell me that his forebears eight or nine generations ago came over with Brewster or Winthrop or Davenport or the Scotch-Irish or Knickerbocker or Stuvvesant. I do not find that those who come from the Empire State are ashamed of the Empire State. and I do find that those who have kinsmen in New England are glad that they have kinsmen there.

It has been a pleasure, Gentle Reader, to feel the touch of your hand and to wonder if one of your one hundred and twenty-eight ancestors who arrived in 1630 were, possibly, one of mine.

THE END

CHINA IN TRANSITION

THE CAUSES OF ANTI-FOREIGN FEELING: THE MIXED COURT

BY GEORGE KENNAN

Special Correspondent of The Outlook in the Far East

N order to understand fully and estimate aright the manifestations of anti-foreign feeling which have been so noticeable in China during the past twelve months, and which seem likely to increase in frequency in the near future, the fair-minded investigator should take a few typical cases, such as the boycott, the Hankow-Canton railway concession, and the Shanghai riot, study them carefully, and try to look at the facts from the Chinese point of view. Many Europeans are disposed to regard the attitude of the Chinese toward foreigners as the outcome of Oriental exclusiveness, national self-conceit, and blind racial hatred for which there is no reasonable justification or excuse. They never think of trying to find out what the grievances of the Chinese are, nor do they ever ask themselves, "What should we do, and how should we feel, if all the conditions were reversed-if we were in their places and they were in ours, and if they treated us as we treat them?" On the contrary, they often assume, without investigation, that the Chinese have no real grievances; that they "kick" simply because they are conceited, wrongheaded barbarians who don't know what is good for them; and that even when they seem to have right and justice on their side, no concession should be made to them, because the authority and prestige of the white race must be preserved, and an admission of error or injustice would be regarded as an evidence of weakness, and would only make the "kickers" more presuming, impudent, and dangerous.

Hongkong and Shanghai, as the readers of The Outlook doubtless remember, were both captured by Great Britain in what is known as the "Opium War" of 1839-42. As a result of that war, China was forced to pay an indemnity of \$23,000,000, to cede to Great Britain the island of Hongkong, and to throw open to foreign settlement four or five other seaports, of which Shanghai was It is important to note at the outset that by the terms of the peace treaty Hongkong became an integral part of the British Empire, while Shanghai remained Chinese territory. The Chinese Government gave foreigners the right to live and do business in the latter city, and eventually leased to them there the

This view of the attitude of the Chinese toward foreigners seems to me narrow and one-sided. The Chinaman has faults and vices of various kinds and in great abundance, but he is reasonably patient and tolerant, and if he hates the people whom he regards as pushing, grasping, domineering intruders from the West, he often has good reason to do so, and acts only as we should probably act if we were in his place and were no more advanced than he is in culture and knowledge of the world. An interesting illustration of the way in which he looks at his relations with Westerners is furnished by the recent Shanghai riot—or rather by the trouble in the Mixed Court. of which the riot was the outcome-and inasmuch as the facts throw a good deal of light upon the causes of anti-foreign feeling in the treaty ports, I shall try to set them forth as fairly as I can with the knowledge I have, and to look at them from the Chinese as well as from the foreign point of view.

^{&#}x27;Mr. Kennan's first article in this series, called "The Shanghai Riots," appeared in The Outlook of last week (February 17).—THE EDITORS.

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ground on which the International Settlement now stands; but it never parted with its territorial sovereignty in Shanghai as it did in Hongkong, and consequently it still retains there all rights not definitely and specifically surrendered.

As soon as the bounds of the Concession had been agreed upon and marked out, the settlers, who were mostly British merchants, adopted a series of "land regulations" to serve as a sort of constitution, organized a Committee of Roads and Jetties, and proceeded to lay out the new city. As the population gradually increased it became necessary to provide some other form of municipal control than that exercised by the British Consul, and in 1854 the rate-payers elected a Municipal Council, which, with many changes in power and personnel, has governed the city from that time to this. In its present form the Council consists of seven Englishmen, one American, and one German, who are elected annually, for a period of one year, by foreign residents who have the necessary property qualification.1

Up to the time when the Municipal Council was established, the inhabitants of the Concession were all foreignersmostly Englishmen-but after the socalled "Triad Rebellion" in 1854 there was a great deal of crime and disorder in the Yangtse valley, and the Chinese in the vicinity of Shanghai, finding that the International Settlement was a safer place of residence than their own city or any part of the adjacent country, flocked into the Concession by the thousand and began to rent land and houses from the original owners or occupants. This influx of Chinese, which was permitted, but which had not been anticipated, gradually changed a Settlement which was intended to be purely Euro-

pean into a city whose ethnological complexion is almost purely Asiatic.1 the course of a few years the native population increased to twenty thousand or more, and it became necessary to establish some sort of legal tribunal which should have jurisdiction of civil and criminal cases in which Chinese citizens were concerned. In accordance, therefore, with the terms of a treaty entered into by Great Britain and China at Tientsin in 1861, the Chinese Government, acting in conjunction with the British Minister and the British Consul at Shanghai, organized and opened in the International Settlement a "Mixed Court" for the adjudication of all civil and criminal cases in which Chinese were defendants. The "rules" for this Court, which were agreed upon by the Chinese Foreign Office and the British Minister at Peking in April, 1869, have never been legally changed or abrogated. and consequently are still in force. They provide that the Court shall consist of a Chinese magistrate, of a certain specified rank, and a foreign consular officer to be known as an "assessor." In all cases involving the rights or interests of both foreigners and Chinese the consular assessor shall sit with the Chinese magistrate and have concurrent authority and power; but "where Chinese only are concerned the Chinese magistrate shall adjudicate independently—the consuls shall not interfere." 1 The Chinese magistrate, furthermore, is directed and empowered to "provide food and lodging for the prisoners," that is, to keep them in the custody of the Court pending trial and during punishment.8

No one, I think, can read these "Rules," and the Tientsin treaty upon which they are based, without becoming convinced that the Mixed Court was intended to be, primarily, a Chinese tribunal, and that at the time of its establishment Great Britain fully admitted the right of the Chinese to try their own offenders in accordance with

IA citizen who pays taxes on property having a leasehold value of six hundred taels per annum (about \$360 gold) is entitled to a single vote. If the vested interest of a foreigner in the real estate and improvements of the city is greater than this, he may cast votes which, in number, are roughly apportioned to the amount of taxes that he pays, so that a single wealthy individual may cast forty or fifty votes. This sliding scale of property qualification has made the Council a sort of close British corporation, which represents and is responsible to a comparatively small part of the whole taxpaying population. The Chinese residents of the Settlement, although they outnumber the foreigners in the proportion of forty to one, and pay sixty-four per cent. of the general municipal tax, have no representation. have no representation.

¹ Of the 43,339 inhabited dwelling-houses in the International Settlement in September, 1904, the Chinese occupied 42,437 and the foreigners only 902. This does not include the French Concession, which has a separate, independent government of its own, and which is not considered in this article.
¹ Rule 3. Mayer's collection of "Treaties between the Empire of China and Foreign Powers."
² Rule 1, in same volume.

their own laws, and to detain and punish them in their own prisons. This, in fact, was nothing more than common fairness. The International Settlement was still Chinese territory, and if the foreigners living there claimed extraterritoriality for themselves, they were certainly bound to admit the jurisdiction of the native court in cases that concerned only the Chinese.

For a good many years no question was raised as to the status of the Mixed Court, and no attempt was made by the Europeans to modify or control its procedure. The Chinese magistrate adjudicated independently in all Chinese cases, and the foreign assessor interfered only when it was necessary to do so in order to protect some foreign interest. Gradually, however, the Court became the scene of collisions and conflicts of authority, due primarily to a series of persistent attempts on the part of the Municipal Council and the British consular assessor to limit or usurp the power of the Chinese magistrate. The "Rules" expressly prohibited the interference of foreign consular officers in Chinese cases; but, for one reason or another, they did interfere, and in 1901 they declared the "Rules" obsolete, and boldly assumed the right to sit with the Chinese magistrate and share his power in all cases, no matter whether foreign interests were involved or not.1 Then the Municipal Council began to station its own European police officers in the court-room to watch the proceedings and report. The Chinese magistrate retaliated by sending one of his own constables to watch the proceedings in the police court of the British municipality. Finally, the Council built a jail of its own and proceeded to deprive the Mixed Court of the custody of its Chinese prisoners. From the Chinese point of view, as well as from the view-point

of international law, all of these encroachments were illegal; but the members of the Council, and in some cases the foreign consuls and assessors, defended and justified them by declaring that the Chinese magistrate was corrupt and venal; that Chinese criminals arrested by the municipal police and turned over to the Mixed Court were often set at liberty upon payment of a bribe; that the punishments inflicted were sometimes inadequate and sometimes cruel: that the Chinese jail was not a fit place of detention for human beings; and that the procedure of the Mixed Court, generally, was not to be tolerated in a civilized community. I have no doubt that, in the main, these statements were true. "Squeezing," bribe-taking, and the sale of privileges and exemptions by officials are almost universal in China, and the magistrates and "runners" of the Mixed Court probably robbed litigants, sold justice—or injustice—to the highest bidder, and, for a suitable consideration, liberated criminals who ought to have been punished. Such things were done everywhere else in China, and of course they were done in Shanghai. There is no doubt, furthermore, that, as the Chinese population of the city grew from 20,000 to 350,000, and as the Mixed Court became a more and more important part of the machinery of government, the unreformed and often corrupt and barbarous methods of that Court became more and more obnoxious to the Council and the Consular Body. The chief sufferers, it is true, were the Chinese themselves, but the foreigners who governed Shanghai had Western conceptions of justice and humanity, and they were not disposed to tolerate corruption and cruelty within the limits of their own Settlement, even though the victims were Chinese. Actuated, therefore, partly by motives which were good, and partly by the pride of conscious superiority which the Westerner always feels when he comes into contact with the Chinese, the members of the Municipal Council, in their dealings with the Mixed Court, adopted a policy of benevolent interference which had no sanction of law, and which irritated and exasperated even the people whom it was intended to benefit.

I The consular order which declares the "Rules" to be obsolete, but which, nevertheless, is headed "Amendment," bears date of June 13, 1901, and is signed by the Consuls-General of Great Britain, Germany, and the United States. It does not say directly, or by implication, that the "Amendment" has ever been submitted to the Chinese Government, or that it has the sanction of any representative of that Government. It would seem, therefore, to resemble an alteration in the terms of a partnership agreement which has been indorsed on one copy of the written instrument by one of the partners without the knowledge or consent of the other.

The Chinaman may be perfectly well aware that his officials "squeeze," and that his Government, generally, is inefficient and corrupt; but it is his own business; he is used to Oriental practices, and he resents foreign interference, however well meant, just as vigorously as we should resent foreign interference with the methods of Tammany or with boss rule in Philadelphia. In the case of the Mixed Court there were evils that needed to be remedied, but the Council and the consular assessors had no authority to remedy them by the course of treatment which they adopted. rights and powers of the Chinese magistrate had been definitely fixed by international agreement, and had been set forth in certain "Rules" which could not be changed or abrogated without the consent of the Chinese Government. The Court might be corrupt or unjust or cruel; but it was dealing with its own people—not with foreigners—and over its own people, in cases not involving foreign rights or interests, it had as complete jurisdiction as the municipal police court had over the subjects of Great Britain.

About the middle of the year 1905 the Chinese Government made what seemed to be a sincere attempt to meet the complaints of the Municipal Council and to improve the character of the Mixed Court by appointing as magistrate a young and enlightened sub-prefect named Kuan-Chun, who spoke English well, and who was admitted, even by supporters of the Council, to be an "able, energetic, and intelligent official." About the same time the Taotai, or Chinese prefect of the city, wrote a letter to Dr. Knappe, then the senior Consul-General, calling his attention to the continued violation of the "Rules" by the Municipal Council and the European police, and asking him to lay the matter before the Consular Body for consideration and appropriate action. Dr. Knappe sent the Taotai's letter to the Council, and received from the Chairman a reply in which the alleged shortcomings of the Court and the remedial measures taken by the municipal authorities were fully set forth. This reply seems to have been very unsatisfactory to the Consular

Body, inasmuch as it elicited from Dr. Knappe the following caustic rejoinder:

Shanghai, 13th July, 1905.

F. Anderson, Chairman Municipal Council: Dear Sir-I have the honor to acknowledge the receipt of your letter of the 4th inst., which has had the Consular Body's careful consideration. I have been instructed to express our most serious regret that the Council thought it advisable to make certain police arrangements in the procedure of the Mixed Court which exceed the power and authority of the Council as well as that of the Superintendent of Police. By your action the Consular Body is placed in a very awkward position. Instead of suggesting the measures to the Taotai, and threatening their execution, if necessary, without his consent, we have now to defend proceedings which the Council was not entitled to adopt. There is no doubt that the treaties do not recognize the Council as a controlling authority over the Mixed Court. If there is any such con-trol, it rests with the Taotai and the Consu-lar Body. Only reluctantly we have sanctioned your stationing a policeman within the precincts of the Mixed Court, and have taken the responsibility upon ourselves; but we are not prepared to continue this practice. We have shown by our action that we are willing to support the Council in its endeavors to put the Mixed Court of Shanghai on a proper basis; but you will facilitate matters by acting within your competence. In our letter of the 1st inst. we expressed our opinion that it will be inexpedient to press for the adoption at the present time of any amendments in the procedure of the Court beyond those to be effected by eleven new rules now under consideration by the Chinese Government, and you informed the Consular Body on the 4th inst. that you acquiesced in this decision. Notwithstanding, you intro-duce new rules at the Mixed Court without asking anybody, and modestly call them police arrangements." I have the honor to be, sir,

Your obedient servant,
DR. KNAPPE,
Consul-General for Germany and Senior
Consul.

This letter, it will be observed, is, in effect, an official admission that the Municipal Council had no authority over the Mixed Court; that the "Rules" and procedure of the Court could not be changed without the consent of the Chinese Government, and that in making changes forcibly, without such consent, the Municipal Council had acted unjustly and illegally. These were the precise contentions of the Chinese, and their protests were based precisely upon these grounds.

One would suppose that, after receiv-

ing such a rebuke from the whole body of foreign consuls, the municipal authorities would have let the Mixed Court alone-especially as the Chinese magistrate then on the bench was a man of education and high character, who had already shown a disposition to reform the Court and make it all that it ought to be.1 The Council still continued, however, to harass and irritate the Chinese by unwarranted interference and supervision, and even made it unpleasant for the American assessor, Mr. Arnold, when the latter declined to sanction certain municipal "police regulations" which limited the power of the Court in Chinese cases, and which were not in accordance with the "Rules." Mr. Arnold took the ground that the Mixed Court was primarily a Chinese tribunal, and that he, as a foreign consular officer, had no right to interfere with its procedure unless foreign interests required such interference and the "Rules" of the Court sanctioned it. Resenting the attitude thus taken by the American assessor, the Council first made complaint of it in a letter to the Consular Body, and then, through the British assessor and the police, began to docket and remand a certain class of cases in such a way that they would not come up for hearing on the days when Mr. Arnold sat on the bench as associate magistrate. This increased the friction between the Chinese authorities and the Municipal Council, and on the 6th of December the Taotai found it necessary to make another protest to the Consular Body with regard to the continued interference of the Council and its police in cases where Chinese only were accused and in which no foreign interest was involved. This was only two days before the Mixed

Court trouble reached a crisis, and less than two weeks before the outbreak of the riot. Meanwhile, the Chinese Government had given further evidence of its desire to improve the Court by appointing as assistant magistrate another bright young Chinese official named King-Shao-Cheng, who had had three years of educational training at King's College, London.1

Although the Chinese resented and resisted all encroachments upon the power and authority of their own magistrate in dealing with their own people, the thing to which they objected most strenuously, and which they opposed most vigorously, was the sending of arrested Chinese women to the municipal jail, to be under the charge of Sikh jailers.2 The reasons for the feeling that they had in this matter were two. In the first place, they believed that they had a legal right to keep their women

nad a legal right to keep their women

'Mr. King (or, as the name is sometimes spelled, Ching) will perhaps be remembered in America as one of the three brothers who were held up as coolies by the customs officials in Boston when they landed there on their way back to China in June of the year 1905. In a letter written to President Roosevelt at that time by B. Atwood Robinson, of Boston, the King brothers were described as "of the highest class in China, and among the wealthiest and most influential in the Empire." The appointment of one of these young men as assistant magistrate of the Mixed Court would certainly seem to indicate sincerity and good faith on the part of the Chinese Government in the work of reform.

'The Municipal Council and the foreign residents of Shanghai were well aware that the Chinese had this feeling with regard to the Sikh jailers. On the 12th of December—a week before the riot—the "North China Daily News," the strongest journalistic supporter of the Council, and one of the ablest papers in China, said, in a leading editorial: "We believe it will be found, when the passions of the moment cool down among the Chinese, that a great factor in arousing them has been the dread they have of the Sikh police and the Sikh gaolers. It would, we believe, be useful if a joint inquiry were held into this question, and pains were taken to prove to the Chinese that no unnecessary harshness is practiced toward prisoners in the municipal gaol. . . . There are complaints, which may be entirely unfounded, of the Indian warders, and it would be well to reassure the Chinese on this point." At almost exactly the same time the "Nanfangpao," the leading Chinese paper of Shanghai, said editorially: "The opinion of the Chinese, with regard to the municipal gaol s far from flattering. Notwithstanding its much-vaunted sanitary condition and the human treatment of its inmates, the death-rate of the prisoners has been fearfully high, and with regard to the manner than the sanitary condition and the humane treatment of its inmates, the death-rate of the prisoners has been fearfully high, and there is just cause for the complaint that no official inquest is held when such deaths occur. This gives rise to rumors of ill-treatment and general abuse of the Chinese prisoners by the European gaoler and his fierce Indian warders. Be that as it may, the belief is that no Chinese sentenced to a term of imprisonment longer than one year ever survives his punishment at that no Chinese sentenced to a term of imprisonment at longer than one year ever survives his punishment at the municipal gaol, and that, however cruel the warders are at the Mixed Court or at any other Chinese court, the death of a criminal undergoing a long term of imprisonment is practically unknown." According to the official report of the superintendent of the municipal jail, forty-one prisoners died in the year 1904, out of a prison population which averaged about four hundred and sixty. This would give a death-rate of nine per cent., which is certainly high.

¹In July, 1905, the new magistrate, Kuan-Chun, discharged seventeen of the twenty-six "runners," or Chinese attendants of the Court, and trebled the salaries of the remaining nine so as to leave them no excuse for the "squeezing" and bribe-taking of which the Municipal Council had complained. He also made arrangements to have the men's and women's wards of the Mixed Court jail inspected by a sanitary expert, with a view to improving their condition if necessary. About the same time the Taotai, or Chinese Prefect of the city, gave orders to enlarge the jail by erecting new buildings, and notified the senior Consul that the sites for these buildings had been approved by the British consular assessor, and that the necessary money for the improvements had been set apart. Early in December corporal punishment and the use of the cangue were abolished in the Mixed Court, by order of the Board of Punishments in Peking; so that this cause of complaint was also removed. of complaint was also removed.

prisoners in their own jail; and, in the second place, they feared and hated the East Indian Sikhs who were employed in the municipal jail as turnkeys and wardens. It was bad enough to have to turn their male prisoners over to such guardians, but to be forced to put their women in the hands of Sikhs was absolutely intolerable. In order to get the native view of this matter, suppose, for a moment, that China had twice the military strength of Japan and was therefore powerful enough to treat American residents in China as she chose. Suppose that the Chinese authorities, having failed to get us to surrender our extraterritorial rights, put a Chinese assessor into our American consular court at Shanghai, for the purpose of looking after Chinese interests in "mixed" cases. Suppose that this assessor, in direct violation of the "Rules" agreed upon by the Chinese and American Governments. attempted to control and regulate the Court's procedure in purely American cases, where no Chinese interest was involved. Suppose, finally, that the Chinese Municipal Council and its police deprived the Court of the custody of its own American prisoners, and even went so far as to put American women into a Chinese jail, where their own consul could not look after nor protect them, and where the turnkeys and warders were not even Chinese, but were fierce Tibetans, or half-wild Mongols from the Desert of Gobi. How should we be likely to feel with regard to such a state of affairs? The supposition may seem extravagant, but it will serve, perhaps, to give the reader a glimpse of the case from the Chinese point of view, and will enable him to understand the storm of indignation raised by the Li-Wan-Chih incident, which I am about to de-

On the 7th of December, Madame Li-Wan-Chih, a Chinese lady of some social position and the widow of a mandarin, took passage on a Yangtse River steamer for Shanghai, en route to Canton. She was carrying with her a coffin containing the remains of her dead husband; she had a hundred or more pieces of baggage; and she was accompanied by a retinue of servants and attendants,

including a number of young girls. Before she reached her proximate destination somebody up the river telegraphed to the British superintendent of police at Shanghai that she was a procuress; that she had kidnapped a number of young Chinese girls; and that she was taking them to Shanghai or Canton for immoral purposes.1 Upon the arrival of the steamer at Shanghai the whole party was arrested and taken to the Mixed Court for examination. Madame Li, the accused, declared that she was neither a procuress nor a kidnapper; that the young girls in question were her personal attendants and slaves whom she had legally bought; and that she had documentary evidence in her baggage to prove the truth of her statements. In order to give her an opportunity to produce this evidence, the Court decided to remand the case, and both the Chinese magistrate and the British assessor, Mr. Twyman, agreed that meanwhile the young girls should be sent to a charitable institution for Chinese women known as "The Door of Hope." With regard to the disposition to be made of Madame Li the two magistrates differed. Mr. Kuan-Chun, believing that she was an innocent lady, wished to admit her to bail: while the British assessor insisted that she should be sent to the municipal prison. Before any agreement had been reached, the municipal police attempted to remove her by force, and were opposed by the Chinese constables and by Assistant Magistrate King. This led to a disorderly fracas, which broke up the session of the Court and ended in the forcible removal of the woman by the municipal police. The Chinese say that in the course of the fight Mr. Kuan-Chun and the assistant magistrate were insulted and threatened, and that a British policeman attempted to strike Mr. King with a club. This may or may not be true; but certain it is that Madame Li was forcibly taken from the custody of a Chinese court and put into the hated jail of the British municipality; and this was enough

¹ The Shanghai police have never made public the name of their informant. Some Chinese say that the telegram was sent by a missionary, and others that the sender was a steward on the river steamer, who was angry because Madame Li had not given him a sufficiently liberal fee, and who took this method of getting even.



to throw the whole Chinese community into a fever of indignation and wrath. The Chinese Chamber of Commerce and the powerful Canton Guild took the matter up; mass-meetings of excited Chinese were held in various parts of the Settlement; protests were made to the Viceroy of the province and to the Board of Foreign Affairs at Peking, and the Taotai notified the Consular Body that the Mixed Court would not reopen until the conflict of authority had been settled.

In a speech to representatives of the Chinese Chamber of Commerce, various educational societies, and the native press, made two days after the closing of the Court, the Taotai said: "I must apologize to you all for not having managed foreign affairs in the past with sufficient firmness, and the result is the disgraceful trampling upon our rights which was witnessed at the Mixed Court two days ago. Be assured that in this instance I will use every exertion to erase the shame inflicted on the Chinese Government and the people by the action of the British assessor and the municipal police. I am willing to give up my post in the fight for justice and fair play."

On the morning of December 13 the Consular Body, having become convinced of the innocence of Madame Li, directed the Municipal Council to order her release, and on the 15th she was set at liberty. This, however, did not quiet the excitement of the people, who continued to hold mass-meetings for the purpose of denouncing the Municipal Council, the British assessor, and the police, and protesting against the sending of Chinese women to the municipal jail. Finally, three days later, the smoldering embers of popular resentment and indignation burst into the flame of an antiforeign riot. That this resort to mob violence was premeditated and planned there is, I think, little doubt; but it is impossible as yet to say who instigated and directed it. The better class of Chinese took no part in it, and the native press condemned it; although both undoubtedly sympathized with the feeling that seemed to lie back of it. So far as one could judge from appearances, the local Chinese authorities did what they could to repress the disorder. The Taotai himself went repeatedly through the area of disturbance, addressing the people and trying to restrain them from violence, and, if I do not err in time, he was making his first trip through the storm-center at the very moment when my hot-headed fellow-countrymen at the Astor House were suggesting that he be lynched or sent on board a war-ship in irons.

In view of the fact that the fracas in the Mixed Court and the subsequent riot resulted, more or less directly, from the dispute with regard to the custody of Chinese prisoners, I felt a natural curiosity to see the jails in which the latter were confined; and Thursday afternoon, when the city had become fairly quiet, I went with Mr. Arnold, the American vice-consul, to inspect them. The Mixed Court and the Chinese jail attached to it were situated in a walled compound on one of the cross streets of the native quarter near the end of the Boone Road. At first sight there was nothing distinctively Oriental in the appearance of either of them. The substantial two-story buildings of gray brick would not have seemed particularly out of place in any British or American town, and the court-rooms and cells differed little from apartments of the same kind in the West. The jail would accommodate, I should think, about one hundred and thirty prisoners. The cells of the lower story, which opened on a grated, cage-like corridor. were as spacious as the kameras of a Russian prison, and were intended, apparently, to hold ten or fifteen men each. The floors were fairly clean, the walls had recently been whitewashed, and two sides of every room were occupied by low, bare wooden platforms, on which the inmates sat during the day and slept at night. Most of these cells had no windows, but their large doors of crossed iron bars admitted plenty of light and air—more air, in fact, than was desirable, inasmuch as there were no heating facilities and the weather was cold. prisoners wore, apparently, the clothing in which they had been arrested, and I saw no blankets, pillows, or bedding. The second story of this building was intended for prisoners of a better social class, and was divided into rooms a

little larger than an American hall bedroom. In these cells there were windows, wooden sleeping-benches, and, in a few cases, chairs; and each room had two occupants. Smoking and tea-drinking were permitted.

In the women's ward, where there was a Chinese matron, the rooms were of the large kamera type, and contained no furniture except a single tier of wooden bunks around the sides. If overcrowded, they would be very uncomfortable; but a few women—half a dozen, perhaps could live in each of them without great hardship. The jail, as a whole, was neither very clean nor very dirty, and its sanitary condition, so far as I could judge, was quite as good as that of Chinese houses generally. The cells were all cold, and for prisoners without blankets or pillows they must have been uncomfortable at night; but, on the other hand, the discipline was evidently rather lax; prisoners were allowed a good many privileges—especially if they or their friends could pay for them-and there was always the companionship which goes so far to ameliorate the hardships of prison life.

With regard to the municipal jail, which we visited the same afternoon, I need only say that it is a fine, large, modern penitentiary, where the system is that of solitary confinement; where the four hundred and eighty cells are small, bare, windowless boxes of cement and iron, arranged in superimposed tiers, like the book-stacks of a great library: where strict discipline is maintained by forty-four stern, dark-faced Sikhs in colored turbans; where the silence and stillness never seem to be broken; where all the sanitary arrangements are apparently perfect; but where the annual death-rate is nine per cent., and where a suicide net is stretched across the inner courtyard, under the four tiers of cells, to catch the bodies of prisoners who, as they go to their work, throw themselves down with the hope of dashing their brains out on the pavement. The jail has large, well-lighted, and wellventilated workshops, a reformatory for children, and an up-to-date hospital; the prisoners are kept warm by a uniform prison dress lined with six pounds of

quilted cotton; they have three blankets to wrap around them when they lie down on their cement floors at night; they exercise an hour every day and take a bath once a week; and they are fed with rice and wheat enough to keep them in a state of health. Everything is clean and orderly; everything seems to be arranged and managed in accordance with the latest precepts of modern science; and yet the prison, as a whole, makes, even upon a foreigner, an impression of tomb-like stillness, loneliness, and gloom. It is, on a small scale, a British Dartmoor erected in the Orient for the detention and punishment of people who are extremely gregarious in their habits; who habitually live crowded together in the closest association; and who, from the cradle to the grave, are almost never alone. The dread with which they regard such a penitentiary and the preference which they show for their own prison are quite understandable. The average Chinese coolie would rather wear a cangue and be "squeezed" or occasionally bambooed in the Mixed Court jail, where at least he has human companionship and where the jailers are of his own race, than live alone under the watchful, unsympathetic eye of a turbaned Sikh in one of those gloomy cement boxes over the suicide net. The Municipal Council may say that the object of a prison is to inspire fear, and thus deter from crime; but if Europeans wish to live in peaceful friendliness with Asiatics, they should pay some attention to Oriental feelings and conditions of life, and not impose Western institutions and methods upon the Chinese without the latter's consent and without sanction of treaty or law.

In the fourth week of December the Waiwupu, or Chinese Board of Foreign Affairs, and the diplomatic representatives of the Powers at Peking, agreed upon a modus vivendi with regard to the most important of the matters in dispute at Shanghai, including the custody of Chinese women, and on the morning of the 23d the Mixed Court was reopened, under protection of a strong guard of marines, European police, and Sikhs. Mr. Arnold and I were present as spectators, and through the courtesy of

Assistant Magistrate King and the German assessor, Mr. Schirmer, I was permitted to take a seat on the bench. court-room, which contained no railings, seats, or furniture, was divided into a European half and a Chinese half. On one side stood the Chinese constables or attendants, on the other the municipal police, and between them there was an open space reserved for criminals and litigants. The Chinese prisoners were brought from the jail in gangs of three or four, tied together by their queues, and each culprit, as his case was called, was led forward by his queue and forced to kneel on the floor in front of the bench. A British police officer on the European side of the court handed to the German assessor a "charge sheet," and made a brief statement of the case in hand, while a native constable on the Asiatic side performed the same service for the Chinese magistrate. The cases, which were mostly larcenies, misdemeanors, and assaults, were disposed of at the rate of thirty or forty an hour, the Chinese magistrate entering the decision or sentence on his charge sheet with a slender brush dipped in vermilion ink. No witnesses were examined, and the accused were not represented by counsel; but in most of the cases there were material proofs in the shape of exhibits, which ranged from murderous-looking daggers and iron slugging-bars with handle-wrappings of bamboo, to ingots of copper, articles of clothing, pieces of broken furniture, and Singer sewing-machines. These objects, in turn, were held up before us for inspection or handed to us for closer examination. Now and then the accused were questioned by the Chinese magistrate, and sometimes they were permitted to make brief statements in their own defense; but, as a rule,

they were summarily condemned upon the evidence furnished by the police. Six or eight participants in the riot were arraigned, and were sentenced to imprisonment with hard labor for periods ranging from three to twelve months.

The case that interested me most was that of a pallid, unhealthy-looking slave child—a girl only seven or eight years of age-who had been treated with atrocious cruelty by an old woman who was said to own her. When the child attracted the attention of the police on the street, she was hoppled or fettered with a brass chain and a padlock, which were handed up to us as an exhibit. By direction of the Chinese magistrate, the girl was undressed in the court-room. and we discovered that her back was a mass of big scars and deep, half-healed sores, which had evidently been made by holding a red-hot iron against the flesh. This method of punishing children is not uncommon in the East, but I had never seen its results before in an aggravated case, and I was surprised when the Chinese magistrate gave the woman only one month's imprisonment in the Mixed Court jail, and sent the unfortunate girl to the Sinza House of Refuge. I sat on the bench until I wearied of the evidences of cruelty, dissension, destitution, and crime, and then returned to the consulate to talk with Mr. Arnold about the Mixed Court and its probable future.

I have left myself no space for a discussion of the Shanghai riot and its causes in their international aspect; but some of the lessons of the conflict are sufficiently obvious, and I shall have occasion in a future article to consider, in a broader way, the reasons for the anti-foreign feeling in China and the best method of dealing with it.

Comment on Current Books

Among the books recently Some Notable received which are of suffi-Recent Books cient importance to call for careful consideration and future thorough treatment are: The first volume of Dr. Henry C. Lea's "History of the Inquisition of Spain"-to be completed in four volumes, and, in view of the value of the author's general History of the Inquisition, in all probability an authoritative and important work, the outcome of long investigation, at first hand, of the Spanish archives (Macmillan); the second volume of Alexander Johnston's American Political History, which deals with the important topics of "Slavery," "The Civil War," and "Reconstruction" (Putnams); "The Menace of Privilege," by Mr. Henry George, Jr. (Macmillan); Mr. Winston Churchill's Life of his father, "Lord Randolph Churchill," which is described as an eminently readable and vivacious work (Macmillan); a new volume of Mr. Santayana's philosophical work on "Life and Reason" (Scribners). In fiction, the most notable volumes lately received are Miss Glasgow's "Wheel of Fire" (Doubleday), Mr. George Moore's "The Lake" (Appletons), and Mr. Eden Phillpotts's "The Portreeve" (Macmillan).

Mr. E. F. Benson's new The Angel of Pain novel is a singular mingling of the attractive and the disappointing. It is in its plot and situations distressing, but in its pictures of English society it is extremely interesting, and there are several characters worth knowing and rather carefully worked out. It is a pity, we think, that Mr. Benson persists in dealing in his fiction with symbolism and occultism. In this he follows the lead of Mr. Hichens, but with much less success. In the present story, for instance, the man who returns to nature, lives in the woods, discovers that he can by mental sympathy call the birds to his hand, and enters into inexplicable intimacy with the forest creatures, in the end becomes ridiculous rather than impressive. He believes in the joy of nature, but half fears and half hopes that at some time the whole of nature sorrow as well as joy—will be revealed to him, and this he calls seeing Pan. There is an ancient pagan myth that whoever sees Pan will not survive the sight, and Mr. Benson intimates that his hero's sudden death is of this kind, but makes the whole thing ludicrous by leaving the reader in doubt as to whether the man is killed by being butted to death

by a real goat or dies because he sees Pan in his mythical goat-like shape. (The J. B. Lippincott Company, Philadelphia. \$1.50.)

We know of no other book Argumentation which exactly occupies the and Debate same field with this volume by Professor Craven Laycock and Mr. R. L. Scales, both of Dartmouth. It systemizes and makes a unified art of the principles which should be followed in preparing for the presentation of a given subject in the form of reasoned argument. Some of the sub-topics under which the whole subject is treated may indicate the scope; such are, "Preliminary Reading," "Evidence," "Fallacies," "Brief-Drawing," "The Introduction" and "The Conclusion," and "Refutation." There is not a little sensible advice and acute suggestion to be found in this book, and it is likely to be useful, not only in the class-room, but to all persons preparing for public discussion. (The Macmillan Company, New York. 60c.)

The author, Dr. George Biographic Clinics H. Gould, believes that many more bodily ills are due to defective vision than most people imagine. This is the third volume under the title. In this volume, among other matters, he discusses the probability that the death of John Addington Symonds from pulmonary tuberculosis was due ultimately to eye-strain, and the neglect of the eyes that occasions not only such physical defects as curvature of the spine but such moral calamities as crimes growing out of truancy. Dr. Gould does not think it right to treat this subject as merely "a scientific or professional one," but regards it evidently as one on which people generally should be well informed. It seems to us clear, however, that it is not a question on which one can have very intelligent opinion without scientific and professional knowledge. It is well for people generally to know in what direction physical danger lies; but they can avoid danger safely only by counsel and direction from the expert. (P. Blakiston's Son & Co., Philadelphia. \$1, net.)

A Complete
History of Music
with seven American associates, is suitable for the general reader who wants in a single growth of the art. Especially full and informing are the early chapters dealing with the origin and primitive evolution of music.

In general the discussion of the development of the various phases of music is free from exaggeration. A joint product of this kind, however, is almost sure to be marked by one defect-lack of continuity and proper proportion in the consideration of certain topics. The lack of continuity is noticeable, for instance, in the discussion of Bach; and lack of proportion is especially noticeable in the chapters on modern music. No sound reason can be given for devoting nearly two thousand words to Richard Strauss, while allowing Brahms barely five hundred, and dismissing Tschaïkowski (whose name, by the way, does not appear in the index) with a scant two hundred and fifty. (Theodore Presser, Philadelphia, Pa.)

Days of the Past

The author, Mr. Alexander Shand, a Scottish writer and traveler, gives us here a "medley of memories" of men and things and of the changes he has observed in social, professional, and business life. He has a good store of observation to draw upon, and enlivens his talk by frequent anecdote and aptillustration. The book is discursive and agreeable rather than important. (E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. \$3, net.)

The unique natural attrac-The High-Road tions of India, its wonderof Empire ful architecture, its rich historical associations, and, above all, its interesting people-whose character and customs seem to pass unaltered through the ages-make a book like Mr. A. H. Hallam-Murray's "High-Road of Empire" well worth reading. The author treats of the varied features of India with an intimate and illuminative touch. India needs to be celebrated and described also by just such physically made a volume as this, printed in superbly clear and large type, making a book for tired eyes; published with many artistic colored pictures, a delight to any eyes. The entertaining and instructive text merits such type and such illustration, and it merits as well the book's extremely attractive binding. (E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. \$5, net.)

In The Outlook of Sep-A History of the tember 2, 1905, will be United States found a somewhat detailed and Its People survey of the first volume of this imposing historical undertaking by Dr. Elroy M. Avery. The volume now calling for comment is the second in his work, and covers, speaking generally, the events of the first half of the seventeenth century. It thus deals with the foundation-laying of the United States, the colonization of New England, Virginia, Maryland, New Netherland, New Sweden, and, as necessary to a thorough understanding, New France. What we said of the opening volume will apply here, although with some modifications. In the first five of the eighteen chapters the interest does not seem to us nearly so well sustained; but an even higher level is reached in certain of the later chapters. Throughout is evident the master desire for accuracy and impartiality, and both have been attained to a really remarkable degree. Puritans, Catholics, Quakers-all the conflicting elements in the youthful colonies are treated with scrupulous fair-mindedness. On the other hand, justice is scarcely done to some of the leading actors-particularly the Stuart kings-on the other side of the water. Indeed, as in the first volume, Dr. Avery appears to appreciate only imperfectly the significance of European movements and conditions in their relation to the development of the New World. We notice, too, that in treating the several colonies he pays inadequate attention to the operation of economic forces. It may be added that the publishers now announce that the work will be completed, not in twelve volumes as originally projected, but in fifteen, possibly sixteen, volumes. (The Burrows Brothers, Cleveland.)

Portions of many of the best Hymn hymns, ancient and modern, are Treasures included in this collection, with notices of their occasions and their authors. Noted translators and translations, with "a few words about tunes," are added. The chapter on "Hymns in Literature" may suggest the fact that there are hymns which lack an undisputed title to be classed as literature. The author, Miss Grace Morrison Everett, has aimed at making a popular rather than a critical work. It is worth noting that Samson Occom, not "Ockerman," is the name of the writer of the eighteenth-century hymn,

"Awaked by Sinai's awful sound," the single Christian lyric by an American Indian. (Eaton & Mains, New York. \$1.25.)

In Old Bellaire

Mrs. Mary Dillon has written here a simple story of social life in a quiet southern Pennsylvania college town. The college attracted Southern youths, and later became a center of excitement, as did all the border between North and South during the war. Into this free and happy community came the demure, pretty New England girl, Eunice. Her love story, an old-fashioned picture, so long ago do war times seem, is troubled by her patriotic and religious scruples, for Rex, an attractive student from the South, wooes her. That he wins her is due to her ripening nature and to his loyalty to her, even though

he joins the Confederate army. (The Century Company, New York. \$1.50.)

The passionate outcry of Jesus' Christianity a tender heart, horrorstricken at the outrages of demoniac crime, finds utterance in this volume by a gifted Jewess, Miss Nadage Dorée, author of a remarkable book, "Gelta, or the Czar and the Songstress." The contrast between the Christian religion and the religion of Christ, which writers in easy chairs have noted with cooler criticism, she notes, as seen especially in orthodox Russia, with feelings akin to frenzy in beholding the unchecked cruelties of Russian fiends. Literary form disappears in the volcanic outburst of tortured feeling. Christian America, as well as other Christian powers, is held culpable for not forcing the hand of the Czar to stop the carnival of hellish wrong. This misjudgment is easily forgiven if one remembers Holy Writ: "Oppression maketh a wise man mad." A much more effective protest than that which Russia heard from us after Kishinev should have been made vears before by certain Jewish bankers, the holders of Russia's purse-strings, against her long-continued anti-Semitism, of which Kishinev was the natural fruit. (The American News Company, New York. 50c.)

The editor of the Beacon Biog-John Fiske raphies, of which this volume is a unit, may well find place for the historian Fiske. In these days of minute research it has become somewhat the fashion to disparage his writings because their material was not gathered from first sources; and there can be no doubt that recent investigation has placed in quite a new light many of the facts with which he dealt. At the same time it has demonstrated the essential soundness of his work, and leaves him among our worthiest historians. Certainly, few have done so much to make history attractive to the general public, and if only for this reason he deserves recognition in a series of studies intended "to furnish brief, readable, and authentic accounts of those Americans whose personalities have impressed themselves most deeply on the character and history of their country." Mr. Thomas Sergeant Perry, the author of this biographical essay—it is really too slender to merit the name of biography on Mr. Fiske's life and works, writes from intimate personal knowledge and with unmistakable admiration. He is, indeed, inclined to be over-eulogistic, and his portrayal suffers from awkward phraseology. But in spite of this he contrives to convey a good idea of Mr. Fiske both as man and as writer. (Small, Maynard & Co. 75c., net.)

The Long Arm Le Droit Conners, the silent, observant, handsome man, who acts as amateur detective in a succession of tragic mysteries, is as quick at solving riddles, when the least clue is given, as the rest of his tribe in detective stories. Murderers, counterfeiters, dishonest gamblers, kidnappers, and all manner of evil-doers are ferreted out and brought to justice by this astute young man, who occupies his days painting beautiful pictures. The author is Mr. Samuel M. Gardenshire. (Harper & Brothers, New York. \$1.50.)

The Musicians, There is a strong contrast between the two latest col-Library lections in this series to come to our notice; one collection consists of "Songs and Airs by Handel," fluent and conventional; the other of "Seventy Scottish Songs," racy and unsophisticated. Ebenezer Prout, who edits the Handel collection, displays, both in the introduction and the editing of the songs, the scholarship which is expected of him. These songs, of course, are taken from operas which, so far as performance on the stage is concerned, are obsolete, and from oratorios. They appear in two volumes—one containing arias written for high voice, soprano or tenor; the other, those written for low voice, contralto or bass. The Scottish songs, in a single volume in two editions-one for high, the other for low voice—have been chosen with intelligence. Here are some which are universally known, like "Auld Lang Syne;" others, like the "Islay Maiden," will be strange and new to most hearers, but are more characteristic. Mme. Helen Hopekirk, the editor, has had a difficult task and has performed it well. She has written piano accompaniments to these folk-songs, which preserve to a considerable degree the primitive traits which the melodies possess. In some cases she has conveyed the spirit of these songs with notable success. The introduction she has written to this volume is a sympathetic interpretation of Scottish music. (The Oliver Ditson Company, Boston, Mass. \$1.50 each.)

Oxford and the Cotswolds

This is a new and welcome volume in "The Highways and Byways" series. These books have proved attractive to a large number of readers and travelers, including the "Tarry at Home" variety. The excellent line engravings are a welcome change, from the excessive publication of half-tone cuts, and the topics of the several volumes are invariably such as to make picturesque illustration easy. This is emphatically true of the present book, in which Mr. Herbert A. Evans writes in a discursive and agreeably

rambling way. He takes Oxford as a starting-place, and wisely devotes far the larger part of the book to less well-known places. Many Americans know of Woodstock, Banbury, Horley, and Edgehill, but how many have ever heard of Upper and Lower Slaughter, Temple Guiting, Chipping Warden, Stow-on-the-Wold, or Lower Swell? These are but samples of the many quaint names of scores of English villages through which the author takes his reader in a leisurely pedestrian trip. Everywhere he finds ancient halls, ruined abbeys, picturesque cottages, or old-fashioned inns, and his narrative abounds in local traditions, legends, and the drift of the side-eddies of history. The drawings are by Frederick L. Griggs. (The Macmillan Company, New York. \$2.)

The parson in this tale The Sage Brush of frontier life by A. B. Parson Ward has not the unassailable strength that some of his predecessors in fiction have shown. His is a complex nature; deeply and devoutly persuaded of the reality of his religious mission, he yet possesses a highly emotional artistic temperament. The abrupt changes from prophetic fervor to gay, boyish light-heartedness are admirably indicated. How he fared and how silently he suffers in his chosen work must be left to the reader to find out for himself. With a striking hero, and the varied assortment of men and women to be found in a mining town, the tragic climax is only logical. (Little, Brown & Co., Boston. \$1.50.)

This story is by C. F. Sarah Bernhardt Pidgin, whose tale called Brown "Quincy Adams Sawyer" proved, we believe, entertaining to many readers. The present book aims at comicality rather than humor, and combines a rather sensational plot with somewhat too extended and thinly drawn out descriptions of country character and rustic pranks. The extent of the ground covered may be judged from the fact that the author publishes an alphabetized list of the "Personnel" of the book which covers seven pages. (J. K. Waters & Co., Boston, Mass. \$1.50.)

Selections from the Poetry of John Payne
rival, according to the opinion of competent judges. His reputation was made by an incomparable translation of "The Arabian Nights," and was heightened by his metrical translation of Villon. In this volume his inventive genius and remarkable use of melodious English give an unusual pleasure to the appreciative reader. His ballads equal

the best of English songsters, and the themes they set forth are marvelously fitted to their form. In the present collection, made with loving care by his friends, with the intention of introducing his work to American readers, it is difficult to pass by any one of the selections. They are exquisitely graceful and yet profoundly impressive, pervaded by a moving undertone of sadness, which perhaps reaches its full expression in the beautiful poem "The Grave of My Songs." How the poet could have remained in comparative obscurity so long can only be explained by the pre-eminence of his translations, and his own exceeding modesty as to his original writings. "The Ballad of Isobel" and "The Rime of Redemption" alone place the poet high among modern singers. The lighter vein of the dainty Barcarolles and Rondeaux and Madrigals is equally attractive. (John Lane Company, New York. \$2.50, net.)

In every sense of the word, The Thread of this volume by the author Gold of "The House of Quiet" is indeed a beautiful book, one that will give the reader a realization of the joy of life. It is a succession of exquisite sketches presented by an artist gifted with the elusive literary touch and a delicate instinct for the beautiful. The thread of gold has two strands, ardor and tranquillity, interwoven to make a cord of strength and beauty with which to bind our life together. The author passes without haste or jar from sensible practical philosophy to prose hymns that are full of hopeful inspiration. We pause in the tender light shed over the picture of a visit to a crippled man, "whose laugh had the careless and good-humored ring of one whose mind was entirely content." He and his wife were a gallant pair, abiding in a serene region above humanity and pain. comes a charming chapter upon authorship, which should be read by every one who feels the necessity of expression. The pleasures of work are sung-not in too exalted strain, and with touches of gentle humor. Oxford, Canterbury, Tower, Dorsetshire, all breathe the love and homage of an English heart for the memories and traditions of his own land. The religious reflections—though truly the religious spirit is on every page-are peculiarly refreshing, individual without being too assertive, and truly devout though lacking entirely the conventional tone. The closing chapters upon the deeper verities, thoughts that fill the mind when experience has taught us lessons, are full of quiet power, and shed the same sunshine that Faber found long ago could stir new life in the heart. (E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. \$3, net.)



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The Outlook

Saturday, March 3, 1906

The American Foreign Service

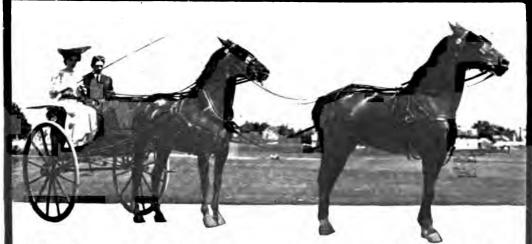
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THE OUTLOOK is a Weekly Newspaper and an Illustrated Monthly Magazine in one. It is published every Saturday—fifty-two issues a year. The fourth issue in each month is an Illustrated Magazine Number, containing about twice as many pages as the regular weekly issue, and many pictures.

PRICE.—The subscription price is Three Dollars a year, payable in advance. Ten cents a copy.

POSTAGE IS PREPAID by the publishers for all subscriptions in the United States, Hawaiian Islands, Philippine Islands, Guam, Porto Rico, Tutuila (Samoa), Shanghai, Canal Zone, Cuba, Canada, and Mexico. For all other countries in the Postal Union add \$1.56 for postage.

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LETTERS should be addressed:

THE OUTLOOK COMPANY

Chicago Office, 1436 Marquette Building

287 Fourth Avenue. New York

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The Outlook

SATURDAY, MARCH 3, 1906

(6)

Railway Rate
Regulation
in the Senate
Regulation
Railway
Rate Regulation Bill, as

heretofore explained in our columns, without amendment. This may mean, as some Washington correspondents appear to think, that there is a majority for that bill as it stands; it more probably means that a majority in the Senate wish to debate the bill, and any amendments to it, before the public, and not in secret session of the Committee. This is wise. We judge that there is no serious opposition in the Senate to a bill incorporating the two fundamental principles on which the President has laid stress: (1) That the Commission shall have power to fix rates; (2) that the rate fixed shall go into effect at once, and not wait until the Commission, by judicial proceedings, can secure a decision from the But, as we explained in The Outlook of February 17, the friends of railway rate regulation both in and out of Congress are divided in opinion, not on the question as to whether an appeal can be taken from the decision of the Inter-State Commerce Commission—for the Constitutional right to take such an appeal cannot be taken away by Act of Congress—but on the question whether that right should be explicitly recognized in the Act, and the proceedings in such appeal defined. Senator Knox has now introduced a bill already foreshadowed by The Outlook, which prescribes that an appeal may be taken to the Circuit Court of the United States; that from the decision of the Circuit Court appeal can be taken only directly to the Supreme Court, and that such appeal to the Supreme Court shall not act as a stay of proceedings. The proposed amendment further provides that-

No order of the Commission reducing a rate shall be set aside or suspended by an

interlocutory decree of the court without requiring a deposit of the excess charge or sufficient bond to secure to the parties entitled thereto the repayment, if the Commission's order is sustained, of all moneys received by the carrier in excess of the rate fixed by the Commission.

The attempt of certain partisan journals to make the public regard this as an attack on the President's policy is without foundation. The President has said nothing, publicly or officially, to indicate whether he is in favor of or opposed to this amendment, and there is in it apparently nothing inconsistent with the principles on which he has insisted. If the words "or sufficient bond," which we have italicized, were omitted, so that in order to delay the enforcement of the Commission's decision it would be necessary for the appealing railway to pay into the court the difference between the rate prescribed by the Commission and the rate maintained by the railway, we are inclined to believe that Senator Knox's amendment would expedite rather than delay the ultimate result. The Outlook is inclined to favor the Knox provision.

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The almost unanimous The Pure Food vote (63 to 4) by which Bill the Pure Food Bill last week passed the Senate, uncrippled by serious amendments, shows that the sentiment of the country has made itself felt in Congress. The opposition to such a measure has all along been latent and dilatory; the attacks have been upon specific clauses rather than upon the broad principles involved; yet for some fifteen years efforts to carry through a National law protecting the whole people from injurious and fraudulent practices The bill now goes to the have failed. House of Representatives and should be pressed energetically to a vote; that it will be defeated on such a vote is most

improbable, but that it may be delayed and obstructed unless the press and the people urge Congress to action is only too likely. Great praise is due to the managers of the campaign of education lately carried on all over the country, and especially to such organizations as the General Federation of Women's Clubs and the National Consumers' League, which have treated the question as one of vital importance to all homes, and have taught graphically and by physical exhibits the shocking extent to which adulteration and misstatement are carried with both foods and drugs. It is true that many States have each a pure food law, but these are of varying efficiency and they can only punish offenses committed wholly in a State. The Heyburn bill which has just passed the Senate makes it a misdemeanor, under penalty of fine or imprisonment or both, to manufacture or sell adulterated or misbranded foods, drugs, medicines, or liquors in the District of Columbia, the Territories, and the insular possessions of the United States, and prohibits the shipment of such goods from one State to another or to a foreign country. Thus it would become illegal to ship or receive such goods in unbroken packages sent from one State to another, which can now be done with impunity, as the State laws do not then apply. It is not true, as has been widely asserted, that the bill would put arbitrary power in the hands of the Department of Agriculture. this point Mr. Heyburn in the final debate said: "This bill fixes no standard upon anything; it authorizes no officer to fix any standard. It provides that the courts, and the courts alone, may determine whether or not an article is contraband under the provisions of this act." The operation in actual practice would be that if the Department of Agriculture through its Chief of the Bureau of Chemistry should find that the law was violated, it would report the facts to the proper United States District Attorney, who would take action in a Federal court, and only after the court had found an accused person guilty would the article in question be publicly denounced or exposed. In brief, the bill undertakes two distinct objects, one being to prevent the sale of poisonous or injurious foods or drugs, the other to compel manufacturers to tell the truth about their products. Senator Heyburn has quoted a prominent physician as saying that not less than 200,000, perhaps 350,000, children lost their lives every year as the result of impure or misbranded drugs. If this estimate is only half-way correct, it would justify a far more drastic measure than that now before the lower House of Congress, which has been well defined as a bill to promote common honesty in the sale of foods, drugs, medicines, and liquors.



The Canal Report

The decision of the Administration in favor of a lock canal at Panama was in a measure forecast by The Outlook in its issue of December 2, 1905. The two reports from the board of consulting engineers were submitted to the Canal Commission, and the Canal Commission with practical unanimity, all the members except Rear-Admiral Endicott uniting, recommended the adoption of the lock plan. The grounds for their recommendation are thus summarized by themselves:

From the foregoing it appears that the canal proposed by the minority of the board of consulting engineers can be built in half the time and at little more than half the cost of the canal proposed by the majority of the board, and that when completed it will be a better canal, for the following reasons:

It provides greater safety for ships and less danger of interruption to traffic by reason of its wider and deeper channels.

of its wider and deeper channels.

It provides quicker passage across the Isthmus for large ships or a large traffic.

It is in much less danger of damage to itself or of delays to ships from the flood waters of the Chagres and other streams.

Its cost of operation and maintenance, including fixed charges, will be less by some two million dollars or more per annum.

It can be enlarged hereafter much more easily and cheaply than can a sea-level canal. Its military defense can be effected with as little, or perhaps less, difficulty than the sea-level canal.

This recommendation has been approved by the Secretary of War and by the President of the United States, and unless it is overruled by Congress, which is highly improbable, the Canal will be built with locks. The reader should remember that, while a majority of the board of consulting engineers recommended the sea-level canal, by a vote of eight to five, the question was not, when presented to them, a new one; and a majority of all the engineers, French and American, who have studied this subject, and reported upon it previously, are opposed to the sea-level and in favor of the lock canal. So that, while there is a real and important difference of opinion, on the whole it must be said that the weight of engineering judgment is in favor of the plan recommended by the Administration. The history which justifies this statement our readers will find in The Outlook of December 2, referred to above.

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The Coal-Carrying
Decision of
the Supreme Court

The Inter-State Commerce Commission against the Chesapeake and Ohio Rail-

way and the New York, New Haven, and Hartford Railroad, decided by the Supreme Court on the 19th of February, is the first cause instituted under the Elkins Act of 1903 and is now finally determined. The opinion is of special interest in view of pending legislation on the subject of inter-State commerce and the determined efforts of the Government to break up the practices denounced by existing laws. In the proceeding against the Chesapeake and Ohio Railway et al., the Government challenged the right of an inter-State carrier to perform a contract to sell and deliver merchandise (coal) whenever the price to be received by the railway is inadequate to cover its actual outlay, plus the published freight rates, upon the ground that the actual result would be discrimination and failure to collect the published tariff, in violation of the Inter-State Commerce Law. The railway companies maintained broadly that, when acting in good faith, they had, as dealers, the right to make contracts at a fixed price for sale and delivery extending over a series of years and then go into the market, buy the merchandise, and deliver it at destination, notwithstanding what they received therefor might not be sufficient to yield them a net sum equal to the published freight rate, according to which shippers generally were charged. The position of the Government was sustained and the

contention of the roads denied in a powerful and sweeping opinion delivered by Mr. Justice White, and the way now seems clear to enjoin carriers from resorting to arrangements or devices whereby, in effect, although indirectly, they may cut rates or practice discrimination. The opinion is an emphatic announcement of a fixed determination by the Court to construe liberally the inter-State commerce acts with the express purpose "to compel the carrier as a public agent to give equal treatment to all," and to refrain from those things which conflict with its duty to the public as declared by Congress, and, further, not to permit the doing by indirection of things unlawful if directly done. The Court deliberately laid aside consideration of other grounds upon which determination of the cause might have been founded, and entered upon a discussion of the broad underlying questions and principles, with the apparent purpose clearly to settle the law and announce its hostility to all those practices which contribute, directly or indirectly, to the evils which Congress intended to denounce. The result is far-reaching, and will be of great assistance to the Government in its efforts to compel carriers to recognize their duty to the public and confine themselves to the legitimate business of transporting for all on terms just and equal. The inter-State commerce acts prohibit the taking by a carrier of compensation greater than that specified in the published tariff as clearly as they do accepting less than required by the same. Since a carrier may not, therefore, as the net result of transactions as a dealer, make more or take less than the freight rate without violating the law, obviously its opportunities for dealing cannot be very extensive. Discussion of the principles involved will be found on another page.

(2)

The Insurance Committee's Report The New York Insurance Investigating Committee, after

nearly two months of continuous work since the close of its public sessions, made its report to the Legislature last week. The Committee, with Senator

William W. Armstrong as Chairman and Mr. Charles E. Hughes as counsel, began its public hearings on September 6, 1905, and held fifty-seven sessions before the end of the year. It collected an enormous mass of valuable testimony concerning conditions in the life insurance companies in New York State. report is a volume of three hundred pages, containing a comprehensive résumé of the testimony given at the hearings and the Committee's recommendations for remedial legislation. These recommendations cover the entire field of life insurance activity with great thoroughness; they deal with the organization and control of life insurance companies, investments, political contributions and lobbying, the regulation of expenditures, the ascertainment and distribution of surplus, publicity of accounting, and other more technical details. The Committee would permit the formation of either stock or mutual forms of insurance companies; it would allow the organization of purely mutual companies without capital stock, a form of company which under the present law can be created only by special enactment; it would permit the directors of a stock corporation to give its policyholders the right to vote for directors, and would allow the conversion of stock corporations into purely mutual companies if the parties in interest so desire. In the case of mutual companies the Committee recommends provisions which shall give the policy-holders the most ample opportunities to participate in the election of trustees. It would cancel all existing proxies, provide that all future proxies shall be valid for only two months preceding any given election, that lists of policy-holders shall be made accessible by the company, that nominations of candidates may be made by the administration, or by groups of one hundred policy-holders, but that such nominations must be made in the first case four months before the election and in the second case three months. the nominations not to be changed except in case of death or disability. company must send to each policy-holder a list of the nominations of the administration with the names of persons authorized to receive proxies to vote for such ticket; and, when all the nominations have been made, an official ballot containing the names of all candidates. The Committee would provide that the terms of office of existing directors shall expire on November 15 next, on the ground that present boards have been elected without the participation of any considerable number of policy-Such a provision would give the policy-holders an immediate opportunity to take an active part in the selection of new officials, if they so desire. On the important question of investments the Committee recommends that investment in the stock of any corporation be prohibited, as well as in bonds secured to the extent of more than onethird by the hypothecation of corporate All such stocks and bonds now held by the companies must be disposed of within five years from the end of this No loans shall be made on stocks or on this class of bonds. The Committee would also forbid all syndicate participations or transactions for purchase and sale on joint account, and would provide that no officer or director shall be pecuniarily interested in any way in any purchase, sale, or loan made by his company. The Committee recommends the passage of an unequivocal and drastic measure forbidding contributions by insurance corporations for political purposes, and making an official in any way responsible for such a contribution guilty of a misdemeanor. The pernicious activity of insurance companies in the endeavor to influence and control legislation the Committee would eliminate by a provision similar to that in the Massachusetts law. Every person employed to promote or oppose the passage of any legislative measure must file with the Secretary of State a statement showing on whose behalf he is working, and the matter with which he is concerned. The report of the Committee still further recommends legislation providing that every insurance corporation also must file with the same official, within two months of the adjournment of the Legislature, a statement showing in detail all expenses incurred in connection with legislation at the last session.

The Committee does Further not believe it advisa-Recommendations ble that the Legislature should attempt to prescribe the expenditures of life insurance companies for the purpose of eliminating extravagance in management. It finds that the most wasteful expense lies in the amount paid for new business. control this source of extravagance it is recommended that the amount of new business which a company may write be limited in the case of companies having more than a billion dollars of insurance in force to \$150,000,000 a year, and in the case of smaller companies to a certain prescribed percentage of outstanding business. Companies having less than \$50,000,000 of insurance in force shall not be limited. Such limitation would, in the opinion of the Committee, do away in great part with the excessive rivalry between companies which has resulted in extravagant commissions, supplemented by liberal bonuses and prizes, the maintenance of unprofitable foreign branches, and lavish expenditures in many directions for the purpose of inciting agents to their utmost endeavor. In addition to the limitation of the amount of new business that may be written, it is recommended that the amounts that may be expended in obtaining new business should be limited in accordance with a standard which is too technical for consideration in such a brief statement as can be given here. The practice of giving rebates on premiums is now stringently forbidden by law. A further amendment is recommended, however, providing that a person receiving a rebate shall be equally guilty with the one giving it. It is the opinion of the Committee that deferred dividend policies should be prohibited, and that dividends should be distributed annually, to be applied either in reductions of premiums or in purchase of additional insurance or to be paid in cash at the option of the insured. No change should be made under existing contracts, but all policies issued in the future should be of the annual dividend type. In order that the companies may have the most complete protection against fluctuations in the values of their securities and unforeseen demands, they should be permitted to accumulate and retain a reasonable contingent fund in addition to their legal reserve, the amount of such fund to be prescribed by law in proportion to the net value of the companies' outstanding policies. The Committee is of the opinion that mutual companies and stock companies transacting business on the mutual plan should be forbidden from writing non-participating policies. The Committee favors a provision for standard forms of policies for each of the ordinary sorts of life insurance. Any company should be privileged, however, to issue policies of any other kind, provided they have been approved by the Superintendent of Insurance. such case the Superintendent should establish a standard form for that type of insurance which all companies would be free to use. Perhaps the most important recommendation of the Committee is that with regard to publicity and State supervision. It would provide for the fullest and most definite reports to the Superintendent of Insurance of all the financial transactions of an insurance company, in a form to be prescribed by the department. The Committee includes in its recommendations a number of categories under which such reports should be made in order to afford the most complete publicity to all of the activities of the insurance companies.

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As The Outlook pointed New Subways out last week, there are in New York two bills before the New York Legislature regarding the new subways which are to be built under the direction of the Rapid Transit Commission. These are known as the Elsberg Bill and the City Club Bill. Both of them seem to us to be defective in certain particulars, and the Legislature would, in our opinion, be serving the best interests of the city if it postponed action without passing either of the bills in their present form until it can be convinced as to what are the real public interests involved. There are certain principles behind the question of city transportation which The Outlook has often pointed out before, but which ought

to be repeated at this crisis. 1. The representatives of the people are under no circumstances to surrender the ultimate control of the highways-whether subways, surface ways, or elevated ways -to private corporations; and they are by every legal means to endeavor to re-acquire that control in those cases in which it has been lost. For example, the Legislature might refuse to give a franchise to any corporation to operate a subway if it now has a permanent franchise to operate a surface or elevated way, except on condition of the surrender, for a consideration, of the present franchise. 2. When the public has possession of a highway or highways, it should intrust the administration to a small body of men with large powers. There are three perils to municipal owner-They come from honest conservatives educated in the school of individualism; from selfish interests, sometimes but not always corrupt, which wish to get control of the streets for private property; and from incompetents (generally radicals) who have never been able to manage their own business and so suppose that they can manage the business of a great city. To guard against this threefold peril we need for the control of the streets a small body of men who are able, honest, publicspirited, and cautious. Our present Rapid Transit Commission appears to The Outlook to be too cautious, but it possesses the other requisite qualities. 3. Given such a body of men, it should not be allowed to bind future generations, and therefore should not be allowed to grant a franchise or make a contract for a period of more than, say, thirty-five years. But, with this and perhaps some other analogous limitations, it should be given a free hand. As far as possible, it should be a stable and non-political body. 4. The distinction between ownership and operation should always be kept in mind, because the public ought to get and can get for public ownership and private operation the support of men who would at present prefer private ownership to public operation. These principles appear to us to be fundamental, and are as applicable to St. Louis and Chicago as to New York. It

is in accordance with these principles that we object to the City Club Bill, because it permits perpetuity of franchise and allows the Rapid Transit Commission to bind future generations by its contracts; and that we object to the Elsberg Bill, because it is not clear whether its instructions to the Rapid Transit Commission are permissive or mandatory, and therefore it is not un reasonably suspected of attempting to bring about public operation by indirect methods.

Two bills have been in-

troduced into the New

Making Spoils of the Children

York Legislature by Mr. Tompkins, of the Assembly, which ought to arouse the protests of the press as they certainly would the protests of the parents if the nature and effect of these bills were generally understood. Under the present law the twenty-six district superintendents are appointed upon the nomination of the City Superintendent and his associates—that is, the expert officials who are charged with the supervision of the educational system are charged with the duty of nominating their assistants. This right of nomination one of Mr. Tompkins's bills takes from them, leaving the Superintendent and his associates without any voice in the selection of their own assistants, on whose loyalty the Superintendent must necessarily depend. We can conceive no argun.ent for this change, and no reason for it except a desire to give the Board of Education unrestricted appointing power for political purposes. present the teachers are selected by a board of examiners consisting of the Superintendent and four persons appointed by the Board of Education on the nomination of the Superintendent, and their terms expire in successive years, so that the examiners cannot well become the instrument of a faction. Mr. Tompkins's bill gives the appointment of this board of examiners to the Board of Education without qualification. The effect of this bill is to deprive the Superintendent of all real power in the selection of the teachers or even the

determination of the standards for their

qualification, and its effect if not its

object can only be to put the appointment of the teachers into the hands of a nonexpert body which may easily be made a partisan political body. Like the judiciary, the public school system of the United States must at all hazards be defended against partisan politics. Its value depends as much upon its nonpolitical as upon its non-sectarian char-Mr. Tompkins's bills appear like an attempt to make political spoils of the public schools of New York City. The people have put into the care of the State the training of their children; they have thus reposed in the State a most sacred trust. To use this function of public education for the purpose of furthering any interest except that of the children is to commit a betrayal of trust. If the Superintendent of Schools is not competent, he should be removed; but no personal hostility to him can justify taking from the non-political executive head of the school system powers which belong to his office and which are indispensable to his successful discharge of his duties, and giving them to a body whose functions are essentially legislative, and whose constitution and the method of whose appointment are such as to afford no guarantee against its use of its powers for political or personal ends.

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The Fight Against Race-Track Gambling

After eleven years of torpid toleration of an iniqui-

tous statute legalizing race-track gambling in defiance of the ground law of the State forbidding it, the conscience of the people of New York has at length been pricked by the enormous scandal of it into an effort to abolish it. The State Constitution, as amended in 1894, contains these words:

Nor shall any lottery, or the sale of lottery tickets, pool-selling, book-making, or any other kind of gambling hereafter be authorized or allowed within this State, and the Legislature shall pass appropriate laws to prevent offenses against any of the provisions of this section.

Nevertheless, the Legislature of 1895 enacted the so-called Percy-Gray bill, whose ostentatious veneering of prohibitions against gambling concealed devices for its protection. The Court of Ap-

peals has ruled that, as distinguished from a prize or a premium, a "stake" is a money bet. But this word "stake" was tacked by the bill to the "purses, prizes, and premiums" to be raced for, and thus the law stands now. Under the control of the racing commission which the Legislature established, at whose head is, or was, Mr. August Belmont, eight licensed race-tracks enjoy a monopoly in gambling of the rankest kind, in whose profits the agricultural (county fair) associations share. In 1904 the receipts of the licensees were \$3.805.126. of which the associations drew five per cent. The other side of the story is told by the Rev. T. F. Chambers, for eleven years pastor of the First Baptist Church in Saratoga:

In former years we were wont to welcome a fair proportion of respectable visitors . . . now they scarcely count. The month [of August] here stands for lawlessness and vice. Our streets are full of vile men, and women equally vile or viler, and we are the prey of the unclean and the degraded. . . . Many of the young men of the village have fallen in the last decade. . . . Some of them are members of my own church, or were. . . . The iniquities of our great hotels are an old and well-known tale. . . . Our track is a nuisance, a misery, a shame, a disgrace, and a curse.

What Mr. Belmont's racing commission cares for morals as compared with horses now appears. Police power within its inclosures has been granted to it by the Within are the bookmakers and pool-sellers, who attract the crowd of dupes and rascals. For their privileged stand within they pay from five to eight thousand dollars per day, and securely ply the business which, outside the gate, incurs fine and imprisonment. New York has suffered is imminent in New Hampshire, where the Legislature of 1905 was hoodwinked into chartering the same iniquity. Dummy incorporators having formed the "New England Breeders' Club," men who are or have been active in the sort of scheme that has cursed Saratoga quickly took control as their "associates and successors." In rural Salem on the Massachusetts border, hard by populous manufacturing cities, they have been spending a great sum in creating a center of moral pollution identical with those existing here.

Their charter is modeled upon the New York statute, and their president writes: "We intend at Salem to proceed on these lines." To thwart this the decent people of New Hampshire, led by such men as President Tucker, of Dartmouth, are now struggling. Victory in New York will help them toward victory.

The 'equalization of Equal Taxation in taxes by requiring New Jersey railways to pay taxes

on their property in the same way as do other property-owners is a question that has been agitated in New Jersey for some years, and within the last year or two has been pressed toward solution by political reformers and dissatisfied taxpayers. Last week what is known as the Perkins bill passed the Assembly, and press reports indicate that it will probably be accepted by the Senate. It does not accomplish everything desired by radical reformers, but it is a long step in the right direction, as may be seen from the statement that under it the amount of taxes to be paid by the railways would be increased by three hundred per cent., or, as one speaker in the debate declared, by five millions of dollars a year. It has been almost universally agreed that the system hitherto enforced in New Jersey for taxing railways has been anything but equal. Their property has been assessed by a special board of assessors, and the amount raised has been paid into the State treasury, but has been largely used for school purposes, and thus, in a way, has been distributed. It is maintained by many that the property of railways should be taxed by towns precisely as other property is taxed; that the portion of the roadway (or section of the main stem, as it is called) lying within a certain town should be assessed and taxed by that town just like any strip of land of the same dimensions, and that the same should be done with regard to what has been called the second-class property of the railways namely, any property not a part of the main stem lying in the town. On the other hand, it has been urged that this would give too large a proportion of the railway taxes to the large cities. The

Perkins bill, as originally drawn, provided that the main stem property should be taxed at the average State tax rate by the State board of assessors and the tax paid to the State for general purposes; as amended, it provides also for the taxing of second-class property in each taxing district by the local assessors at the local rate. The issues in this general question are somewhat intricate and have apparently been purposely complicated by politicians and railway advocates. The Perkins bill, however, is indorsed by Senator Colby and Mayor Fagan, who have been leaders in this reform, and its passage is a distinct triumph for the main contention that railways should not be put upon a separate and favorable basis as regards taxes, but should bear their share of public expenses.



The special ses-Pennsylvania's Excellent sion of the Penn-Legislation sylvania Legis-

lature called by Governor Pennypacker shortly after the November election adjourned on February 15, after making a record remarkable not only in the annals of Pennsylvania politics but in the history of American legislation. The same body which at the regular session of 1905 passed the "ripper" legislation and proved adamant to all suggestions of improvement in election laws and in other directions, passed a series of bills giving force and effect to the reform sentiment and demands of the State. Every item of the Governor's call for the special session received attention in the shape of a legislative enactment, with the single exception of the State Civil Service Bill. This is the first time in the history of Pennsylvania that a special session accomplished the purpose for which it was called. The work done at the session was of two classes—the undoing of things which ought not to have been done and the doing of things that ought to have been done at the regular session. In the first class comes the repeal of the Ripper Bill and in the latter come the passage of the general reform measures. The record of the session includes the passage of the following bills: Greater Pittsburg Bill, Senatorial and Represent-

ative Apportionment Bills, the Roberts Corrupt Practices Act, the Sheatz Personal Registration Bill and Uniform Primary Acts, the Jackson bill regulating the deposits of State funds and the conduct of the office of State Treasurer, the bill fixing the salary of the Insurance Commissioner at \$6,000 in lieu of a \$3,000 a year salary and fees, the bill fixing the salary of the Secretary of the Commonwealth at \$8,000 a year in lieu of \$6,000 and fees, the Philadelphia Civil Service Bill as championed by Mayor Weaver, the bill making a new salary schedule for the Insurance Department; the Shern bills, one restricting political activities of municipal employees in Philadelphia, the other prohibiting municipal employees from soliciting campaign funds; the bill limiting to \$750,000 the annual expenditure for State bridges, and the third-class city personal registration bill.

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The reapportionment bills What the have righted the injustice New Bills Do of a quarter of a century, and represent a compliance with Constitutional provisions long ignored. Sheatz Personal Registration Bill passes substantially as prepared by the election reform element of the State and as introduced by Representative Sheatz. This bill at the regular session was not reported from committee until the last day of the session, and so killed. The Sheatz Uniform Primary measure, while not so complete and satisfactory in form and provision as prepared by the Committee on Election Laws, still represents a very great advance in the matter of primary legislation, in that it provides for uniform primaries for all parties on the same day, and places the administration of the law in the hands of the regular election officers, who are responsible to the officers of the State. It provides for separate party ballots, which an elector can have upon request and complying with the fairly simple basis of party standing. The new Political Assessment Bill provides that no officer, clerk, or employee in the government of any city of the first class (Philadelphia) shall demand, solicit, collect, or receive, or be in any manner concerned in demand-

ing, collecting, or receiving any assessment, subscription, or contribution, nor shall any such officer, clerk, or employee give any contribution intended for any political purpose to any person, corporation, committee, or association. The Roberts bill, patterned somewhat after the law in England, aims to prevent corruption by means of publicity. It places no limit upon a candidate's expenditures, but it does provide that he must under oath make out his campaign expenses. It relates to all candidates for office, and, that there may be no dodging of election expenses, it defines them to mean all expenditures "of money or other valuable things in furtherance of the nomination of any person or persons as candidates for public office, or any furtherance of the election of any person or persons to public office or to defeat the nomination or election to public office of any person or persons." It further requires that all expenditures must first pass through the hands of the treasurer of the committee, who must account for every expenditure made. The Shern bill is designed specially to take police out of politics, and forbids any employee of Philadelphia to be a member of any political convention, except in the performance of his political duty, or to serve as a member of or attend a meeting of any committee of any political party or take any active part in political management or in political campaigns.



Surely, as the Philadel-Comment on the phia "Press" declares, Results "These are large results. No one at the beginning of the session would have dared to predict an outcome so comprehensive and satisfactory. No measure has been passed that any good citizen can deplore, and nearly every act will have a far-reaching and lasting effect." The "Ledger," in commenting upon the resolution of thanks passed by the Legislature and sent to Governor Pennypacker for his patriotic action in calling an extraordinary session, declares: "The Governor deserves these thanks and the thanks of all the people of Pennsylvania." He had the wisdom

to perceive the significance of the popular revolt against corruption and graft and the duty of immediate compliance with the just demands of the people of the State. Even he did not at first contemplate so broad a programme as has been carried out. To suggest to this Legislature the most sweeping measures of non-partisan reform seemed visionary, but the response to his summons was such as to open up the wide opportunity which the Governor recognized in his second call. The Governor himself, in a special message to the House and Senate and in a personal letter to each member thereof, declared:

We have reached the end of what has proven to be a most important session of the General Assembly of this State, and I congratulate you most heartily upon the success which has attended your efforts. You have risen above the desire to influence personal interests, and have had regard in what you have done for the welfare of the commonwealth. This session will long be remembered as an example of what can be accomplished when men are inspired with such sentiments. You have made an earnest effort to solve the difficult problem of apportionment, and the legislation you have enacted will do much to place upon a higher plane the administration of public affairs in this State. Such achievements will deserve and receive the commendation and appreciation of all thoughtful citizens.

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Municipal Reform in Philadelphia Another notable victory for good government was won by

the people of Philadelphia at the municipal election, February 20, when the fusion forces carried the city by a majority of 10,000. While this represents an apparent falling off of interest from the November figures, in that election great excitement prevailed, sensational developments and disclosures folowed one another, the Mayor was an active campaign speaker, and the whole force of his administration was actively applied to the fusion candidates. the February election there was no excitement, no sensations; the Mayor very properly took the ground that his obligations were not in the direction of conducting campaigns, but to give the best possible administration; so, while his sympathies were with the City party-

Democratic candidates, there was no such active co-operation as in November. Moreover, in the campaign just closed, the only city officers to be elected were two magistrates, and as both candidates were sure of election, one to represent the majority, one the minority, interest was expected to be very slight, especially as in a number of wards only school directors and election officers were to be chosen. The reform leaders very properly refused to make any definite preelection forecasts; but the results showed how thoroughly aroused the people really With a minimum of active interest, a very small campaign fund (less than ten per cent. of that raised in November), with many active workers who had aided fusion through the Lincoln party column in November returned to the Republican ranks, the electors quietly went to the polls and registered another rebuke to the old forces, and showed in an unmistakable manner their independence and determination to place Philadelphia's government on a permanently higher plane. A number of thoroughly good and representative men were elected to Councils, and both branches of the local legislature may now be depended on to support Mayor Weaver and to represent the best interests of the city. Efficient and honest election officers who will serve at the gubernatorial and mayoralty elections were also elected.



The election of George W. Pittsburg's Guthrie, a Democrat, as **Election** Mayor of Pittsburg (who will, by virtue of the new law, be the first Mayor of Greater Pittsburg) is another significant event. It represents the triumph of principle, integrity, and independence over the forces of predatory wealth and business politics. It indicates, as the New York "Tribune" points out, "the purpose of the voters to assert their power and to compel a return to popular and honest govern-A new force has been liberated which promises the elimination of oldtime abuses and the attainment, generally, of a higher level of citizenship and government." Mr. Guthrie is one c the best types of the useful American citizen

With a strong penchant for politics, he has never allowed prospect of office or preferment to beguile him into "unholy alliances." In 1896 he was the fusion candidate for Mayor of Pittsburg, and many believe he was elected, although the returns were manipulated to produce a different result. He has always been an active reformer, and as attorney he has helped time and again to protect the city's best interest. He has been actively identified with the National Municipal League, serving on its principal committees, also with the Election Reforms Committee of Pennsylvania, and was a member of the committee which drafted the recently passed personal registration and uniform primary laws. In short, he has been a conspicuous supporter of every forward political movement in his city and State, and has been an active factor in the National movements making for higher standards of citizenship and administration. It was reported that Mr. Guthrie would be the Democratic candidate for Governor. He has disposed of this suggestion in a characteristic way:

"I am not and will not be a candidate for Governor on any ticket. I will not permit the use of my name as a candidate, and, if I live, will serve out my term as Mayor of the city of Pittsburg. I expect to support my party's nominee, but I accord to every man connected with the city government the same right—and that is, to support the party to which he is attached. There will be no political machine constructed in Pittsburg during my administration, whether it be Democratic or otherwise. I have repeatedly said that no man under me need feel that his position depends upon political service. I will issue no political orders myself, nor will I permit department heads or bureau heads or foremen to issue orders. The time for such outrageous methods is going by rapidly."

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Mr. Guthrie was asked: "Are you aware that a majority of both branches of Councils will be Republican, at least during the first

two years of your administration?"
"That fact makes no difference to me," he replied. "Councils will do what I ask of them, because I will ask nothing that is not honest, reasonable, and fair."

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St. Louis's Protest
Against Chicago Overruled

legal proceeding was that given by the
Supreme Court of the United States last

week concerning the right of the city of Chicago to turn its sewage into the Mississippi River above St. Louis through the medium of the newly constructed Sanitary District Canal and the Illinois River. The suit was brought in the name of the State of Missouri against the State of Illinois, the Supreme Court having original jurisdiction because the litigants were States. The real parties in interest were the city of St. Louis and the city of Chicago. Chicago has built a drainage canal, designed to be a part of a great waterway in the future, connecting Lake Michigan with the Illinois River. Through this canal the sewage of Chicago, which formerly polluted Lake Michigan, the source of Chicago's water supply, is diverted into the Illinois River and thence into the Mississippi River and the Gulf of Mexico. St. Louis protested against this action as tending to pollute the Mississippi River, the source of her water supply. Chicago's answer was that there was no pollution at St. Louis; that running water purifies itself, and that by the time St. Louis was reached all harmful elements had disappeared. Chicago even contended that turning a large amount of Lake Michigan water into the Illinois River, along with the sewage, really tended to improve the quality of that otherwise sluggish stream. The Supreme Court took Chicago's view of the matter. It held that there was no evidence that the water was polluted as far away as St. Louis, a distance of 357 The Court said: miles.

There is no pretense that there is a nuisance of the simple kind that was known to older common law. There is nothing which can be detected by unassisted senses—no visible increase of filth, no new smell. On the contrary, it is proved that the great volume of pure water from Lake Michigan which is mixed with the sewage at the start has improved the Illinois River in these respects to a noticeable extent. Formerly it was sluggish and ill-smelling. Now it is comparatively a clear stream, to which edible fish have returned. Its water is drunk by fishermen, it is said, without evil results. The plaintiff's case depends upon the inference of the unseen. It draws its inference from two propositions. First, that typhoid fever has increased considerably since the change, and that other explanations have been disproved; and, second, the bacillus of typhoid can and does survive the germ and

reach the intake of St. Louis in the Missis-sippi.

There has been some increase in the number of typhoid cases in St. Louis since the drainage canal was opened, but the Court declared that there was no proof that the increase was due to sewage from Chicago, and cited the fact that there had been no such increase of typhoid cases along the Illinois River. There were other possible sources of typhoid contamination nearer at hand, and the Court intimated that St. Louis probably would have to seek relief through some system of filtration which would protect it from all sources of contamination. The Court stated that if it were to prevent Chicago from diverting its sewage into the Illinois and Mississippi Rivers it would later no doubt be obliged to exercise a like restraint upon St. Louis, which herself discharges sewage into the Mississippi River. While deciding the case at issue, on the evidence presented, in favor of Chicago, the Court stated that it would rule in favor of St. Louis if the case should be reopened and a presentation of facts should be made clearly sustaining the contention of St. Louis. It is a fact upon which much stress is laid by Chicago that fish have appeared, since the opening of the drainage canal, in portions of the Illinois River where formerly none were to be found.

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The German-American Germany and America are ultra-protectionist countries. At

present it would be hard to get the parliaments of either Power—the Reichstag or the Congress—to pass a low-tariff act. Germany, having passed a hightariff law, to take effect March I, has been vainly endeavoring to induce our Government to negotiate a reciprocity treaty if we would take advantage of the minimum rates of the new treaty. But there is no chance just now of its approval by Congress. It had been suggested, however, that Germany would gladly offer corresponding advantages if we modified some of our customs regulations and proceedings. Accordingly, a conference was held a fortnight ago, at which

certain concessions were decided upon. While rejecting the application of German importers for open hearings in cases of contested valuations of German goods (because American importers would be restrained from testifying freely if confronted by representatives of great German trade interests, who would be in a position to injure their business), the rule was somewhat relaxed by an amendment authorizing the Board of Appraisers to determine for themselves in each case whether hearings should be open or closed. A second change in the regulations making them more acceptable to Germans is one directing our consular officers in Germany to consult with local boards of trade in reference to the price of goods to be shipped to America, the possibly prejudiced opinions of the boards of trade on these questions of course not being conclusive but only advisory. third and more important concession is that invoices hereafter shall be consummated at the place where the goods are manufactured and not at the port of shipment as at present, but that to the invoice valuation there shall be added the cost of carriage from the place of manufacture to the port of shipment. These changes have apparently afforded a sufficient basis for a request to the Reichstag from the Imperial Chancellor, Prince von Bülow, to suspend for fifteen months the application of German maximum rates to our goods. The bill was promptly passed by the Reichstag and also by the Bundesrath, or Federal Council. The real reason, of course, for granting minimum rates to us is not to be found in the slight changes made in our customs regulations, but in the recognition by Germans that in the alternative, a tariff war, Germany would suffer more than we Not only would she pay more for breadstuffs, but in the event of our imposition of a retaliatory tariff above the present Dingley rates she would lose most of her valuable export trade to America, exceeding a hundred million dollars a year. American exports to Germany, on the other hand, considerably exceed two hundred millions. Even by the minimum rates of the new German tariff America will suffer from in-

creased duties on agricultural products, cattle, and manufactured goods. But cotton and copper (absolute necessities to German manufacturers, and representing about half our exports to Germany) remain on the free list. It would seem unlikely that they should be removed therefrom. Thus, if a fiscal war with Germany must be ultimately waged, we have the prospective assurance of knowing that the latest ultra-tariff maker will suffer more than we, who have also gone too far in that direction. This. however, should by no means blind us to the value and significance of the discrimination just made in our favor. It is another witness of the desire of the German Emperor and the German people to win the good will of America. should—and we believe it will—be followed by a reciprocal feeling here.

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In accordance with Liberal Government custom, the Lord in England Chancellor of England last week, on bended knee, handed to the King an address which his Majesty read to the new Parliament, thus fitly completing its opening ceremonies. Edward VII. read this "message" as if it were his own. It was really the new Ministry's message. The official on bended knee was the representative of the governing power in Great Britain. The King's Speech was notable. First, he formally recognized that the negotiations resulting in the "honorable peace" between Japan and Russia were "due to the initiative of the President of the United States." Next, the King's hope that the result of the Algeciras Conference " may be conducive to the maintenance of peace among all nations" may possibly be taken as an admission that the Moroccan situation really threatened the peace of Europe. Thirdly, turning to colonial affairs. the message announces the stoppage of importations of Chinese laborers into the Transvaal until the new Government of that colony can deal with the question: for both the Transvaal and Orange River Colony are to have broad constitutional governments; they are to be no mere Crown Colonies.

Furthermore, the question of colonial

preference is deferred by the postponement of the proposed Colonial Conference until next year, while the warnings and pleadings of protectionists are met by a statement from the new free-trade and Liberal Government that both exports and imports are steadily increasing. Finally, as to Ireland, a promise was made of administrative improvement; definite proposals are now being considered to effect changes in the government of Ireland. A day later, as an amendment to the Address in reply to the King's Speech, Colonel Saunderson, a Conservative, moved an expression of alarm, believing that "his Majesty's Ministers have committed themselves to a policy which will endanger the liberties and property of the loyalist minority, promote discord in civil life, and impair the integrity of the United Kingdom." This amendment, the first test of the new Government's strength, was rejected by the enormous majority of 406 to 88. The vote was taken after a stirring speech by Mr. James Bryce, Chief Secretary for Ireland, who remarked that the late Government itself had admitted the necessity for large changes in Irish administration, that the present Government would make an effort to improve the Irish government system and to associate the people therewith. For this the country had given to the House of Commons a mandate. No constitutional government could afford to overlook Ireland's demand. Mr. Bryce declined, however, at present to outline the Government measures indicated in the Speech from the Throne.

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Chinese Unrest

Chinese Unrest

Chinese Unrest

Chinese Unrest

Chine's latest reform scheme has been to transform the historic literary examination halls in Peking into a military school. The surprisingly fine record made at the recent army maneuvers by the thirty thousand soldiers—three-quarters of the army already recruited in the metropolitan province of Chili—has inspired the Chinese authorities to redoubled efforts, not only in that province (as is seen by the event above mentioned), but also in many others. In the provinces of Hunan and Hupe, for

instance, similar governmental enthusiasm and energy exist, as is noted by the merchants and missionaries whose headquarters are at Hankau, "the Chicago of China." There is no question about the fact that the Imperial Government is arming to protect itself. Its object, however, is not so much to guard itself against foreigners as against anti-Manchu revolutionists. The present Manchu dynasty has never quite conquered the pure Chinese. Sir Chentung-Liang-Cheng, the Chinese Minister at Washington, declares that the main object of the political agitation in China by revolutionists, especially in the south, is to bring about international complications with the view of crippling, if not wholly destroying, the Manchu dynasty. opinion is confirmed by a well-known missionary who has just arrived in this country; he declares that the trouble now brewing in China is ultimately and often directly attributable to a deepseated and unconquerable popular antipathy toward the Government; that this feeling is spreading, and that the anti-foreign sentiment is merely one of the expressions of an anti-dynastic movement (though the boycott on American goods has had its special cause). It is only natural, we think, that the educational progress in China, increasingly evident during the past eight years, should find its foe in any reactionary government resting on ancient and outworn traditions. The Empress Dowager, and Yuan-Shi-Kai, the most influential of the Viceroys, were once both reactionaries, but have, since the interference of the allied Powers in 1900, shown unmistakable and gratifying signs of more liberal sentiments. But, despite these and other welcome changes, the imperial government still stands too considerably for the negation of progress. The people realize this as never before because of the return of many of the thousands of students who went to Japan for their education; they, bring back Japanese ideas as to a progressive governmental administration which shall be backed up by all the people; and, being mostly members of the better classes, their sharp criticisms of the Chinese system are largely responsible for the growth and propagation of nationalistic, anti-dynastic, anti-foreign, and boycott sentiments. It is reassuring to think that the anti-foreign feeling is not directed towards the missionaries as much as has been supposed. The Presbyterian, Methodist, and Episcopal Missionary Boards have received tidings from their agents at Tientsin, Shanghai, Fuchau, and elsewhere, stating that the missionaries were in no actual peril. But, on the other hand, on Monday of this week news came that American mission stations at Nanchang in the province of Kiangsi had been destroyed, and that, although the missionaries escaped, a family of four English people had been killed.

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In Austria a German Universal Suffrage minority has long in Austria-Hungary been able to outvote a Slav majority; in Hungary a Magyar minority has long been able to outvote a majority composed of other elements. The action of the Emperor Francis Joseph last week should properly readjust electoral conditions. In the Austrian Reichsrath, or Parliament, at Vienna, through the Premier, Baron Gautch von Frankenthurn, the Government's plan was introduced in several bills presented on the same day, providing that every Austrian twenty-four years old and domiciled in a constituency for at least a year should be entitled to vote, and that every Austrian holding citizenship for at least three years should be entitled to election to the lower house of the Reichsrath. Plural voting is prohibited, and a division of electoral districts is designed so as to give to the Germans 205 representatives, to the Slavs 230, to the Italians 16, and to the Rumanians 4. As might have been expected, the Premier's explanation of the Government's plan was subjected to noisy interruptions from many Pan-Germans; most of the deputies, however, heartily applauded his speech. In the Hungarian Parliament at Budapest a more dramatic scene occurred, due to the failure of the Emperor-King's efforts to form a government from the parliamentary majority. The leaders of the majority declined to

form a Cabinet unless Francis Joseph decreed that Hungary might make a commercial treaty with foreign countries independently of Austria, and also that the language of words of army command should be Magyar (or Hungarian). Emperor, as King of Hungary, naturally could not see his way to granting either of these demands without disrupting the Dual Empire. In order to obtain a parliamentary majority favorable to his views, he dissolved Parliament, and, appealing to the country, offered practically universal suffrage, on apparently similar terms as in Austria. Nearly sixty years ago Louis Kossuth commanded the world's sympathy in a popular struggle against the then young and reactionary Francis Joseph. To-day the world's sympathy may be rather with that now venerable monarch and against Francis Kossuth, the able son of Louis Kossuth, and one of the most influential of the leaders of the parliamentary majority.

The Reform of Insurance

The power of public opinion in effecting political and social reforms has had few more striking illustrations in this country than is found in the report of the Armstrong Investigating Committee, which has just been made public. three greatest life insurance companies in the world—and they were also, it may be said, the three greatest private financial corporations in the world—were doing a successful, highly profitable, and thoroughly solvent business in all parts of the world, with their headquarters in the city of New York. They were paying large death claims annually without hesitation, they possessed splendid lists of assets in gilt-edged stocks, bonds, and real estate, and any man who held in one of these three companies a paidup or even partially paid-up policy regarded himself as the fortunate possessor of a security as unquestioned in its value to his estate as a government bond. Out of a private quarrel arising in one of these three companies, over the question as to what individual or group of individuals should control its affairs, its cash, and its vast accumulation of stocks and bonds, little by little grew a public scandal. It was discovered that the trustees of these great corporations, who were chosen to manage their trusts for the benefit of the policy-holders, were in reality conducting the corporations primarily for their own financial benefit, and only secondarily for the benefit of the real owners. The Armstrong report is the first fruit of less than a year of public agitation, discussion, and inquiry, and to our mind it is a distinct demonstration that there is in America such a thing as Public Opinion, which can think clearly and express itself effectively through its legislative representatives.

Although the report is presented to the Legislature of the State of New York, it is really a document of National importance. Its masterly understanding of the details of life insurance, its clear and simple style, the dispassionate and yet direct and convincing tone in which it is written, and the constructive and practical character of the remedial legislation which it proposes, will give it permanent value as a public dcoument on a subject of vital interest to thousands of men and women. While it is radical and drastic, it is quite the opposite of socialistic in the destructive sense of that word. It is the work of those who desire to build up and strengthen, not to tear down and weaken, the achievements and prestige of American financiers. Whatever honest criticism may be made upon the details of the Committee's recommendations, for its work as a whole there is nothing but praise. Its Chairman, Senator Armstrong, and its chief counsel, Mr. Charles E. Hughes, deserve the National reputation which they have won for ability, persistency, and singlemindedness in pursuing an impartial investigation in the face of extraordinary technical difficulties. Their work was carried on, moreover, counter to the prejudices and influence of powerful corporations, and the personal pressure brought to bear by unscrupulous and selfish capitalists and politicians. Nobody will ever know, probably, how really terrific the pressure of this kind was, but it is easy to imagine it. The report, therefore,

not only reflects the ability and skill of Mr. Hughes, Senator Armstrong, and the Committee, but redounds to their honor.

On another page we give in some detail the recommendations of the Committee for the legislative remedy of insurance abuses. These remedies are grouped under sixteen heads, and as they are proposed for the consideration and debate of the Legislature, it follows that they are not to be accepted by the public without careful consideration and discussion. Some of them, however, it appears to us, ought to be taken without controversy as the foundation for any just and effective legislation. Nothing is insurance which does not really insure. It is a truism, therefore, that security for the policy-holder must be sought for and maintained, first, last, and all the time. Such security depends, it seems to us—

I. Upon publicity. The uncovering of financial abuses and mismanagement during the past year in the insurance field is due to publicity. It is true that this publicity sprang from private initiative. Legislation ought to provide that hereafter it shall spring from public initiative. The Committee recommends under this head a much more thorough and comprehensive system of stating annually the assets and liabilities of insurance companies, their commissions, expenses for legislation and other legal work, salaries, death claims, profits and losses, and investments in bonds or real estate or other securities. Upon the method by which a thorough and plain public knowledge of the affairs of their company may be obtained by the policy-holders depends, it seems to us, the efficiency of all other reforms.

II. Next in importance to the provision for publicity comes the provision for mutualization. Some means must be found by which the policy-holder may have an influential if not a dominant voice in the management of his company. The Armstrong Committee recognizes this by providing a plan for an effective ballot protected in such a way that each policy-holder may vote for the board of directors. The Committee does not appear definitely to discountenance stock life insurance companies, but it does

unquestionably favor the mutual plan and the empowering of policy-holders to elect their own directors. It has been objected that if policy-holders have this right they will not exercise it; but a man who can be persuaded of the value of life insurance and the necessity of paying an annual premium can also be persuaded of the necessity of casting an annual ballot to protect his accumulated premiums.

III. If insurance management can be reformed by upright legislative enactments, it can be corrupted and destroyed by purchasable legislative action. The next step, therefore, after assuring publicity and mutual control, is to prohibit by criminal statutes both the payment of campaign contributions and the maintenance of paid and irresponsible lobbyists. The Committee's recommendations in this regard need simply to be stated in order to be adopted without further discussion.

IV. The foregoing reforms will become dead letters unless the State Superintendent of Insurance is not only an honest man, but a man of strong enough character to resist the personal pressure which great corporations can always bring to bear upon such an official. Legislative steps should be taken to strengthen both the system and the personnel of the State Insurance Department. Whether the Superintendent of Insurance should be an appointed or an elective officer is a question for debate, but that he should be a responsible officer is undebatable. For, as the Armstrong report expressly says of the State Insurance Department, "most of the evils which have been disclosed by the investigation would have been impossible had there been a vigorous performance of the duties already laid upon the department, a vigilant watchfulness in the interest of policyholders, and a courageous exercise of the powers which the statute confers."

If the recommendations made to the Legislature under the four heads which we have outlined are adopted, the basis will be laid for a far-reaching and muchneeded reform of our insurance system. The other recommendations of the Committee are fair subjects for discussion which cannot be entered upon here at

the present time. They involve investments, limitation of business and expenditures, rebates, and the distribution of These we propose to consider surplus. hereafter.

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After all, the vital thing is to remember that legislation never made an honest man, as it has never made a temperate man. Statutes, laws, and prohibitions may check dishonesty and protect the victims of thieves, embezzlers, and grafters, but it cannot create honor, unselfishness, and scrupulous regard for the rights and advantages of others. A righteous education that makes every man feel that stock-jobbing, railroad-grabbing, corporation-looting, and the selling of valueless securities to unsuspicious purchasers is as mean and contemptible as cruelty to children is the only means by which the country may rid itself permanently of the types of financiers and politicians whose corruption and dishonor are recorded in the Armstrong report.

The Supreme Court on Railway Regulation

When the United States Supreme Court reached, by the narrow majority of five to four, a decision in the Northern Securities case, The Outlook expressed, respecting its decision, the following judgment: "In our opinion, the chief value of the Supreme Court decision in the Northern Securities case is not that it prevents the consolidation of two competing railways, but that it paves the way to Governmental regulation of those railways after they shall have been consolidated; not that it cures a particular abuse of corporation powers, but that it establishes more firmly than ever the sound political and industrial doctrine that corporations deriving their existence from the hands of the people must submit to regulation by the people "(March 26, 1904, p. 727). This judgment is equally applicable to the decision of the Supreme Court rendered with unanimity last week in the case of the Inter-State Commerce Commission against the Chesapeake and Ohio Railway Company. That Company agreed to deliver at New Haven 60,000 tons of coal at an aggregate cost which, after deducting the market price of the coal at the mines and the cost of transportation from Newport News to Connecticut, would leave the Chesapeake and Ohio Railway only about 28 cents a ton for carrying the coal to Newport News, while the published tariff was \$1.45 per ton. suit was brought by the Inter-State Commerce Commission to enjoin the carrying out of this contract. The answer of the railway company was in effect that it charged the full rate for transportation, and sold the coal at less than market rates; indeed, at a price which involved a loss, and that special circumstances justified it in so doing. Thus the question before the Supreme Court of the United States was, as stated by Mr. Justice White in delivering the opinion of the Court, this: "Has a carrier engaged in inter-State commerce the power to contract to sell, and transport in completion of the contract the commodity sold, when the price stipulated in the contract does not pay the cost of purchase, the cost of delivery, and the published freight rates?" In deciding this question the Court reaffirms the Constitutional power of Congress to regulate inter-State commerce, subject only to expressed or implied limitations on the power of Congress by other clauses of the Constitution. In other words, it puts an effective end to the claim that has been made that this Congressional authority is a special and limited, not a general and unlimited, authority. Thus, to repeat what we said in 1904, the Supreme Court "establishes more firmly than ever the sound political and industrial doctrine that corporations deriving their existence from the hands of the people must submit to regulation by the people."

Not less important is the further virtual decision of the Supreme Court that a common carrier cannot be both a dealer and a carrier, and, by fixing a special price upon the goods which it carries, in effect underbid other owners of similar goods who are dependent upon the railway for the transportation of their products to the market. To allow this, says the Court, would allow the carrier to render the prohibitions of the Inter-State Commerce Commission ineffective. "The existence of such a power would enable a carrier, if it chose to do so, to select the favored persons from whom he would buy and the favored persons to whom he would sell. thus giving such persons an advantage over every other, and leading to a monopolization in the hands of such persons of all the products as to which the carrier chose to deal." It is not necessary that there should be an explicit provision of the law prohibiting the carrier from becoming a dealer. "Because no express prohibition against a carrier who engages in inter-State commerce becoming a dealer in commodities moving in such commerce is found in the act, it does not follow that the provisions which are expressed in that act should not be applied and be given their lawful effect." The illegality of the carrier acting also as a dealer grows out of the fact that, if he does thus act both as carrier and dealer, the provision of equable and just rates of transportation is practically made inoperative. It is interesting to note that the Supreme Court quotes in support of this principle a decision of an English court, based upon, not statutory enactment, but upon common-law principles. In the case of the Attorney-General vs. The Great Northern Railway Company, Vice-Chancellor Kindersley decided that dealing in coal by the railway company was illegal because incompatible with its duties as a public carrier and calculated to inflict an injury upon the public, and therefore the Act of Parliament granting the charter to operate the railway implied a prohibition against the company's engaging in any other business.

It is always perilous in interpreting the decision of a court to make applications of the principle involved other than those which are made by the court itself. All that the Supreme Court has decided in this case is that a railway corporation possessing general railway powers under its charter has not a right to engage in the sale of goods as well as in their transportation. It has not decided that legislation may not confer this power to exercise a double function upon either a dealer or a railway, nor that this power has not in some cases been so conferred.

But it has decided that such power is not to be implied, and, on the contrary, that without some express provision such combination of functions is illegal, not because it violates an express provision of the statute, but because it is against public policy. It would seem, therefore, clear that the Beef Trust cannot act as a transportation company; that a coal company cannot be combined with a railway company, the same corporation mining and selling the coal and furnishing the transportation; and since the illegality of such a combination depends. not upon any express provisions of the Inter-State Commerce Law, but upon the principles of the common law, and specifically upon the rights and duties of the common carrier, it would appear to be equally applicable to State and inter-State commerce. Of course it is always possible for the same men to form two separate corporations and conduct the two operations of selling goods and transporting goods under the guise of separate organizations; but it is also true that it is a great gain to the public to have the illegality of such combinations explicitly confirmed by the highest tribunal in the land, and although temporary evasions of the law are always possible, ultimate prevention and punishment of such evasion is always possible.

It is true that the Court recognizes the fact that fifteen years ago the Inter-State Commerce Commission decided that railways possessing explicit legislative authority to mine coal could not be denied that power, and intimated that this decision and the continued practice under it constitute a precedent of possibly binding authority. But it is not clear that the Supreme Court regards it as binding except as against the Inter-State Commerce Commission, or as preventing legislative enactment-Federal or State, or both—prohibiting, in such cases, the continued exercise of trading functions by a common carrier. opinion of The Outlook, no decision of the Supreme Court, except possibly the decisions in the so-called Colonial caseswhich established the right of Congress to govern our insular possessionshas been of as far-reaching importance

as this decision in the case of the Inter-State Commerce Commission against the Chesapeake and Ohio Railway Company.

Ash Wednesday

Once more the thought of the Christian world turns to the figure of the Christ in the solitude of the desert, meeting those temptations which were to test his strength, clear to his own consciousness the mission on which he came, and, through struggle, suffering, and victory, to clothe him with power as with an invisible garment. The lessons of the Lenten season strike with a new and impressive force on the conscience of a country which has suddenly awakened to its own lack of rectitude, and of a people to whom there has come, on a great scale, a conviction of sin. In the midst of an almost unexampled prosperity, fields yielding as perhaps they have never yielded before, mines contributing on a colossal scale to the wealth of the country, the channels of business choked by its volume, a great increase of comfort and an immense advance of luxury, a piling up of wealth which would have been incredible even thirty years ago—in the very heart of this material prosperity suddenly there has sounded the voice of one crying in the wilderness, and while the feast is at its height again the invisible hand that has so often recorded the doom of nations and of men has written on the wall. Other days have seemed more fortunate because less disturbed; but in the truest sense of the word there can come no greater prosperity to a people than the awakening of its con-Americans are not worse than the men of other nations; on the contrary, the standards of personal purity, of family integrity, and of individual honesty are perhaps higher, taking the whole people, than anywhere else in the world. It must not be forgotten that no nation has ever been so tempted by the things which minister to the senses, that to no other nation have ever come such opportunities of rapid accumulation of wealth, into the hands of no other people have ever been committed such colossal fortunes. That human nature has succumbed to the pressure of these appeals is not surprising; and they who sit in judgment must beware lest in passing sentence they reveal, not a penetrating insight, but a fundamental lack of a real knowledge of conditions.

Nevertheless, after all explanations have been made and every defense put in, it is a sad but most healthful experience through which Americans are passing. There have been few disclosures of calculated villainy, few colossal defaults, few infractions of the primary laws of life; but there have come to light widespread stupefying of the conscience, a confusion of moral ideas, and an acquiescence in evil conditions so general that, while great success has come to individuals, something very like failure threatens the Nation. Americans have insensibly drifted into the position in which they seem to regard their government as a colossal opportunity for making money; and the business and the government of the country are now so interwoven that nothing can save the government to its great uses and conserve the ideals of the Nation except radical severance of these two interests. The men who are trying to drive business out of public life, and to establish before the law the equal rights of all men, find themselves confronted, not simply by political bosses and corrupt politicians, but by men of the highest commercial standing. The most tragic aspect of recent events has been the fact that the prime offenders have been men whom communities have looked upon as incarnations of integrity as well as possessors of business genius.

A nation in sackcloth and ashes would disturb the conventional judgments of the world, but would attain its highest dignity. No concealment nor evasion, but searching revelation and heartfelt confession, are needed, and are fortunately common among Americans. We are only at the beginning of a revival of religion which is to express itself in a revival of personal righteousness. In every direction the movement gathers headway; out of the confusion higher standards are defining themselves; out of discouragement and abasement new possibilities of public service are reveal-

ing themselves. The pitiful tragedy of wealth gained without honor has opened the eyes of young men especially to the emptiness of mere material success; never in the history of the Nation has there been such a series of conspicuous failures brought to light as during the past twelve months. It is time for self-searching, for confession, for humility, for silence, and for prayer.

Open the Doors

One of the most striking and fruitful of modern discoveries in medicine is the restorative power of fresh air; and the out-of-doors cure is now widely adopted for a great variety of diseases. What medicine cannot do fresh air does with rapid and astonishing effectiveness. This is another step, not in the direction of the discovery of remedies, but of a rational and normal way of life; it is as a preventive of disease even more than as a healing agent that out-of-door living assumes increasing importance in the experience of men. There is no doubt that the scourge of tuberculosis, which is a plague far more destructive than cholera or yellow fever, and nervous troubles of all kinds which sap the vitality, pervert the judgment, and blur the joy of life for multitudes of men and women, have their source or occasion chiefly in living too much indoors and breathing the vitiated air of close, overheated Simply to throw the windows open is to invite health to come in, and to go out-of-doors and live is to take health by the hand. "Give me health and a day," said Emerson, "and I will make the pomp of emperors ridiculous."

Dr. Johnson once declared that a sick man is a rascal. The world has been well served by sick men, and their fortitude, resolution, and mastery of pain have written some of the most inspiring chapters in the history of human achievement. There is no doubt, on the other hand, that much of the crime in the world is due to disease; that half the misery has its root in physical infirmities; and that to the same cause is due a vast number of harsh judgments, false and depressing views of life, misconceptions of motives,

and morbid wretchedness. Health is not a luxury; it is a duty. He who lives with reckless disregard of the conditions essential to health invites disease and may, in the end, incur the guilt of suicide. Parting company with nature in over-eagerness to make a fortune or a reputation involves not only the loss of one of the great resources of life, but a diminution of the vital energy and, in many cases, the premature ending of life itself.

If living out-of-doors is essential to physical health, it is even more essential to moral health. A vast amount of the moral illness in the world is caused by too much indoor life; by keeping too much within ourselves, walking endlessly around the little circle of our own experience, questioning our own motives. trying to settle the problems of the universe from our own individual standpoint, and treating our personal conditions as if they were the general conditions under which all men live. These and a thousand other forms the disease of egoism takes on, and disqualifies men and women not only from exercising sound judgment and seeing things as they are, but from winning contentment. happiness, and sanity. The man who is perplexed by questions about his own fitness to discharge a duty or perform a task cannot solve it by thinking about it; let him set his hand to the work, put his strength in it, and he will soon discover whether he has blundered or not. And a multitude of people who are allowing their thoughts to brood continuously over their own misfortunes would find a great lifting of the weight if they would get out of themselves. quickest and most effective way of helping one's self is to help somebody else. When the invisible house in which every man lives begins to darken, open the windows, set the doors wide, and escape at once into the great world. The remedy for egoism is a greater interest in the affairs, fortunes, and happiness of some one else. The world is full of opportunities for getting out-of-doors and escaping from the prison-house of our own experience; to take the sting out of your personal misfortunes, share the misfortunes of others.

The Spectator

The penny point in character may be studied to advantage on the street-cars. The Spectator is always interested in his neighbors on the trolley or the elevated; they reveal themselves and human nature at large in many ways; just now the Spectator is holding the penny point of character in mental suspension. A woman carrying a net shopping-bag containing bulky manila envelopes entered a cross-town car and took the seat beside the Spectator. She was middle-aged, brisk, and wholesome-looking, with a mingling of the domestic, business, and professional air. The Spectator was attracted by the humor and kindliness of her countenance. His eve caught the top line of a memorandum showing through the net, "Consult at Lenox The conductor paused Library—" before her. She handed him a dime, saying, "Transfer to Fourth Avenue, please." He handed her five pennies. "Haven't you a nickel?" she asked. "Lady, somebody's got to take the pennies." She held her open purse under his eyes; it held five pennies. "You see I could have paid you in pennies. I wouldn't mind taking pennies, but I should have to pay them to a conductor on my return trip." "Nobody wants pennies, lady, but I got to get rid of 'em somehow." "Well, give them to somebody else. Let me have my dime and I will pay you exact fare in these five pennies." He handed her a nickel, less in anger than in sorrow. The whole car was smiling; from personal experience everybody appreciated the situation. The woman's eyes twinkled as she met the eyes of the Spectator. "A conductor gave me five pennies last night," she said, "and I had not time to provide myself with more change this morning. I suppose I look amiable. I get pennies very frequently. And I never said a word before because I know conductors have their trials about pennies. I receive pennies as helping my fellow-man carry his burden. Somebody's got to carry the pennies—maximum weight with minimum value." "Fourth Avenue!" called the conductor. As she went out she said, with laughing

eyes, to him, "I am very sorry I had to make you take back those pennies. I'll come better prepared next time." "Pennies ain't no laughin' matter, lady. Some folks are glad to give 'em to you because you don't want 'em. But you ain't that kind," he observed, with clearer meaning than grammar.

(49)

Waiting for a car near the Broadway car-shed, the Spectator mentioned pennies to the starter. "Here's a gentleman wants to know about pennies," the starter said to a group of conductors. They thrust their hands into their pock-"Want any for change, mister?" The light died out of their eyes when they learned that information only was "What do we do with the pennies? Pass 'em on. Everybody delighted to get 'em; say pennies is just what they've been wanting all their lives. We give 'em mostly to women and colored people—that's the kind gives 'em mostly to us." "On some lines, during hours when the leisure class travel, few pennies are received or given. The ladies that carry the pretty gold and silver purses don't hand out pennies," said the starter. "We wish the public knew how we respect people who hand us exact fares in silver," one conductor observed. "We try to be polite and careful, to exercise discretion and judgment." "I won't give five pennies flatthat is, if anybody gives me a dime I won't hand 'em back five pennies. a quarter, I work out five pennies on that. You see, mister, there are people who save up pennies to give conductors. They think it's more economical to pay their fares in pennies." "It ain't easy for some people—working-girls who go early in the morning—to turn their pennies into silver for us," one of a just mind hastened to state.

8

"I pay pennies—when I must pay pennies—to the elevated," a school-girl confided to the Spectator. "The man at the window doesn't have to carry pennies round in his pockets. I think it's real mean to pay pennies to a surface-car conductor. Because people say women always pay pennies, I never pay pennies if I can help it." "I never pay

pennies," the business woman asserts; "business women never pay pennics. But it jars me to hand out a quarter and get twenty pennies back, as sometimes happens." "Do you know," said the Spectator to the school-girl, "that the real trouble for the surface conductor and the man at the window is that their companies will not receive pennies from them?" "Oh, no, I never knew that. How mean of the companies!" "No, not exactly. As the public gives, the public must take. If a company received pennies, it would have to employ an extra force to count them, and that would not pay." "Well," said the school-girl philosopher, "when you come to the truth of it, nobody seems to be to blame for anything that goes wrong. Ignorance is at the bottom of the wrong things."

6

The Spectator paused before the window of the Fourteenth Street elevated station. "Do you take in many pennies?" "I take in over two hundred dollars daily at this window; over ten dollars in pennies." "How do you dispose of the pennies?" "That's easy," interrupted a woman who was asking for a fare; "he gives them to women," and carried off her portion. "Return 'em to the public," said the man at the win-"The public doesn't like to take as good as it gives. Why, you wouldn't believe it! folks sometimes throw pennies back at me." "Who gives most pennies?" "Women-seem to think traveling's cheaper if they pay for it in pennies. Women save up pennies to pay fares with. Pennies are legal tender up to twenty; I can give and must accept that many. To-day a woman offered twenty-five for five tickets and I accepted them; we avoid unpleasantness in serving the public as far as we can. I wish the public realized how much better it would be all around if exact fares were offered during rush hours; while you're making change for people who have time to wait for it, a business man or woman misses his or her train."

(♣)

A little man with silvering hair and a benevolent face dispensed light on penny points from a station window higher uptown. "It makes people mad to take pennies," he said, sadly; "it works hard feelings." "Who pays you most in pennies?" He came up gallantly: "Both sexes. I do my best not to pay back." He held an envelope to view. "I have fifty pennies in that. When I go to lunch, I pass a stall where milk and coffee are sold at odd cents a glass or cup; they take fifty pennies off me daily. Most of us have devices for working off pennies." "Pennies would not be paid if people knew how much trouble they make," the Spectator sympathized. The little man shook his amiable head: "Oh, I don't know. If you stood at this window all the time, you'd lose faith in human nature." "All along of pennies?" "All along of pennies. Why, a man will give me a dime and I'll push him a ticket and five pennies; he'll push the pennies back and say, 'Another ticket, please,' and walk off looking as if he were proud of himself for getting Yesterday a young the best of me. woman handed me a quarter. I shoved her a ticket, a dime, and ten pennies wouldn't have done it but I was hard pressed and knew she was going right down to the stores. Before I thought she had so much as caught sight of the pennies, she exclaimed: 'Oh, I believe I've given you my counterfeit quarter that I keep as a sort of keepsake. Let me have it back!' I shoved back the quarter I thought was hers fast enough. She hardly looked at it, shoved five pennies under my nose, and walked off with her head in the air. Oh, human nature is full of twists and turns, as you'd learn if you stood for years at this window." "Perhaps fewer people will offer you pennies and more will accept them pleasantly of you hereafter," said the Spectator, optimistically; "people when told of their mistakes usually correct them." "Who's to tell them?" "I As the Spectator walked off he thought he heard the little man murmur solicitously, "Maybe he has hallucinations about pennies; lost his mind thinking about pennies. Pennies are mighty little things, but they show you some mighty big things about people,"

THE AMERICAN FOREIGN SERVICE

BY HUNTINGTON WILSON

Secretary of Legation of the United States at Tokyo

THERE is evident a growing sentiment among Americans in favor of reorganizing and improving the foreign service, diplomatic and consular, and placing it upon a stable basis. Indeed, this feeling has become so general and so strong that but for our extreme conservatism something would have been done in that direction before the present time.

The diplomatic service is the machinery by which the relations of our Government with other Governments are It is the spokesman of our carried on. policies in the council of the nations; the channel through which flows peace or war. It is the eyes and ears of our Government in our foreign affairs; and it is the every-day means of attending to our rights and obligations towards other Governments and peoples. A hermit nation needs no diplomacy; but once a nation abandons isolation, the efficiency of its diplomacy is a matter of serious concern to every citizen.

The consular service is the machinery for carrying on, improving, and increasing foreign commerce. First, there is an enormous amount of routine business. For all goods imported into the United States invoices must be authenticated at our consulates at the ports of export or places of original shipment. Consulates are the custodians of the ship's papers of American vessels while at ports within their districts. They discharge sailors, assist destitute or sick seamen, adjust difficulties between ships' captains and their crews, and generally extend the control of the home Government over the merchant marine in foreign ports. Marriages of Americans in foreign countries must be witnessed by the Consul. Deceased Americans' estates in foreign lands are, to a degree varying in different countries, under consular protection. Deeds, powers of attorney, protests, affidavits, patent applications, and other instruments executed abroad to be effective in the United States, are attested at the consulates. Such are the ordinary administrative and notarial consular duties. In those countries where extraterritoriality is in force the consular officers exercise a much wider administrative function. There the American Consular Court is the only forum in which an American can be pursued by civil or criminal law.

After giving some idea of the variety and responsibility of the consular function, we come to what is to-day the allimportant object of that service. That is, the extension and increase of American business by opening up, widening, and developing fields for our export A consular district generally comprises all that part of the country in which a given consulate is situated which is nearer to it than to any other American consulate. It is the duty of the consul to make a deep and special study of the industrial and mercantile conditions existing in his district. He must know what the country needs or would take in raw materials, in commodities, and in manufactured articles. He should learn how these needs are being supplied, with particular attention to those of them which the American producer-farmer, miner, manufacturer, or merchant—might supply. He should investigate and report as to whether the American import could not, by a change in form or a variation in manufacture, by a different method of packing, by more convenient accommodation in payment, or in any other way, be brought into greater demand and American trade be thus increased.

Each consular district may reveal a peculiar phase of the general import

possibilities of a country. Hence, general reports are made by an official who looks over the field as a whole. These reports are made at consulatesgeneral, and sometimes also at embassies and legations. Of course the capital of a country affords the best facilities for obtaining from official sources information bearing on trade. Also, in some countries government contracts are an important item in the competition for import orders. Therefore it may be wise for us, as some European Governments have done, to appoint commercial attachés to some of our embassies and legations.

Our consular service, then, exists to facilitate and promote the material and personal interests of the American people in foreign countries. Our diplomatic service adds a care for these same interests to its duty to protect and further America's political interests in the world.

The Department of State is charged with the duty of making the diplomatic and consular services of the greatest possible use to the Government and people. It is not generally realized how large a number of officers the State Department has under it in the service abroad, nor how vast and varied is the volume of its business. It has a personnel smaller and more poorly paid than that of the Foreign Office of Great Britain; but, besides being the American Foreign Office, it has a number of other duties superadded. The Secretary of State is keeper of the seal of the United He publishes the Federal laws of the land. Contentious matters between foreigners and the State sovereignties of the Union at times give rise to questions between those governments and the governments of foreign countries. All these have to be settled by elaborate domestic correspondence between the State Department and the Governors of our States, other departments, and various officials. So that functions corresponding in other countries to such offices as Keeper of the Seal, Chancellor of the Empire, etc., devolve upon the one Department. What with our new colonial possessions, it seems likely that the scope of the State Department's work may before long be still further extended. Yet the Department of State has a very small personnel and very small appropriations. The wonder is how its handful of officials acquit themselves so well in grappling with so enormous a volume of business. Certainly high praise is due them.

The fact is that all three components of the foreign service, that is, the Department of State and the diplomatic and consular services under it, were founded long ago on a small scale, just after our emergence from colonial days. They can never catch up with the country's present needs unless the will of the people express itself through Congress in the form of the required legislation, and Congress take a deeper interest in the work of the foreign service.

This brings me to one of the most distressing difficulties of our system. I refer to the lack of any constituted channel of communication for keeping Congress and the foreign service in sympathetic touch and effective co-operation. In other countries this undoubted need is supplied by a parliamentary secretary; or the Minister for Foreign Affairs speaks on the floor of the House. With us there are the President's occasional messages. Congress sometimes calls for correspondence when some question has become acute. Or, suppose a Senator or a Representative or an official of the State Department to be greatly interested in a piece of legislation touching foreign affairs, or in a treaty to be negotiated; he may by personal effort have a number of conversations which will greatly help both the Senate or Congress and the Department. But there is no sufficiently continuous keeping in touch between the Senate, the House, their committees. and the State Department; and the matter is too important not to be thoroughly provided for. Why should not an Assistant Secretary of State be charged with this duty?

Because of the heterogeneity of its business and the numerical inadequacy of its personnel, the State Department has been irreverently compared to the former Chinese Tsungli-Yamen. Our diplomatic and consular services have been, with less irreverence and more truth, called the "catch-as-catch-can sys-

tem." There is enough truth in this pessimism to suggest that there is much room for improvement, and that the time is ripe and the way open for framing and putting into operation an ideal foreign service.

The Department needs a larger personnel to do its great intellectual work, and a more logical division of work. present, in the Diplomatic Bureau the countries of the earth are apportioned for working purposes alphabetically. Yet it cannot be said that a knowledge of Cuba and Costa Rica is particularly useful to the men who must study the intricacies of Chinese policy. The Diplomatic Bureau should be divided into sections on some politico-geographical basis of reason. Several new bureaus and sections should be added. And, as said before, some official should be charged with keeping the Department in touch with the whole Congress on legislation respecting foreign affairs, and with the Senate on treaty matters.

The reform of first necessity is the extinction of the "spoils system" in filling offices in the foreign service. Here civil service is absolutely indispensable; but the application of it requires very careful working out.

Inefficiency in the foreign service may be divided, according to cause, into two classes. The first is inefficiency due to lack of natural qualifications, to inadequate professional education, and to want of experience. These are the vices of our unsystematized service. The zeal of a man trying to do a difficult thing quite new to him is sometimes its saving grace. The second is inefficiency arising from apathy and indifference. is the vice of a thoroughgoing, closed civil service. Our problem is how to get the natural qualifications, the special education, and the experience, and at the same time to inspire zeal in the service.

Examinations will insure the special knowledge, a permanent service will supply the experience, promotion for meritorious work will secure the zeal. How are we to obtain the best men? Every college man knows that the men who pass the highest examinations are by no means always the ablest men in

the class. Especially in diplomacy, a number of very intangible qualities are wanted. Tact, address, quick perception, an analytical mind, balance, and self-control are some of the natural qualities a good diplomatist has. These should therefore be sought in the young candidates for the service, and obviously they cannot be detected by a written examination.

A famous Russian Minister for Foreign Affairs emphasized the indubitable importance of this personal element. It was his custom to have all the candidates who had successfully passed the diplomatic service examination call upon him next day. He then selected from among them the candidates to put into the service; and he is recorded as saying that his decision was based rather upon the impression each candidate personally made on him during the call than upon the relative merits of their examination papers.

Why should not the Secretary of State, perhaps assisted by a small board, select from among the successful candidates those to be put into the service after the examinations each year—the choice to be made after an informal and verbal examination of the men who had successfully passed the main written one?

Now that the days of the telegraph have made the envoy rather his Government's spokesman and advocate than its plenipotentiary statesman, some people too greatly minimize his duties. Surely it behooves us, as a practical people, to have for our Government the best possible spokesmen and advocates. In private life his personal abilities leave one advocate in the law to starve, while another's bring him a huge income. Success or failure in the Government's foreign affairs depends enormously much more than people realize—upon the skill or the bungling of the Government's advocates abroad. And these are its diplomatic representatives.

For efficiency in a consular officer the personal factor presents somewhat fewer difficulties, yet it is questionable whether an examination should be the sole criterion for the admission of men eligible to all grades. Although the two services have a number of things in common;

and what is true of the one is often to some extent true of the other, what next follows applies particularly to the diplomatic branch.

A charge which may be brought against an organized foreign service in which men spend their lives, except for occasional leaves of absence in going from post to post in foreign countries, is that they sometimes lose touch with the ideas of their own country. They are too long away from home. There is, however, a ready means of removing this danger.

The successful candidates for the service should first pass a year or more as clerks in the State Department, learning, from the big end, the practical work of their profession. These young men would be distributed in the bureaus and sections where the work would teach them most about their future duties, whether consular or diplomatic, and would be required to familiarize themselves with the general work of the Department.

Next, these clerks would be sent abroad to serve as attachés at embassies or legations, or as clerks in consulates, this depending upon which service they had been examined for and entered. Later, they would be transferred from one post to another, and, if they did good work, gradually promoted. In their respective services they would become third secretaries of embassy or legation, second secretaries, secretaries, and so on; and, in the consular service, higher grades of clerks, consular agents, vice and deputy consuls, consuls, consuls-general.

In connection with the regular diplomatic and consular service examinations there should be examinations for positions as student interpreters. A few years ago student interpreters were attached to our legation at Peking, and that was an admirable innovation. should be extended, however, at least to our legation in Japan, and perhaps also to that in Turkey. The written language is practically the same in China, Japan, and Korea. These student interpreters, after an apprenticeship in the State Department, would be sent out and attached to the legations in the Ear East. There they would spend several years in mastering the difficulties of the Oriental languages. After that they would be prepared to join the staffs of the consulates in China, Japan, and Korea as clerks, and so enter on a career in the Oriental consular service. The interpreters of our legations and their assistants would also be drawn from this body.

Now we come to the above-mentioned safeguard against a tendency to what may be loosely called expatriation. The plan which follows is most of all desirable because of the great benefits it carries with it.

It is difficult to gainsay that a man can do better work in the service abroad if he has first served in the Department. at Washington. It also seems evident that it would be useful to have in the Department men who had made recent special studies of the political and trade conditions in various foreign countries. The suggestion, then, is that a mobility and interchange of posts be established, to a certain extent, between the Department of State and the diplomatic service, and perhaps also, in certain bureaus and sections, between the Department and the consular service. A parity of grade could be fixed between the posts in the Department and the posts abroad. For example, the different grades of clerks. the chiefs of section, the chiefs of bureau. and the assistant secretaries might correspond to attachés, to grades of secretaries of embassy or legation, to ministers resident, and to ministers plenipotentiary. A limited shifting between the two ends of the service could be ordered from time to time by the Secretary of State. Among other things, this system would give to the heads of the service a more intimate knowledge of the abilities of their personnel; and it is safe to say that in the long run it would be of great use to the Department and benefit to the diplomatic service.

Fairly frequent shifting between posts abroad is also desirable, and transfers should as far as possible invariably accompany promotions. For considerations which, if somewhat abstruse, are none the less cogent, it is best that a secretary should be transferred when promoted rather than be promoted to be minister at the same post. The two

official characters of minister and secretary, and the subtle relations attaching to them, are different. Each position occupies a certain place in the mind of the local official circle; and these associations are not to be suddenly thrown off or assumed. An important reason why three or four years is generally long enough to leave a man at the same post is that he almost inevitably becomes somewhat "stale." His observation becomes less keen. Also, at difficult posts an energetic representative is not unlikely to wear out his welcome and so lose much of his usefulness. Furthermore. frequent transfer gives wider experience and so increases efficiency. With this system each official would be commissioned by the President in a particular grade, and the Secretary of State would designate, from time to time, the post he should fill. From every point of view, a more mobile diplomatic service, including limited interchange to the State Department, has much to recommend it.

A closed service, in which a man has only to live in order to be steadily promoted and finally retired with a pension, tends to induce apathy. What we want is a service in which every man who gives his best years and energies to the work will be sure of a life career, and, at the end of his career, a pension. Only those who do signally fine work should expect to be rewarded with ultimate promotion to the highest grades. In this way justice is meted to faithful service and a reward is in store for brilliant service.

The best pension system would probably be to make retirement optional after, say, twenty-five years' service, with a pension computed on the salary of the grade from which the officer retired. The pension could be increased proportionally to the excess of the period of service rendered over twenty-five years. In private life it is deemed a hard lot when a man who has given the best twenty-five or thirty years of his life to a business or profession cannot have accumulated enough to support him during his declining years. And if the foreign service is to have the good men it needs, their livelihood must not be made too precarious.

Nor would it be necessary to have an absolutely closed service. There is every reason why, with an organized service, the President should still have the power to appoint an ambassador or Minister from outside the diplomatic service. The pre-eminent talents and conspicuous fitness of some countryman of ours, or the special nature of some mission to be carried out, may at times point unmistakably to such a selection.

Our ambassadors and ministers receive relatively small pay and no allowances worth mentioning, and are not provided with houses. Their colleagues representing other Powers receive generally better pay, besides funds for the costly and necessary outlays for "representation," and permanent buildings owned by their governments, in which to reside during their missions. truly democratic American should be shocked to realize that, because of our penury in this matter, only very rich men can possibly uphold the dignity of the United States at certain capitals. The very undemocratic result is that men of moderate fortune, however talented, cannot be appointed to, nor could they afford to accept, those posts.

American travelers are constantly chagrined to find their legations and consulates abroad housed in a haphazard manner, comparing very unfavorably with those of other countries. Our Government owns legation buildings only at Tokyo, Peking, Seoul, and Bangkok. The ownership of these was practically forced upon us by the peculiar conditions existing in those countries. Similarly, we possess a few rather inferior consular premises. Let us see what other countries do-countries which place importance on foreign policy and its corollary, foreign commerce, as, for example, Germany and Great Britain. In every capital, in every port or commercial center, they aim to have the eye met by an embassy or legation or a consulate substantial, permanent, and architecturally good—which stands in a foreign land as a reminder of the dignity, the strength, and the enterprise of the country whose flag flies over it. And then one finds (if, indeed, one can succeed in finding them) the American embassy

or legation, shabby or creditable, according to the purse and generosity of the representative, and the consulate sometimes a dusty second floor in some back street. Is this what the American people want?

I have outlined a number of points for a reorganization which I believe would be entirely practical and feasible, and would vastly ameliorate the service. There are many minor reforms which can hardly be taken up with any enthusiasm while the service is left in its present unsettled condition.

A number of Senators and Representatives have done hard work and have introduced bills which it was hoped would place the service on a sound footing.

But the ideal foreign service for which the way is now open needs for its accomplishment the support of an active, not passive, public opinion; and it needs the co-operation of the Senators and Representatives interested with the President and the Secretary of State, and with some of those who have studied the service from within. The foreign services of all countries must be studied and What is good must be examined. adopted, or what is better must be devised. Then will a bill be framed and passed which will give us the efficient foreign service that a great commercial world power like the United States has the right and the obligation to possess.

Tokyo, Japan, August, 1905.

THE PRINCIPLES OF MUNICIPAL OWNERSHIP

BY ROBERT DONALD

Editor of the "Municipal Year Book," etc.

MOULD a municipal corporation control the communal services of the people it represents? If so, in what manner and to what extent? Should the control be partial, by regulation, or complete, by operation? What are the chief considerations which should guide a city's action? What are the main principles upon which the system of municipal ownership rests? These and other questions have now to be considered by students of city government. The rapid growth of cities, and the still faster development of social needs in every community, create new problems and call for new methods of administration. Government is established in cities, as in States, to maintain order and to promote the well-being of the citizens; but a city or smaller urban aggregation has its own problems, brought about by the close community of interests which exists among its people. Collective action has become inevitable, and the chief municipal question of the day is, to what extent should the municipality regulate the services which are elemental necessities in every civilized community?

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City public services may be roughly divided into three main classes.

First, we have those services which are intended to maintain order and prevent crime; look after the health of the people; enforce sanitary regulations; protect the people as consumers in cases where they are not able to protect themselves, such as by checking the adulteration of food, checking weights and measures, etc. Under the same head come the police and law departments; the regulation of traffic; the management of the streets; the control of buildings; protection against fire; maintenance of parks and pleasure grounds with facilities for recreation, and the provision of education. These protective and administrative services vary in extent, according to the needs of the community and the views of the local governing authorities; but they are all duties which naturally fall on public authorities; otherwise they would either not be done at all, or only very inefficiently carried out. They are services which are maintained by taxation, not carried on for profit.

The next class of civic duties includes

services which may be made remunerative, but not necessarily with advantage to the people; such as water supply, public baths, and garbage and sewage disposal. They are services of public utility which are also necessities, and some very good reasons must be found why they should be left in the region of private trade.

The third class of services include undertakings which are not absolutely essential to every individual, but at the same time are required for the comfort and well-being of the community as a whole. These are works which are remunerative, or should be so, and are therefore considered by many economists to be outside the legitimate functions of governing authorities, and belong to the sphere of private enterprise. I refer to such undertakings as gas and electricity supplies, street railways, the provision of hydraulic power, and telephones.

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These services cannot be established without the municipality having much to do with them. They must use the public streets for mains and wires, and, in the case of tramways, for rails. They cannot carry on their work without disturbing the traffic and interfering with public convenience. Moreover, the municipality is one of the chief consumers of artificial light. These factors show that communal industries cannot be established without co-operation in some way with the local governing authorities. Another element which brings them still nearer the sphere of municipal functions is that they are, in their nature, monopolies. It is not to the advantage of the public that there should be rival competitive electricity and gas supplies in every street, and it is almost impossible to have competitive street railways. Where competitive services of these kinds have been established they have existed only for short periods. The inevitable tendency is toward consolidation, and monopolies are established. Obviously, it is in the interest of the citizens as users that there should be no wasted capital sunk in duplicating mains which are not necessary, or in establishing superfluous works, as the capital has

to bear interest or return a dividend obtained by imposing high rates and charges.

It is because these services become in the end monopolies, and are always profitable, that capitalists are so anxious to control them. We do not find that capitalists and contractors are anxious to compete for the management of the unremunerative services, such as disposal of sewage or collection of garbage. where the contract would be allotted to the one who made the highest offer, and where the opportunity of profit would be small. At one time the collection of cities' waste-garbage, refuse, streetsweepings, dust, etc.--was a profitable enterprise. In many English cities contractors were ready to collect the material and pay for it, in order to use it for brick-making. Others were ready to cart it away for filling up waste land. For many years, however, these departments of municipal housekeeping have ceased to provide the elements of profit. It is at the option of the municipality whether it will employ contractors to collect and cart its wastes, or do it by direct employment. In mediæval times every citizen was his own scavenger; but under modern conditions garbage and refuse can be economically removed only by an organized system under one authority. The object can be best attained, for many reasons, by the city keeping the work entirely in its own control. A contractor who would undertake the cleaning of the streets or the collection of garbage would always have in view the making of profit, while the main purpose to be served is efficient cleanliness. Clean streets improve the appearance and health of a city and add to its attractiveness. Experience has shown that the watering of streets, scavenging, and the collection of refuse can best be done by a department of the city service. In British cities, when scavenging and refuse collection were carried out by contractors, the employees were paid only nominal wages, and levied blackmail on householders, who were accordingly compelled to pay for the same service twice over, having done so first in their local taxes.

The advances made in the utilization

of waste in recent years enables a municipality to dispose of its garbage in many ways. There are only a few places which have waste lands in which to dump it, or which can drop it into the sea—unprofitable means of disposal. Garbage is now used on municipal farms; it is cremated, the fine dust is used for concrete-making, the clinker is crushed for road-making, and used for other purposes. The consumption of garbage in refuse destructors was soon found to create another waste product namely, heat. That heat is now utilized for various purposes, such as providing steam for disinfecting stations connected with the sanitary department, for heating water for baths, and for raising steam for electric generating stations. Having the matter in its own hands, the municipality can accumulate all the garbage from other departments, from markets, slaughter-houses, etc., and put it to the most economical advantage. For example, the city of Manchester has one central department to which are sent all house, trade, and street refuse, the garbage from the markets, and the offal and wastes from the slaughter-houses. The department owns and works two large farms, where matter of manurial value is utilized. It is a great manufacturing establishment, making soap, oil, tallow, etc. It has workshops in which it builds the railroad wagons for carrying manure to its estate; it makes vans, bricks, and implements used in the department. employs two thousand men, and its income from sales amounts to \$250,000 a year.

Glasgow gives another example of the profitable utilization of refuse and garbage by a central city department. The garbage is all sifted, some burned in destructors, refuse from which goes to making mortar or concrete. It owns farms which it has reclaimed from bogland, and sells its surplus manure to farmers in the counties surrounding Glasgow, and employs a thousand railway wagons in distributing its produce.

Under no system of contracting could the same economical disposal be possible. The chief objects of the City Council in all matters of municipal housekeeping are to combine cleanliness and efficiency with the profitable utilization of waste products. Much has yet to be done before we get the profitable deodorization of sewage, which too often now pollutes rivers; but a great deal of progress has been made in this direction by the using of sewage in connection with irrigation farms, and for other purposes.

Public baths are rarely regarded when municipally owned as commercial institutions, and if they are they fail to fill their proper function, which is to provide opportunities for healthy service and cleanliness to the poor, who have no baths in their own homes. Baths are also necessary for instructing schoolchildren in swimming. The more popular baths are made, the more useful they become, and there should be in every community a certain number of free baths for the poor and for the young. Fair charges are rightly imposed for the use of Turkish, Russian, and other special baths, now generally attached to municipal establishments.

Public wash-houses and laundries are established in the interests of the health and comfort of the poor in tenements where laundry facilities are inadequate, but are not generally necessary, as private enterprise provides adequate facilities.

Markets are among the oldest municipal institutions in the world. Fairs and markets originally occupied the public streets and had to be regulated by the governing authority. City ownership of markets provides consumers with the best and cheapest means of distributing food, curtails intermediary profits, and makes inspection to check quality and weight easy.

London is one of the few large cities which still suffers the inconvenience inseparable from the private ownership of markets. Covent Garden market, the chief distributive center for fruit and vegetables, is the property of the Duke of Bedford. Under an ancient charter, the dead hand also punishes modern London, passing down to it the private ownership of the chief East End market. Lord Portman does not consider his dignity impaired by the possession of a potato market. The meat markets in London are munici-

pal, but are limited almost entirely to wholesale business; and the same applies to the fish market, which belongs to the municipal corporation of the old city. Food is artificially increased in price by the inadequate market system and the profits of middlemen.

In Paris, on the other hand, a model market system exists, the effect of which is to distribute food cheaply among the people and to lower the difference in price between the producers and consumers. There are great central "halles" for wholesale business, and over sixty retail markets—many of them covered—for retail trade. All these markets are municipal possessions.

Slaughter-houses are akin to markets, and give a better illustration of the advantages of municipal ownership. The principles in view are not precisely the same. The chief aim of ownership in the case of slaughter-houses is the protection of the people's health. Markets are generally made self-supporting and profitable; the hygienic advantages of public slaughter-houses outweigh the commercial. Only under a system of centralized slaughter-houses can meat be properly inspected. Take London and Berlin by way of illustration and contrast. In London there are over a hundred privately owned slaughter-houses, scattered about in the midst of private dwelling-houses in buildings ill adapted for the purpose. Efficient inspection cannot be carried out, cold storage does not exist, the economical utilization of offal is impossible. Meat is conveyed about the streets from the numerous slaughter-houses in open carts. Berlin, on the other hand, there is one municipal slaughter-house for the whole of the city. A staff of trained veterinary surgeons are attached to it, who examine the animals before they are killed, and subject the meat to microscopical examination before it is offered for sale. It has to be stamped as sound before it can be put on the market; it can be conveyed only in specially built and covered meat carts; adequate cold storage is provided: all the offal and wastes are properly utilized in a way which is possible only at a large establishment.

Water supply, it is generally recognized,

should not be subject to the exigencies of profit-making for stockholders. The principle involved is nothing less than the health of the whole community; but where corporations own water supplies, as they did in London until recently, it was only when the city was threatened by a water famine that they could be dislodged, and they were only got rid of by the payment of double their capital expenditure, so that the future municipal supply has an inflated capital.

III.

I have now reviewed the attitude which advocates of municipal ownership assume towards the least industrial and commercial of communal undertakings. I will now deal with the more industrial, which raise serious contentions.

What are the principles which should guide municipal action with regard to the larger and more profitable services, including street railways, electricity and gas supplies, telephones, etc.?

The operations of these services cannot, on any intelligent principle, be left to free trade. Almost every American city has started by having several street railway corporations, and more than one electric or gas corporation; but the irresistible tendency has been for absorptions and amalgamation to take place until a monopoly has been established—a clear indication that the services come within the domain of natural monopolies. When, however, monopoly is reached through the stress of competition and the operations of graft, the undertakings are greatly overweighted with capital and burdened and drained by vested interests, progress is retarded, and cheap rates made impos-The obvious conclusion is that public lighting services which are monopolistic in character should be kept in control by the municipality. It should not allow privileges which the community creates to pass beyond its power.

There is little difference between the principles involved, whether the public service franchise is for gas, electricity, or street railways. Compensation can be granted to the city for gas supplies on two systems: a tax per cubic meter of gas sold, as in Paris and German cities, in which case the money goes to the

municipal exchequer and insures the city getting a share in the profits; or the enforcement of a sliding scale, the operation of which enables the corporation to increase its dividend as it lowers its price—a system which enables the consumer to benefit.

The same systems could be applied to electricity supply. Street railway corporations operating under franchise can be made to pay fees either through a percentage of gross receipts or in some other way.

It is quite feasible and practical for a city in various ways to grant public service franchises, but the system has drawbacks. Social interests enter very largely into the operation of all city services. It is in the interest of the community that light should be as cheap as possible to the poor, and it helps the police to have the streets well lighted. Efficient and cheap transportation has an important influence on health, and promotes well-being. Corporations which exist solely for making profits will not, as a rule, risk a fall in their dividends in order to cheapen a commodity or popularize a service. The corporations have always an eye on the end of the franchise period. They regulate their operations accordingly. They cease to introduce new methods, they neglect adequate maintenance, they allow their plant to become dilapidated; and naturally so, as the future is uncertain, and they want recoupment and profit.

From a theoretical point of view—assuming for the moment that there are no administrative difficulties—let us see how complete municipal ownership and operation would work. Take street railways. The City Council owns the railroad laid down in its own streets. It can regulate the time of construction so as to be least inconvenient to the people. The routes would be planned also in conjunction with street improvements, clearing of slums, and rehousing the poor. A corporation holding a limited franchise has no interest in the permanent development of a suburb.

The City Council would always adopt the best systems of transportation, as it will live to reap the benefit. It would have some regard to the appearance of

its cars. It would be a model employer. Fair wages would be given and reasonable hours observed. Its car conductors would be provided with neat uniforms. They would be smart and civil. municipality would study the needs of special classes. For instance, there would be cheap cars for workmen, morning and evening. There would be special services to artisan colonies in the suburbs, to parks and pleasure grounds. The citizens would be made to feel in every way that the cars were their cars, and that every cent they paid would go towards the improvement and development of their own co-operative property. A municipal car service can be made an excellent means for stimulating civic patriotism.

Then the municipal car system would dovetail into the work of other departments. The cars would be run at night to collect city garbage, market produce, etc., and the day load of electricity required for street railways would be welcomed by the city electricity department.

All these features of a municipal street railway system, which I say are possible, exist in British and Continental cities. But we can imagine a publicly owned street railway service and subways going much further. The system of transportation in a city is an essential element in its life. The better it is, the more it aids business, the more it adds to social amenities.

In some British cities the average fare is a little over one cent. It is only a step further to socialize the street railways as we have socialized the highways, bridges, and ferries (for the use of which in former years tolls were levied), and introduce free transportation—that is, free in the sense that the use of the streets, maintained out of local taxation, is free, and the use of elevators in high buildings (paid for in the rent of the rooms) is free. I only refer to the Utopia of free travel to emphasize the difference between private and municipal operation of street railways. While it is the aim of all cities of which I know to make their municipal railways self-sustaining and profitable, there are cases where a city deliberately incurs a money loss for the

sake of a social benefit. Huddersfield, a large manufacturing city in Yorkshire, established tramways because companies refused to do so, and ran them for years at a loss, for the general benefit to the The steep gradients and community. hilly streets which the cars had to climb made horse and steam traction both unprofitable, but the conformation of the site made transportation facilities all the more necessary. Electric traction has now turned the city car system into a profitable undertaking. In Cologne, Düsseldorf, and other cities, street railways are run several miles beyond their borders to municipal forests at such low fares that loss is incurred.

The same principles of social benefit arising from cheapness of service should operate in the case of electricity and gas supplies. Both services under municipal ownership can be managed on parallel lines by different committees. Under the Scottish municipal code, municipalities are precluded from making profit. The surplus is devoted to reducing charges and improving the services. This system is not yet general, as municipalities prefer to manage their undertakings so as to give a commercial instead of or in addition to a social profit. A commercial profit means that the surplus left after meeting all payments for maintenance, depreciation, interest, redemption charges, etc., is handed over to the relief of local taxation—thus benefiting all taxpayers. When the other system is adopted, the benefit in the form of a cheaper service is confined to con-The contrast between the two sumers. systems is most striking in the case of street railways in London. In the wealthy and crowded financial center of London and in the rich West End districts tramways are not permitted, yet the rich taxpayers in these areas get a share of relief which comes from the pennies of the poor who use the tramways in other quarters of the metropolis.

Hundreds of municipalities in Great Britain and in Continental Europe own and manage efficiently both gas and electricity undertakings. One necessary condition for cheapness of production is for the municipality to supply all the city, and not merely produce gas or generate electricity for its own requirements. It is economically wasteful, for instance, for the city of Chicago to distribute electricity all over the city only to light the street lamps.

In Continental Europe the franchise system has existed both as regards gas and electricity, although it is now being discontinued. It did not give low charges and did not make for efficiency. The sole object of the concessionary corporation is to reap the richest harvest it can during the period of the franchise, without regard to the future of the undertaking or of the city's needs. In Great Britain the franchise system was adopted for electricity supply. All companies were limited by statute to forty-two years, at the end of which period the municipality takes possession on payment of "the then value" of the plant, without compensation for good will or displacement. This system retarded development so that most of the companies have been bought up long before the franchise expired, receiving sometimes double their capital expenditure. And it has paid the community to give this compensation in order to develop the business and lower the charges.

Municipal ownership in Great Britain has been more enterprising than corporation rule; it has always considered the interests of the whole community, and has invariably meant lower charges for consumers.

The same principles of public utility which apply to street railways, gas or electricity supplies are applicable to telephones and the distribution of hydraulic power, or any other service which is monopolistic in character. Telephones, while managed successfully by municipalities in England, Norway, Sweden, and Holland, present some difficulties. Localization is not desirable and isolation is impossible. There should be only one telephone system in order to have the best facilities for intercommunication. The telephone service works most smoothly and answers public needs best in European countries where it is a State monopoly under the post-office. With the telegraph system a State monopoly, as is the case throughout Europe, it is an anomaly to have the telephones under separate management.

IV.

The general principles of municipal ownership will probably find ready acceptance as theories of civic policy, but what about their practical application? It will be pointed out as an initial material difficulty that street railway systems, gas and electricity supplies, cannot be limited by city boundaries. They should serve many areas governed by different authorities. Provided all these authorities are animated by the same ideas of civic policy, the difficulties disappear; working arrangements mutually beneficial are entered into, or joint services are established, and parochialism gives place to a wider civic patriotism, which recognizes larger communal interests. matter of fact, the large cities in England serve their smaller neighbors with water and gas, and are now beginning to do so more and more with street railways and electricity.

The most powerful and convincing arguments urged against municipal ownership are not, however, advanced on practical but on moral and political grounds. Let the municipality extend its activities and you enlarge the opportunities for patronage. Add to the number of public employees and you swell the power of the party boss. Give the municipality more money to spend in contracts and supplies and you widen the doors for grafters. Municipal ownership, in fact, means more politics, more corruption, more dishonesty in public life, and more power in all elements which degrade a city and demoralize a people. These are the last words, the final crushing arguments, of the antimunicipalists. They apply only if we grant one large assumption and make a humiliating confession. If we take it for granted that the evil elements in a community are permanent, that corruption will forever triumph, that politicians will more and more make public plunder their business, that the sense of citizenship and the moral conscience of the Nation will continue to wither and fade, then the case against municipal ownership is complete, just as it is against every form of good government.

If, on the other hand, we have still faith in the moral regeneration of the people, still believe that purity in politics and public life is possible, then municipal ownership is the greatest and final means of reform. It is radical; it goes to the root of the matter and gets rid of the mainspring of corruption. Grafters, corrupt politicians, and all the other parasites who now live by plunder could not exist if there were no franchises to sell, no contracts to give out. Let the cities keep their franchises, operate municipally their undertakings, and the chief source of corruption and the means of temptation will disappear. So long as corporations and contractors are mixed up in city administration so long will the tempter be there, and grit will interfere with the smooth working of the municipal machinery.

But, it may be urged, admitting that one evil is eradicated, others are more strongly intrenched. The patronage which falls to the City Council is increased and the power of the city employee is greater—both dangers from which we now suffer. Having extinguished the tempter, the next step is the moralization of the city councilor and the purification of the civil service neither impossible reforms. The city councilor has long since been discovered in Germany and Great Britain who is prepared to serve his city without any ulterior motive-ready to give his ability and his time freely and honestly to the service of the people. He is making his influence felt in the United States; and without this public-spirited servant, animated by a sense of citizenship, who subordinates all selfish aims, municipal ownership cannot succeed.

Its success also means that a permanent civil service for cities must be organized above party and solely on merit, which only involves an extension of the system which has been introduced successfully in various departments of the United States Government.

While this political danger from the city's employees is always heard of, nothing is said of the much more serious influence of the corporation directors,

lawyers, and stockholders. The political dangers feared from an army of municipalemployees have never yet been apparrent in British cities. To begin with, the workers benefit doubly by municipal ownership—they share in its general advantages and receive just treatment, for a municipality must always be a model employer. Then the interests of the city's employees are divergent. Workers in various departments, while having the same employer, have not common interests. Combination among all is not practicable. In the most developed of British cities, where every public utility service has been municipalized, the municipal employees have not proved a serious factor at election times, partly from the reason that they are too good citizens to attempt a systematic and combined campaign which would lead to reaction, and also partly from the fact that a large proportion of them live outside the borders of the municipality which they serve. Were combined action ever attempted against a common municipal employer, such a foolish proceeding would lead to the drastic remedy of disfranchisement, just as the civil servants in Washington are deprived of their votes, although not for the same reason. The interests and well-being of the whole body of citizens would always preponderate over the action of the city's employees, who must always be a comparatively insignificant minority.

V.

There are those who will admit the whole of these premises, but still only regard the system as an ideal to be reached in the far future. Such would argue that the time is not now opportune; we must go through a transition period; we could not get honest officials; we could not trust the people yet; they do not know how to use their votes. The enemies of reform always fly to dis-

trust of the people. The same reasons were advanced for withholding votes from agricultural laborers in England. They would not, it was said, know how to use them. They could not be trusted. People will never learn how to use political privileges until they get them, and, similarly, people will never know how to run municipalities under municipal ownership until they get the opportunity. There will at first be a period of stress, trial, and turmoil, when loyalty to the people's cause will be strained, when the old system will strive hard for mastery. This experience is gone through before all great reforms are firmly established, and has been successfully weathered by loyal service and steadfast courage.

Municipal ownership, it should be borne in mind, withdraws from public life the influence of the stockholder, who, when he goes to the poll, has conflicting aims to consider—his position as a citizen and his interest as a stockholder. When the city keeps its franchise and operates its undertakings, it becomes an industrial commonwealth, as far as public works are considered, with all the citizens as its stockholders. Once the barrier is past, once the new civic régime is inaugurated, the citizens will not be so short-sighted as to damage their own property. Those of them who hold city stock, bearing its moderate but certain return, will not like its value depreciated. They will prefer to see their city's credit stand well in the market. All other citizens are also partners in the co-operative undertakings which they use themselves or derive benefit from. As good citizens they will do nothing which is likely to impair the efficiency of their co-operative enter-Rather they will seek to develop prises. them within their legitimate sphere, and widen the benefits which they confer on the people.

A SETTLEMENT FOR THE NEG-LECTED RICH

BY A MEMBER OF THE ADVISORY COMMITTEE

O one can engage in work for social betterment in New York without being impressed with the need of some form of missionary or humane effort for the benefit of the neglected rich. True benevolence is not exclusive. It is not limited by social, racial, or sectarian considerations. It distinguishes between men and the conditions which surround and hamper them. If one has had the misfortune to be born rich or to acquire riches, why should that exclude him from the pale of human sympathy or from the operation of those forces which are necessary for his humanization?

I do not find in any directory of the charitable or social settlements of New York any mention of our Settlement. I am not surprised at this. Its work has been done quietly and without the necessity of public appeal. Whatever else this Settlement lacks, it has no lack of money. It was organized, indeed, to secure for the neglected rich certain things which money cannot buy and to establish certain relations which money does not determine. Its prime object is to establish a higher standard of living. It would have been a mistake, therefore, to establish it on a gold or silver standard. The settlements on the East and West Sides of New York have shown that a splendid type of humanity can be developed under the limitations of poverty, and the object of the Settlement in the rich quarter is to show that a splendid type of humanity may likewise be developed under the limitations of wealth.

Another reason for its comparative obscurity is that there is already too much ostentation in social life, and this Settlement, if it stands for anything, stands for an unpretentious reality. One of its fundamental mottoes is, *Esse quam videri*. Reality is a friend of simplicity. Ostentation is by no means confined to the rich, but it thrives among them be-

cause it is much easier to convert money into display than to change it into character, and because many people believe that money is made for just this thing. The new Settlement is, therefore, anything but loud. It avoids self-proclamation. I write this article on the condition that you will not ask me to tell just where the Settlement may be found. Suffice it to say, it is in a quarter where its influence seemed most needed. There was no trouble in getting the necessary building, for there are not a few rich people who are thoroughly alive to the condition of their wealthy neighbors. Nor was it difficult to get social workers, for there are many people on the East Side who are as willing to help the neglected rich as they are willing to be helped by them.

The new Settlement has been named the Half-Way House, not because things are done here by halves, but because here one half of the city is teaching the other half how to live. If the settlements in the poor districts are of great value in bringing the poor into neighborhood with intelligent and friendly coworkers, why should not a Fifth Avenue settlement be of equal value in bringing the neglected rich into friendly relation with the intelligent poor?

A careful study of the population of New York will show that the intellectual center is not on Fifth Avenue, but on the East Side. What we are trying to do is, by a selective process, to get some of the teeming intellectual activity of that side to leaven the sluggish intellectual life of what, by conventional and unconscious satire, is called the "Best Society." The establishment of study classes of every kind and variety was one of the first steps. History, literature, geography, science, philosophy, languages, are taught, and people who have been trying to banish the ennui of life by the monotony of bridge whist are

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beginning to learn that there are other forms of intellectual resource. Already. I am told, the influence of the new intellectual spur is felt in a stimulated sale of standard works in the book-stores. Men who have spent large sums of money for show libraries are even beginning to read them. Some of the members of our clubs have told me that they did not dream what a wealth of learning could be found on the East Side for the education of the needy rich, till they began to come to the Half-Way Settlement. Some of the best of these teachers are found in the Jewish popula-They are men of opulent learning and intellect, who have been driven from their homes in the Old World and are earning but a precarious living in the New. I am wondering what some of the needy rich would do if reduced to similar extremities in a foreign land. Could they live on a few cents a day, and would they be found, while standing behind a push-cart on the street, reading the Ethics of Spinoza in Hebrew, or in any other language? The effect upon our rich beneficiaries has been excellent. They are learning to recognize their superiors. People whom they had looked down upon they now look up to.

One of the fundamental principles of the Half-Way Settlement is that everybody who is not defective by birth should be of some use to society. We do not put a too literal emphasis upon the word "use." We recognize that some people and some things are useful to society because they are ornamental. But what shall we say of people who are neither useful nor ornamental? are the hardest cases we have to deal with among the neglected rich. are what we call our "non-support cases." There are young men and young women who have grown to manhood and womanhood without learning how to support themselves or how to support others. They have been supported by their fathers and grandfathers. They have neither learned how to make money nor how to spend it wisely. They live lives of self-indulgent leisure. Idleness, whether among rich or poor, is the mother of vice. If such men lived on the East Side, we should call them "bums" or

"vagrants;" the fact that they live in elegant residences forbids the application of any such term to the rich loafer. He is secure in his respectability because, though he has not earned it, it has been bought for him. The legal definition of a vagrant is "a person who has no visible means of support." This definition would not apply to the rich tramp. fault with him is that he has no means of support which are *not* visible. has no moral or intellectual resources. He has become thoroughly materialized. enameled in his wealth. It is hard to find the man beneath all this armor of gold and silver; the thing seems either stuffed or hollow, like the armored knights in the European museums. "Very good sheathing," you say, "but where is the man?" Now, what the Half-Way Settlement has shown is that there is often excellent material for manhood under all this junk, if you can only get at it. We are not to be too severe with the poor tramp or the rich tramp; the difference between them is a difference of circumstances. Each has been the They have victim of a false education. not been trained into the duty or the joy of work. The rich tramp has been furnished by his parents with a free pass; he rides on a Pullman car; the poor tramp rides on the truck beneath. different course of education might have changed entirely the lives of these men. I am often more hopeful of the rich tramp than of the poor one. the rich one needs in many cases is to lose his fortune, and then he shows of what splendid stuff he is made; he loses the jewels his grandfather left him, but he finds the Shakespearean jewel in adversity. As for the poor tramp, he has adjusted himself to adversity already, and if he had a fortune bequeathed to him, he would simply take life a little more comfortably; he would ride inside the Pullman instead of on the truck.

It is part of the work of the Half-Way Settlement to teach the art of living. This many of the neglected rich have never learned. While some of them live a life of incessant pleasure, others have an unrestrained mania for work, and have never acquired the art of enjoying life as they go along, except as they find

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enjoyment in their business. Hence their lives are narrow in their scope. They never take any vacation, and would not know what to do with it if they did. Hence we have started a Vacation School to teach some of our overworked millionaires that vacations are indispensable, and how to use them. Some of our neighbors have found trips to Europe rather wearisome, because they have had no preparation for visiting the countries in which they have traveled, and know nothing of art, literature, or the history of these countries, and less of the languages. For this purpose we have established what we call East Side Fellowships. Under the terms of these fellowships persons who are approved by the Advisory Board may go over to selected families on the East Side and live with them for from six to twelve months to acquire the languages, while taking courses of collateral instruction at the Art Museum and elsewhere.

The East Side is not without its æsthetic influence, too. A single instance will illustrate. The truckmen and teamsters do not dock their horses' tails. They know that during fly time these tails may be very useful to the animal, and what does it matter if occasionally the horse gets his tail over the reins and undertakes to drive himself? Laws do not need to be passed to deter their owners from cutting off their tails; they respect nature. Fashion, not nature, is the god of the neglected rich, and so they mutilate their horses for the sake of appearances. Now, in the Half-Way Settlement we have not tried to combat this merely by any humanitarian, equitable, or equitant argument; we have approached the problem from another We have had some Greeks from Roosevelt Street give a few lectures with stereopticon illustrations on Greek One of the lectures was entitled "A Greek Horse Show." The illustrations were nearly all taken from the frieze of the Parthenon. Our lecturer incidentally remarked that when the Greeks held a horse show they went there to see the horses, and he called attention to the fact that none of the Parthenon horses were docked. work of art mutilated in that way could have been knocked down to a Greek buyer; on the contrary, they would have promptly knocked down the artist, were he Phidias or Praxiteles, who should have attempted such a travesty. Some of our neighbors have begun to see that the custom is not æsthetic, and that it is even ridiculous. I predict that ere long at the New York Horse Show no horse which does not conform to the Parthenon ideal will take a prize, and I am confident that more people will go to the show to look at the horses.

As in art, so in music, the East Side has a great deal to teach the neglected rich. It is there that we find great musical enthusiasm and deep musical feeling. We are bringing some of this into our Settlement. To the credit of the neglected rich let it be said that music is highly fashionable; it is their misfortune that to a large number it is nothing more. Highly dressed, or but partially dressed, women go to the concerts or opera because they would lose social caste if they did not. Young ladies learn to drum on the piano because they are expected to, and others assume to sing. But no one who has not been in touch with the neglected rich can really fathom the denseness of their ignorance on the subject of music. friend of the Settlement found a young lady, the other day, who had been taking lessons for three or four years in singing, who had not the slightest idea of the formation of the minor scale. One of the most generous of American millionaires has done splendid work in fostering music in the metropolis. He is the president of the Philharmonic and of the Oratorio Societies, and we are wondering if Mr. Carnegie will not suggest to us some way in which the dense ignorance of this zone may be still further dissipated.

One of the most important of our classes is that on Home-making. Some of our millionaire neighbors have palaces, but not homes. We are busy now in taking a census of the homeless rich. I mean the people who have every thing out of which to make a sumptuous home, except the most essential element of all. Happiness is not a thing, and a home cannot be made out of things; happiness

is experience, fruition, and there can be no happiness without love. I know of nothing more pathetic than these loveless palaces—the mere outward shell of a home, but with no heart, no love, in them. Solomon was right—Better is a dinner of herbs where love is, than a stalled ox and hatred therewith. The only thing more terrible than riches without love is poverty without love.

One of the frequent misfortunes of the rich is that they lose too much of the simple beautiful pleasures of domesticity. It is hard to maintain simplicity in a palace. The whole standard of living is apt to be changed, and men lose the happiness which comes from the round of simple enjoyments, as well as still deeper sources of happiness. Mothers, because they are rich enough to hire nurses, yield to the fashion of turning their children over to a nurse or a governess, instead of taking care of them themselves. The result is that the child loses its mother and the mother loses her child. Sad it is to think of the orphaned children whose parents are not dead, but who have no time to learn to know their own offspring. Our committee has therefore formed a Mothers' Baby Club, the object of which is to make mothers acquainted with their children. We encourage them to nurse their own babies when physically able, to go out with them in the park and push the babycarriage themselves, instead of intrusting them to a maid. One of the pleasantest sights in our neighborhood now is to see fathers and mothers going out with their children, the man carrying the baby, and having a little picnic in the park by themselves, just as if they were not outrageously rich. Mothers have told me that they never dreamed it was so delightful to nurse their own children and to care for them themselves instead of committing them to paid nursery-maids.

I have no space to tell of our classes in ethics and good government. Some of the discussions as to the ethics of business have been greatly stimulated by recent events. As a practical result of ethical discussion I am told that some of our rich women are becoming more prompt in paying their dressmakers' bills. Subjects of hot discussion have been,

What is the relation of life insurance to benevolence? and What should be the salaries of missionaries? Another subject is, What is the ethical relation of gambling in high life to gambling in low life, between bridge whist on Fifth Avenue and craps on the East Side? Some members of the Plato Club from Henry Street have also introduced the question with which Plato's Republic opens, whether men who simply pay their debts fulfill all the conditions of justice. As for good government classes, I hope that eventually we can say that there is as much enthusiasm in civic affairs in our neighborhood as there is on the East Side.

The Half-Way Settlement has been established but a little while. It is too soon to count up results. Some of the tendencies of the experiment may be gathered from what I have written, others may be inferred. But of one thing we are positive, and that is that the Half-Way House has done immense good by bringing together people who should never be separated, each of whom needs the other. This is not a charitable movement, it is an educational one. A clear and positive and I may say a priceless result is that the rich and the poor are educating each other. Indeed, we have got so far now that we hardly apply these terms in the conventional way. A new sense of values is evident at Half-Way House. If we call a man rich, we mean in the things which make manhood and happiness; if we call him poor, we mean poverty of life.

The Half-Way House is truly democratic; it is also truly aristocratic. We are seeking to get the better elements to the top in the life of the individual and in the life of society. That is the true aristocracy of intellect and of soul, and the question of geography, whether East Side or Fifth Avenue, has nothing to do with it.

The social commingling of the poor residents and the rich beneficiaries has wrought the finest results. Each has come better to understand the other. Some of our resident workers did not at first get into a sympathetic understanding of the view-point of the rich man, nor did the people of the neighborhood

at first always understand our workers. Each was too much influenced by the circumstances of the other. This state of observation and curiosity has passed into one of true fraternity. To fraternize means to humanize. The basis of all permanent human relations must be found, not in superficial and temporary distinctions, but in the deeper elements of our common humanity. Here alone is the foundation of true brotherhood.

So it is that a most delightful relation has sprung up between residents and neighbors. The rich are surprised to find the noble qualities of our residents, and our residents are learning day by day what splendid men and women may be reared in luxury in spite of enervating influences. Over our door we have put up another motto, the words of Burns:

"The rank is but the guinea's stamp, The man's the gowd for a' that."

A VICTORIAN GROUP'

TITH a lively recollection of the charming correspondence between Thackeray and Mrs. Brookfield, published several years ago, one opens these new volumes with pleasant anticipation. The biography of William H. Brookfield fills the first part, and he appears as a handsome, talented, and already popular youth. After hesitating between the Church and the bar, he prevailed upon his parents to permit him to go to Cambridge, where began his lifelong friendships with a group of men who formed the magic circle of which Mrs. Brookfield was later the center. He was admitted into the inmost ring of the group, which included Thackeray, Tennyson, Arthur Henry Hallam, Kinglake, Venables, Milnes, and others. He became tutor to the eldest son of Lord Lyttelton, another connection that widened his friendships. He began, during his residence at Hagley, the seat of Lord Lyttelton, to record in his diary such anecdotes and incidents as he gathered from distinguished guests who were in touch with the world. A certain Hawkins Brown. who had been cured of stammering, managed to get through a sentence in a speech by singing it to a tune. "If the sentence happened to be finished a few bars before the end of the melody, still he went through the latter in order to start fair with the ensuing sentence. The effect in the Commons was most ludicrous, and some wag one day echoed the dying strain. Sheridan, in the

¹ Mrs. Brookfield and Her Circle. Edited by Charles and Frances Brookfield. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 2 vols. \$7.

House, called him 'his melodious friend.'" Lord Spencer told Mr. Brookfield that Bozzy used to come to the Johnson Club half drunk, and was loud and overbearing in his talk, which was chiefly of Johnson.

Through Mr. Brookfield's friendship for Arthur Hallam he met his future wife, Miss Jane Elton, who was a niece of Mr. Hallam the historian. A portrait of Brookfield in cap and gown shows a fine intelligent face, while a copy of a painting of Arthur Hallam at the age of sixteen is charming. The college correspondence of these youths is as merry and extravagant as possible, and shows them in all their gay humor. In 1836 he became curate of Holyrood, Southampton, where within a year or two the Elton family came to live. Of the childhood of Jane we have a few piquant glimpses. The little girl used to have her lessons lying upon a hard board with a hollow for the head; she also wore a "spider," a web of iron or steel covered with leather, which braced the small back from neck to waist. Stern as this system appears to us, it was owing to it that Mrs. Brookfield preserved to the end of her long life her stately figure and carriage. She was the youngest daughter in a family of eight girls, hence her second name, Octavia. Her three brothers were devoted. and all the family had a refreshing belief in one another's talents. Jane was a beauty, and a witty and delightful companion. Her father, Charles Elton, was the friend of Lamb, Landor, Southey, Coleridge, Turner, and others, so that she was born into the literary atmosphere which she breathed to the end of her life. The Elton children would sometimes note, "Nothing occurred—only Old Landor called oftener than ever." Jane writes: "One day he said he had left a drawer full of Southey's letters at home—letters he had treasured and intended to keep, but 'My wife has been so good as to burn them,' and he gave the loudest burst of laughter I ever heard."

Mr. Brookfield was twelve years older than Jane Elton, and that fact may account for the tone he adopts in his letters to her after their engagement. He was the severe mentor, yet at the same time praised the wit and drollery of her letters. Much affection was expressed, with gay descriptions of social events and occasional rebukes quite startling to modern ears. To reprimand a young lady for the "blackguard sluttishness" of her letters has happily passed out of fashion. The Brookfields were married in 1841, and began their new life in Jermyn Street, London. Their friends rallied to them, and new and old gathered at their table to enjoy the feast of wit "in a sphere more brilliant and far more exclusive than any that has existed since." Brookfield was introduced to London society at her uncle's house. Mr. Hallam was fond of his niece, who always retained a feeling of awe for the punctilious gentleman. His second son, Henry, who also died in his youth, occasionally referred to him as "the author of my days and the Middle Ages." Thackeray was a constant visitor, and at Christmas made Mrs. Brookfield his first present one of his books. During her absence from home Mr. Brookfield wrote to his wife that "Titmarsh" had sent him the following invitation:

"If you like two or three
Of your cronies to see,
There's a swarry
To-morry
At Mitre Court B."

Theological discussions raged in those days as now, and Mr. Brookfield lost some preferment because of his audacity in the pulpit. He told the story of an old gardener of his father's—an example of definite and clear belief. He held that nobody could be saved who wore

short breeches. "I said to him, 'Now, Joseph, do you think St. Paul wore breeches?' With admirable power of debate, he answered, 'I don't know what he wore, Mr. William, but I'll tell you what he didn't wear. He didn't wear shirt collars up, velvet waistcoat, gold buttons, blue satin cravats, boots and straps—strutting about like a crow in a gutter' (describing myself in the year 1830 in detail)."

An amusing tale is told of Samuel Rogers.

"Walking the other day with an absent-minded friend, Rogers told him how a lady, half recognizing him the day before, had asked him, 'Isn't your name Rogers?' 'And was it?' asked the absent one." Mr. Brookfield makes himself merry over the flowing rhetoric of Bishop Wilberforce, vulgarly known as Soapy Sam, and cleverly travesties a sermon and ridicules a speech before the House of Lords by this prelate. Mrs. Brookfield thus comments upon Browning's marriage: "Of course you know that our friend Browning ran away with a sister poet the other day? Miss Barrett-Barrett (y two Barretts?) who has been nearly bed-ridden for years; they are now in Italy away from a brutish father, (selon Mr. Moxon) who opposed the match and entailed the necessity of its being achieved in a surreptitious (gracious | what a word !!) manner. Miss Wynn lent me Miss Barrett's poetic effusions with a strong encomium from herself. I see she has a good deal of poetry in her, but her 'Lady Geraldine's Courtship' is evidently conceived in consequence of reading 'Locksley Hall,' and the whole poem recalls it, though such a laboured piece of 40 pages was never put together I suppose.'

Among the Brookfields' friends was Miss Wynn, who wrote very clever letters, often discussing the peculiar religious influences of the time. Oxford and Cambridge were in opposite camps, and the most unmitigated scorn was poured upon Oxford by these Cambridge men. Mr. Brookfield wrote seriously in answer to Miss Wynn's arguments, but his sense of fun occasionally moved him to such a declaration as, "Arthur Elton had turned Puseyite and now smokes to the East."

It was through Thackeray that the lasting friendship between Lord and Lady Ashburton and the Brookfields was commenced.

Lady Ashburton was an ideal hostess, and had the gift of bringing out her guests at their best. She gathered about her a group of literary people, among whom Thackeray and the Brookfields shone, with the Carlyles, Venables, and others. It is odd to read of these men and women amusing themselves with childish games, throwing the handkerchief and counting ten rapidly in order to avoid a forfeit. Carlyle told a story of his childhood. When he was four, his parents gave him an earthenware "thrift pot," a sort of bottle without mouth but with a slit in the side to slip pennies in. He was left alone in the house when there came to the door a beggar-man, pale, weary, worn, and hungry, dripping with wet. "I climbed on the kitchen table," says Carlyle, "and reached down the thrift pot from its shelf and gave him all that was in it—some fourpence. I never in all my life felt anything so like heaven as the pity I had for that man." Mrs. Brookfield says: "How different this from 'the inward satisfaction and pride resulting from a virtuous action."

Mrs. Carlyle was not the easiest guest to entertain. In the large parties at Lady Ashburton's she expected to take the lead, which was difficult, as her brilliant hostess was the first attraction everywhere. Clever and amusing as she was in conversation, Mrs. Carlyle had a fatal propensity to finish off every detail of her long stories, and, with her Scotch accent and somewhat exacting temper, her audiences longed for abridgment or for an opportunity to have their own turn in the conversation. Mrs. Brookfield describes her as very slight, neat, erect, animated in face, with very good eyes and teeth, but no pretension to beauty.

Mrs. Brookfield gives us a glimpse of Miss Brontë through thoroughly feminine eyes, when she says that there was a fashion for wearing a plait of hair across the head, and as Miss Brontë, "a timid little woman with a firm mouth," did not have thick hair, she wore a very obvious crown of brown silk! Mr. Thackeray on the way down to dinner addressed

her as Currer Bell. She tossed her head and said she "believed there were books being published by a person named Currer Bell, . . . but the person he was talking to was Miss Brontë, and she saw no connection between the two." The story of Thackeray's party for Miss Brontë is well known, and its miserable failure is accounted for by Mrs. Brookfield. She thinks the keen-brained little lady was unable to fall in with the easy badinage of the well-bred folk she met in London, and was "dismayed at anecdotes that gained in elegance as they lost in accuracy."

Macaulay was seated beside Mrs. Brookfield at dinner when she asked him if he admired Jane Austen's works. "He made no reply till a lull occurred in the general conversation, when he announced, "Mrs. Brookfield has asked me if I admire Jane Austen's novels, to which I reply," and then entered into a lengthy dissertation to which all listened but into which no one else dared intrude. finally describing how some time ago he had found himself by the plain marble slab which covered the remains of I. A., when he said to himself, "Here's a woman who ought to have had a national monument."

Some one cruelly remarked to Tennyson that he would be as bald as Spedding before long. Mrs. Brookfield, writing to Harry Hallam, says: "Poor Alfred brooded over this . . . and put himself under a Mrs. Parker, who rubs his head and pulls out dead hairs, an hour a visit and ten shillings an hour, besides cosmetics ad libitum. Your father's hair would bristle up at the idea of the Queen's pension being spent in this manner, but really his hair is such an integral part of his appearance it would be a great pity he should lose it—and they say this woman does really restore hair, and she is patronized by Royalty itself! Can I say more in her favour or in extenuation for A. T.?"

It is pleasant to hear that Alfred Tennyson was regarded by his friends as eminently good-natured—a quality which, when combined with high genius and critical ability, must cause surprise. He appeared late for breakfast one morning and said, "My watch has stopped;

what am I to do?" All felt concerned for a moment, when Mr. Fairbairn with gravity took the watch from the poet's hand, asked for his key, wound it up, and silently returned it to its owner! With strangers he was shy and retiring, but with his friends his conversation was full of depth and earnestness—often amusing from its exaggerated flights of humorous fancy.

In 1859 Mr. Hallam died, after sustaining the loss of all his brilliant children. Gradually the circle was invaded, and the great blow came in 1863 when Thackeray died. Nowhere outside the great writer's family was the sorrow so keen as in the Brookfield household. Mr. Brookfield records the dreadful news simply—"Thackeray is dead." Mr. and Mrs. Brookfield were to an extent invalids, but both continued their work and social pleasures. Mrs. Brookfield wrote several books, which were well received, but are now forgotten. In 1874 Mr. Brookfield died, and Mrs. Brookfield survived him twenty years. The tributes of his friends placed Mr. Brookfield high in character and usefulness. In the Church "he had his Newmanic turn and then became something of Broad Church." Witty, sympathetic, loyal to his friends, handsome and popular, while he amused in public it was said that he left evidence to prove that he was equally apt in giving serious and solid comfort to those who desired it.

Mrs. Brookfield retained to the last the charming personality that insured for her the affection and confidence of a remarkable set of men and women for fully forty years.

As the compilers of these letters say, "None are likely to deny that those Victorians were, in their mental grasp and their quickness of wit, a rare and a wondrous race."

The letters speak for themselves, and are so complete in their reflection of the times and the people they represent that the slender thread connecting them is hardly more than a placing in order. The effect of the book is not as vivid as might be expected, but it is vastly agreeable, and adds a link in the chain which binds us to the time so difficult to call the past century.

Comment on Current Books

The Abbé Constantin

Halévy's pleasant romance, together with Fitzgerald's "Omar" and Dr. Holmes's "Professor at the Breakfast-Table," are issued as new volumes of the "Arcadia Classics." This series of classics and favorites is neatly presented in pretty and small books with flexible binding and acceptable illustration. (T. Y. Crowell & Co., New York. \$1.25 each.)

The lectures or addresses The Age of the which Dr. W. J. Sollas, Earth Professor of Geology at Oxford, England, has here included under the title of his Presidential Address to the Geological Section of the British Association cover a much wider field than the title indicates. In sufficiently popular form they present the latest hypotheses, researches, and conclusions of the science on points of primary importance, together with some of secondary interest. Dr. Sollas indulges in no venturesome guesses at the number of millenniums since our planet first took form. His nearest approach to certainty is that it is at least fifty-six or fifty-seven millions of years, and perhaps much more, since the moon, after having been flung off from the earth, was revolving within thirty-six thousand miles of it. The earth is still slightly pear-shaped, and until it comes to its ultimate spherical or spheroidal form the catastrophes of the past are likely to recur. (E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. \$3, net.)

The Building of the City Beautiful

a completed work of which, while incomplete, some portions were printed for friends. In form it is a romance embodying the author's visions of the City of God that is to be, for the realization of which Jew and Christian join heart and hand. In substance it is a sketch of the social Utopia which in the coming age will be based on Jesus' foundations, as given in the Lord's Prayer and the Sermon on the Mount. Suggestions of Thoreau, of Tolstoy, of Edward Bellamy, frequently recur to the reader, but the ruling spirit is that of the Christ, as the Saviour of

man from the inhumanity of man, and from his own baser self. The spiritualized affection of a noble man for the noblest of women, a Beatrice to a Dante, runs through the whole, and "the City Beautiful" at last appears in form as transcendently ideal as that in the Apocalypse. Taken as a whole, this work, whose chapters are each introduced by an appropriate poem, is a prosepoem on the evil that is, and the good that is to come—a work which in thought and art shows its author at his best. (Albert Brandt, Trenton, N. J. \$1.50, net; postage, 8 cents.)

"Don Quichotte", Don Quixote is an immortal character. It was never to be expected that he and his inseparable Sancho Panza would remain strangers to the stage. Some weeks ago in France the stage received a notable addition to its literary and dramatic forces by the publication of Jean Richepin's" Don Quichotte," and its representation at a no less distinguished place than the Théâtre Français, generally and justly considered the first theater of the world. In the new "Don Quixote," as in the old, we have a heroic-comic work. Its characteristic features, as created three centuries ago in Spain by the genius of Cervantes, have been only accentuated by the talent of an eminent French poet and by the consummate artists of the Comédie Française, especially MM. Louis Leloir and André Brunot, who took the parts of Don Quixote and Sancho Panza, respectively. M. Richepin's text is brilliant in its incisive vivacity. The dialogue is always spirited, as should be the case with such a subject; it is full of a Figaro-like dash and touch-and-go, which seems to belong more than elsewhere in the land of mantillas and castanets; indeed, the drama fairly breathes the atmosphere of Spain. written in verse, but the rhyme rarely obtrudes unspontaneously; for the most part its jingle is graceful and appropriate. We would not part with it any more than we would with the rhyming in M. Rostand's "Cyrano." (Eugène Fasquelle, Editeur, Paris, France.)

Edvard Grieg With Mr. Henry Theophilus Finck, the author of this biography of Grieg, everything is either black or white. There is no gray in all the world. Liszt? What a god! Brahms? A dry old pedant! The white is what he personally likes; the black what he personally likes. Of course his hero in this volume is glaringly white. His admiration for him is unbounded. The reader must be prepared to be indulgent, to supply the grain of salt. Of course Grieg may fairly be called a genius of high order. His music is more

than tuneful and individual. But let us beware of suggesting it has fleck or flaw; we shall have Mr. Finck at our heels. In spite of this attitude of fierce worshiper, Mr. Finck has written a very readable as well as useful book. He has succeeded, in the first place, in filling it with personality. He quotes letters and chatty reminiscences. He relates anecdotes. He writes sympathetically of Grieg's ambitions and experiences. He has, in the second place, brought together much information about Grieg, some old and some new, which has not before been easily accessible. In spite of its amusing mixture of gush, abusiveness, and dogmatism, this is a book which people will read to their advantage and entertainment, and which is worth putting upon the library shelf. (The John Lane Company, New York. \$1, net.)

The sensational and voluminous Frenzied articles which Mr. Thomas W. Finance Lawson has been contributing to "Everybody's Magazine" have now been published in book form. We see no reason to revise our judgment of these papers and their author expressed while they were appearing periodically. The book has no literary merit, and contains little to convince the intelligent reader that the author's testimony may be accepted without careful corroboration. Mr. Lawson has been a market manipulator and stock-jobber of the most pronounced type, according to his own -jaunty confession. His demeanor on the mourner's bench and his apostrophe to penitence are not of such a character as to give assurance that his conversion is a very profound one. We may forgive him for his confessed participation in what he calls "the crime of the Amalgamated," but for ourselves we prefer to trust somebody else's advice as to where and how to invest our savings and as to the methods and principles we shall adopt in reforming the very actual and widespread evils of corporate greed, overcapitalization, unscrupulous speculation, and the unjust use of public property for private gain. (The Ridgway-Thayer Company, New York. \$1.50.)

The purpose and spirit of six institutions in the South in which negroes are educated are here described. Three of these institutions—Howard and Atlanta Universities and Tuskegee Institute (erroneously called "Tuskegee University" in the runing titles)—are described by colored men, Professor Keller Miller, Professor W. B. Du Bois, and Professor R. C. Bruce: and the other three—Hampton, Berea, and Fisk—by white men, Dr. Frissell, President Frost, and

President Merrill. Professor Miller furnishes the opening chapter and undertakes to provide the background. Unhappily, it is a background of antagonism, not to say animosity, to the white people. Unhappily, also, in this chapter and in that describing Atlanta University, explanation of college training for negroes involves slurs upon industrial training. We should advise most readers of this volume to begin with the chapter on Hampton Institute by Dr. Frissell. The education of the negro has entailed an expenditure of effort and of life that has sometimes been termed wasteful; but, as in education under other conditions, this expenditure, when directed by intelligence as well as faith, has ample justification. This book contains evidence that this is so. The chapters were originally delivered in the Old South Lectures on the History and Work of Southern Institutions for the Education of the Negro. Mr. Robert C. Ogden writes an introduction. (The American Unitarian Association, Boston. \$1.10, net.)

Ground Arms This romance of European war by the Baroness von Suttner has been compared to "Uncle Tom's Cabin" in its influence upon the public sentiment of the country in which it was written. Six editions have already been published. It is a powerful human document in its portrayal of the direct and the incidental horrors of war, and the arguments which are presented, in conversation and reflections, in favor of the settlement of disputes between nations by an international court. The story itself is of keen interest, but the argument is stronger than the story. The author has been awarded the Nobel Peace Prize of \$40,000 in acknowledgment of the book's influence in bringing about the Hague Tribunal. (A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago. \$1.50.)

Wagner's music-A Guide to the Ring dramas may be enof the Nibelang joyed without commentary, but they will unquestionably be more intelligently enjoyed after some understanding of their structure. This handbook, by the well-known writer of musical criticism, Richard Aldrich, presents concisely and intelligibly an account of the sources of Wagner's four works, "The Rhinegold," "The Valkyrie," "Siegfried," and "The Dusk of the Gods" (Götterdämmerung), an explanation of Wagner's purpose in composing them, and an analysis of each in order. The leading motives are given in musical notation. For general use this guide is most convenient. (The Oliver Ditson Company, Boston. \$1.25.)

Historic Styles in Furniture

The title indicates the special point of view of this new furniture book." Sometimes the century made the style, as in the fifteenth century; sometimes the period, as with the Italian Renaissance; sometimes the monarch, as with Louis XV. Taking each style as a chapter division, the author, Virginia Robie, writes clearly of its development, highest type, and merger into other styles. The illustrations are admirably chosen and well printed. (Herbert S. Stone, Chicago.)

Just what is included Borderland of Wales in this large and com-In the March and prehensive volume is explained by its author, Mr. A. G. Bradley, when he tells us that the term " marches," originally meaning that land of one country which "marched" with that of another-that is, was adjacent to the boundary-long since in Wales was extended to include those slices of Welsh territory conquered soon after the Conquest by Norman barons and held by them independently of the Crown, or nearly so. Many of these spots are of historical as well as picturesque interest, and the plan allows the inclusion of many remote and rugged castles and strongholds. There are scores of line drawings, and these sketches aptly illustrate the text. For the average American reader the treatment is sometimes over-minute and leisurely. (Houghton, Mifflin & Co., Boston. \$3, net.)

In the Sixties This is the title of a pleasing volume of personal impresand Seventies sions of literary and social people of note by Laura Hain Friswell. The author is the daughter of an English essayist and novelist who had agreeable and friendly relations with Thackeray, Cruikshank, Thomas Cooper the Chartist, Kingsley, and other noted men of his generation, while Miss Friswell has many anecdotes of her own acquaintance, Sir Walter Besant, his collaborator, Mr. J. S. Rice, Sir Henry Stanley, William Black, and many writers of our own day. The book is cheerful reading, and, while it is occasionally trivial, is in the main a good specimen of a class of books which entertain one's leisure hours in a most satisfactory way. The volume is noteworthy physically for its novel and handsome binding. (H. B. Turner & Co., Boston.)

Lettres d'un
Curé de Campagne

was "couronné" by the French Academy—
that imprimatur eagerly sought by every
writer in France. In a series of letters written in simple, clear, incisive style, M. Yves

le Querdec, as a supposed French priest, describes his hopes and deceptions, his projects and waverings, his successes and failures. The book appears, appropriately, at a time of special searching of hearts both by churchmen and statesmen in France. The recital of the life of a curé there (and the village priest has always been a peculiarly social as well as religious power in every village) should have its due effect in giving to readers, and especially to foreign readers, a more intimate knowledge of actual, present-day conditions, as affected by recent legislation, which has now culminated in a law practically separating Church and State. As may be fancied, these "Lettres" are written frankly from the Roman Catholic standpoint. (Victor Lecoffre, Paris, France.)

Life and Religion

Religio

Moods of the Wood

A collection of verses that show the author (Ralcy Husted Bell) in command of a sufficiently varied vocabulary to express his sentiments, ranging from patriotic addresses to our country, through appreciation of friends, to impassioned love songs. An impression is left upon the mind that prudent pruning would have made the volume smaller and saved the reader from occasional commonplaces both in thought and phrase. (Small, Maynard & Co., Boston.)

"We no more understand the New Egypt Egyptians than we understand the Japanese; and, besides, there is this difference-that whereas the latter understand themselves, the former do not." So remarked a diplomatist to Mr. A. B. de Guerville, the author of a vivacious, well-translated description of "New Egypt." Of course "New Egypt" includes the Sudan, and this part of the book is of somewhat greater interest to the student of present-day civilization than is the author's entertaining but rather gossiping description of Cairo and the Lower Nile. As M. de Guerville says, "Was there ever a campaign which relatively cost so little and has brought so much as that of England in Egypt?" Seven years ago the situation in

the Sudan was especially discouraging; the country was practically ruined, three-quarters of the population had perished, and those remaining, still quivering under the crisis through which they had been passing, were actively hostile to their conquerors. Yet these conquerors were able to re-establish order, rebuild Khartûm (the capital), organize law courts and a police system, abolish slavery, regulate commerce, found schools, watch over sanitary affairs, especially struggling against the epidemics from which the country had long suffered. Above and beyond all, the conquerors convinced the halfsavage Sudanese that these things were for their good. Not only are the natives now content, but the resources of the country have been developed with unexpected rapidity. In 1898, as M. de Guerville shows, the Sudan produced a value of \$175,000; in 1902, \$2,700,000. Of perhaps equal importance is the description of the Nile in the Fashoda region. It must be pleasant reading to Englishmen to have the testimony of a French author that the mission sent out by France quickly lost its reason-of-being as far as taking possession of Fashoda was concerned. For "it was perfectly certain that, after the enormous effort which England had just caused Egypt to make in order to reconquer the Sudan, . . . she would never abandon the fruits of her victory." Despite occasional blemishes, the book is worth reading. The text is reinforced by nearly two hundred interesting illustrations. (E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. \$3, net.)

Pattie's Personal Narrative James O. Pattie was a Kentuckian of an adventurous turn of

mind who for six years conducted an expedition westward from St. Louis toward the Pacific and back through the City of Mexico to Vera Cruz, arriving in Cincinnati in 1830 penniless and broken in health from imprisonment and ill-treatment in Mexico. His story is entitled to a place in Dr. Thwaite's valuable collection of "Early Western Travels," both because of its thrilling interest as a record of hardship, captivity, and adventure, and because it gives a decidedly interesting picture of Spanish-American civilization in the Southwest and of Anglo-Saxon pioneering and frontier life. (The Arthur H. Clark Company, Cleveland. \$4.)

A Short History of Germany

Short History of Germany

Short History of Germany "—but the "Short History" was in two good-sized volumes. For the sake of those readers who are attracted first of all by brevity, we are glad

to chronicle the appearance of this valuable work in a one-volume edition. Those who are really interested in German history, however, will not be satisfied with such a condensation, admirably as it has been done. Nor will they be satisfied with the excellent two-volume edition as marking the final limit of their study. For perhaps the chief merit of Dr. Henderson's work is also the merit of every other work of art—suggestiveness. (The Macmillan Co., New York. \$2.50, net.)

Baffling as the philos-The True Doctrine ophy of prayer may be, of Prayer the precept of the highest spiritual authority supplies prayer with sufficient reason. To follow the wise is the wisdom of the unwise. In stating the Biblical doctrine of prayer Dr. Leander Chamberlain, President of the Evangelical Alliance in the United States, presents the Lord's Prayer as both the authority and the pattern for all true prayer. With his inference that no one can "truly" and "really" pray unless in full accord with Christ's desire, "Thy will be done," one must so far agree as to say that only such fulfill the ideal of prayer. But short of this a large margin must be recognized, in which prayer concentrating all the energy of a perhaps dimly enlightened soul is, though not ideal, yet a real force, hardly to be deemed utterly ineffective. We may rationally hold with Dr. Chamberlain to an objective efficiency of prayer, and that the universe has been pre-adapted to the exercise of man's natural instinct to pray, though we can hardly adopt his hyperbolical conception "that when true prayer lifts even its feeblest cry, . . . gravitation, cohesion, chemical affinity take notice, . . . that the globe, the planets, the starry systems, turn thitherward their quick attention." Chamberlain's paragraphing of his argument in an aphoristic form is well adapted to secure distinct attention to the successive considerations in which it is presented. The Biblical ideal of prayer and the failures of Christian practice to realize it need all the emphasis here put upon each. (The Baker

Who's Who in America

The new edition of this constantly useful handbook for 1906-7 is greatly enlarged as to the number of biographical sketches contained, and it has been made possible to include these without unduly increasing the size of the volume by the use of paper which from every other point of view is deplorably thin. A new and welcome feature is the

& Taylor Company, New York. \$1, net.)

printing in special type of names included in former volumes but dropped because of death or otherwise; these entries have a reference to the volume in which the lifesketch appeared. The present volume contains, apart from cross-references, brief biographies of 16,216 men and women. The editor, Mr. John W. Leonard, in a preface and in an introduction dealing with educational and social statistics, gives much interesting information, and throws light on such questions as the relative success in life of college and non-college men and the average age of men who have attained success. It could not be expected in a compilation dealing with 16,000 persons that there could be a very well defined standard of admission. but the practical value of the work is really largely due to the extent of its field, and the editor has carefully guarded against the possibility of charges of unfairness or favoritism. The book is not a collection of laudatory or effusive sketches, but is closely confined to a condensed statement of fact. It is really indispensable in a newspaper office, and is of general utility for the public at large in countless ways. (A. N. Marquis & Co., Chicago. \$3.50.)

Men who wish A Young Man's Religion think for and His Father's Faith themselves, and who find the results of modern scholarship unavoidable, can neither define their religion in terms current a generation ago, nor discover in themselves those peculiar experiences which by their fathers were regarded as necessary evidence of religious faith. There are many men, young and old, who are perplexed by this fact. Dr. N. McGee Waters has written this book in order, evidently, to persuade such men that faith does not stand or fall by definitions or even by peculiar experiences. He has a sympathetic understanding of both the older and the newer point of view; and yet he profoundly believes that faith has never found so full an expression as it has found in the terms of to-day, that God was never so well known as he is through the channel of modern knowledge, and that the Bible never appeared so great as present-day scholarship shows that it is. This book, written with the eloquence of the man who is speaking instead of writing, will unquestionably help many readers over perplexities that now stand in the way of a practical application of religion to life. (Thomas Y. Crowell & Co., New York. 90c.,

Letters to The Outlook

THE RECOVERY OF FAITH

[In the multitude of counselors there is wisdom. As there are many causes for the loss of faith, so there are many methods for its recovery. None of these answers is complete or will meet all cases. Neither will the answer given in the editorial in The Outlook of February 10 meet all cases. But in each of these answers some one may find help, and in them all many may find interest.—The Editors.]

The article entitled "The Recovery of Faith," in The Outlook for February 10, which begins by quoting a letter from one who deplores the loss of his boyhood faith, it seems to me does not deal with the subject quite fully or fairly. Is not the loss a sadder and a deeper one than your article would seem to imply? That which makes the child-faith so beautiful is the simple, unquestioning acceptance of the great fact of the Fatherhood of a Personal God, whose great love is most perfectly revealed in the Person of his Son Jesus Christ, who is the Friend and Saviour of all those who put their trust in him and obey him. For such a faith as this the heart cries out not less in mature life or old age than in childhood, and the loss of it is one compared with which all other losses are as nothing. And this faith can be retained. It was in the joy of this faith that Mr. Drummond endured serenely the years of illness that preceded the close of his life. It was in the inspiration of this faith that Tennyson, after the trials innumerable of a long and busy life, wrote before he died,

> "I hope to see my Pilot face to face When I have crossed the bar."

It was this faith that was the keynote of the hymn of the Dean of Canterbury, "Life's Answer," which ends,

"Safe to the land, safe to the land,
The end is this,
And then go with Him hand in hand
Far into bliss."

It was in the strength of this faith that Phillips Brooks wrote:

The Christ who in eternity opens the last concealment and lays his comfort and life close to the deepest needs of the poor, needy human heart is the same Christ that first laid hands upon the blind eyes and made them see the sky and flowers.

When St. Paul says, "When I became a man, I put away childish things," he does not mean that the childlike faith is incompatible with the maturity of mind that belongs to manhood and womanhood. The man of

fifty loves his mother with a deeper reverence and veneration than the heart of childhood can know, but it is the child love still in the heart of the man who gives it. It included the learned ones of His day as well as His disciples when our Lord said to them, "Except ye be converted, and become as little children, ye shall not enter into the kingdom of heaven."

This is a faith worth having and keepingworth fighting for, if need be, and, if lost, it is worth while to lose all else in order that it may be gained again. Is not its loss most frequently due to the fact that even in childhood there is some conscious or unconscious neglect of duty, some failure to struggle with besetting sin, in which case, as one grows older, the intellectual assent to belief becomes a form, with no vital-relation to the life, and the emotional pleasure which church-going may afford will gradually cease because it does not find its rightful end in obedience. As Mr. Drummond says, "religion without emotion is religion without reflection." But religious emotion which does not find its legitimate end in repentance and obedience, or indulged in while the will or any portion of it is consciously unsurrendered, becomes a snare rather than a blessing to its possessor.

The Christian life for its maintenance requires a constant struggle with sin and temptation, and implicit obedience to the great Captain of our salvation. Does one find his faith slipping from him, or is it apparently entirely gone? Let him, with all his might, set about righting whatever may be wrong in his life. Is there an outward or inward sin to be relinquished? Let it be given up now.

Some sacrifices are not easy to make, and of some duty that is required of us the heart of man, if it is honest, may cry out, "I cannot" or "I will not," and then those who have wandered far through sin remember that it is the one way back, and as we try the strength is given, for God loves to welcome back his children, and those who, amid whatever discouragements and trials, keep up the struggle from day to day may rest confident that by and by, if not here, hereafter, the lost joy will be restored and the lost faith found again.

A READER OF THE OUTLOOK.

I have read the article on "The Recovery of Faith" with much interest. But on concluding I could but say, And yet Jesus said, "Except ye be converted, and become as little children, ye cannot enter into the king-

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dom of heaven." Did you not take a misstep, and at the same time give a stone to a human soul hungering for bread? The faith of the devout heart at seventy-seven does not materially differ from that of the child of twelve, save that, while more intelligent, it is also deeper, stronger, more full of trust, love, joy.

N. J. M.

Please allow me to call attention to a very common error, as expressed in a letter printed under the title "The Recovery of Faith;" namely, the continuance by a mature mind of the method of belief necessary in childhood. The heart does not grow old. one sense, and that a true one, the man is always the boy. The error to which I am referring is that of the author of the letter referred to, who did not obey the injunction of Paul when he said, "When I became a man, I put away childish things." On the contrary, he accepted orthodox teachings when a child, necessarily. After arriving at mature and more thoughtful years, he still continues to accept the teachings of others, namely, those of the scientist and of infidels. He attempts, and poorly succeeds, to be a boy after having become a man.

The lesson here pointed is that of the desirability of obedience to that light which guideth every man, but which is too often obscured by the attention being paid to the seeming torchlight of another. A lady approaching Mr. Emerson at the close of a lecture, and thinking to compliment him, said that she agreed with every word he said. That wise man remarked: "Please do not agree with me. I settle nothing. I unsettle everything. I am only an eternal experimenter like yourself."

Much confusion and sorrow and loss of hope and faith is caused by the so general effort of trying to wear second-hand opinions.

"There is no chance and no anarchy in the universe. All is system and gradation. Every god is there sitting in his sphere. The young mortal enters the hall of the firmament; there is he alone with them alone, they pouring on him benedictions and gifts, and beckoning him up to their thrones. On the instant, and incessantly, fall snow-storms of illusions. He fancies himself in a vast crowd which sways this way and that, and whose movements and doings he must obey; he fancies himself poor, orphaned, insignificant. The mad crowd drives hither, thither, now furiously commanding this thing to be done, now that. What is he that he should resist their will, and think or act for himself? Every moment new changes and new showers of deceptions to baffle and distract him.

And when, by and by, for an instant, the air clears and the clouds lift a little, there are the gods still sitting around him on their thrones—they alone with him alone."

"He that hath ears to hear, let him hear."

I. C. C.

You appear to take for granted and give out the idea that all mankind must of necessity pass through these successive stages of erroneous childhood belief, then analysis and doubt, and with perhaps a rare chance of again emerging into the realization of the omnipresence of God. The letter you are answering portrays, as you say, "a common experience;" but, while deploring the condition, why not find the solution of the difficulty in the truthful education of children? "Whosoever shall not receive the kingdom of God as a little child, he shall not enter therein," are the words of the Christ. Cannot a child understand a measure of truth? Then why teach children grotesque dreams of heaven and an anthropomorphic God which cannot stand the test of reason? "Life will undeceive him," you say. To me that is inexpressibly pathetic; yet you omit any suggestion of regret that your inquirer did not, when a boy, comprehend as a child might that the unchanging God is Love. Your line of demarcation is so strong between "childhood faith" and the faith of manhood, yet it must be the same faith differently expressed. Nothing should be lost; nothing of good is lost. Burns's "John Anderson's" wife was not grieving over the loss of the rapture of youthful love; it was not lost, but out of it had grown the greater love. I used heartily to despise Emerson's essay on Love, where he speaks of youthful passion, the endearments, the avowals, as "deciduous," having a prospective end, until I learned this truth that nothing is really lost; and this is beautifully illustrated in Olive Schreiner's Dream, The Lost Joy: when Life and Love lost their first radiant Joy, they would not give up to reclaim it that dearer being, Sympathy, the Perfect Love.

Through childlike—not childish—acceptance of good will the despondent one come into "the kingdom" he fancies was childhood's possession and lost.

E. L.

In that most interesting editorial, "The Recovery of Faith," the core of your brotherly advice to the letter-writer lies in the last paragraph. In the very conciseness of the three sentences so full of meaning there may be danger that one who is genuine in distress and desire may fail of the doorway to inexpressible delight. It is more for him,

therefore, than to you or to your readers that these lines are written. If they may meet his eye, it matters little whether any other see them. The kernel of the whole matter, I take it, lies in the sentence: "He will best find his way to a real, manly faith by mingling in literature and in life with men of faith, and by always being obedient to such heavenly vision as is afforded to him." Yet it seems to me that there is one omission, a suppressed thought, probably to your mind to be regarded as necessarily involved in the sentence, but possibly not in the least luminous to your inquirer. To prevent his losing this thought is the object of the present writing. In many another parallel instance it has appeared that all that was needed to bring the genuine man to the joy of an assured faith was a frank, definite appeal to the far-off God for leading and light, coupled with a promise to follow wherever the light might lead. This done, in unnumbered cases, the seeker after God was speedily assured of his Perpetual Presence even before any possible association with men of faith. If your correspondent will make such a conscious, purposed appeal for guidance, and accept your advice to mingle with men of faith, and especially to follow the heavenly vision as speaking in the Book which already he accepts as the Word of God, it is a blessed certainty that light will arise for him, for even to-day it is true that God is a rewarder of them that diligently seek him.

Asterisk's letter on "The Recovery of Faith," in The Outlook of February 10, appeals to me with peculiar force, having had, to a degree, a similar experience. It seems to me that the writer is making the same mistake that I did, viz., making faith in Christ a matter of the intellect alone. Let me pass on a faithful pastor's advice: "Never mind your head, but make sure your heart is right." "For with the heart man believeth unto righteousness" (Romans x. 10); "The Lord is my strength and my shield; my heart trusted in him, and I am helped" (Psalm xxviii. 7); "Be not slow of heart to believe;" to that end, the Word

must be "hid in the heart" (Psalm cxix. 11). The writer of that letter will "best find his way to a real, a manly faith," not merely "by mingling in literature and in life with men of faith," but by looking constantly to God for guidance and help in accordance with the promise, Draw nigh unto God and he will draw nigh unto thee—not depending on faeling to prompt earnest prayer, nor allowing coldness of heart to discourage. When Christ is in the heart, it will glow with love and joy, such love and joy as he alone can inspire. Then, indeed, true obedience to the heavenly vision will follow; or, what is equally true, the vision will follow obedience.

SMH

THE GILBERT MEMORIAL

At the time of the death of the late Mrs. G. H. Gilbert, which occurred in December, 1904, The Outlook printed an appreciation of her personality and of her achievementsas an actress, commending "her art, her skill, and her personal charm, which her age only ripened and beautified." She was a member for many years of the Bloomingdale Reformed Church of New York City, which has recently built a new edifice on West End Avenue, in the upper part of the city. It is now proposed to place a stained-glass window in this new church building as a token of affection and honor to the memory of Mrs. Gilbert, "whose virtues," as the committee in charge most appropriately say, "reflected honor upon the church and stage." This committee, which is composed of the pastor of the church, the Rev. Dr. Stinson, and Mr. Daniel Frohman, Mr. John Drew. Miss Maude Adams, and others, is undertaking to raise the necessary funds for this memorial. If each one of those whom Mrs. Gilbert entertained and charmed nightly for so many years will make even a modest contribution to the fund, success is assured. Contributions may be sent to Mr. Reed Moore, President of the New Amsterdam Bank, Broadway and Thirty-ninth Street, or Mr. Daniel Frohman, Lyceum Theater, West Forty-fifth Street, New York.

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The Outlook

Volume 82

Saturday, March 10, 1906

Number 10

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THE OUTLOOK is a Weekly Newspaper and an Illustrated Monthly Magazine in one. It is published every Saturday—fifty-two issues a year. The fourth issue in each month is an Illustrated Magazine Number, containing about twice as many pages as the regular weekly issue, and many pictures.

PRICE.—The subscription price is Three Dollars a year, payable in advance. Ten cents a copy.

POSTAGE IS PREPAID by the publishers for all subscriptions in the United States, Hawaiian Islands, Philippine Islands, Guam, Porto Rico, Tutuila (Samoa), Shanghai, Canal Zone, Cuba, Canada, and Mexico. For all other countries in the Postal Union add \$1.56 for postage.

CHANGE OF ADDRESS.—When a change of address is ordered, both the new and the old address must be given. The notice should be sent one week before the change is to take effect.

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HOW TO REMIT.—Remittances should be sent by Draft on New York, Express-Order, or Money-Order, payable to order of The Outlook Company. Cash should be sent in Registered Letter.

LETTERS should be addressed:

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The Outlook

SATURDAY, MARCH 10, 1906

8

An Indefensible
Vote

The Senate Committee,
by a vote of seven to
six, has refused to report to the Senate, even without recommendation, the bill reducing the tariff on
imports from the Philippine Islands.
That is, the Committee not only refuses

That is, the Committee not only refuses to give any relief to the Filipinos by opening to them, as subjects of the United States, the markets of the United States, but it refuses to allow the question whether they shall have such relief to be discussed in the open sessions of the Senate. The obstructive character of the Senate has had no more dramatic illustration lately than this action. The justice of this bill is so apparent to the Administration that it has been earnestly urged by the President, and we believe by all his Cabinet; and so apparent to the people that it passed the House of Representatives by the non-partisan vote of 258 to 71; and yet a Committee of the Senate refuses to allow the Senate to For the Committee refused consider it. to report the bill, even adversely. votes against the proposition to put the bill before the Senate for consideration but without recommendation were those of Messrs. Hale, Burrows, Dick, and Brandegee, Republicans, and Messrs. Culberson, Du Bois, and Stone, Democrats. We hope that the local press will report the facts to their constituents, and that those constituents of these Senators who believe that the honor of the country is involved in giving our Filipino subjects a fair chance for industrial life will send their protests to the Senators who have misrepresented them. The only argument a Republican can make to justify this action is that the tariff is so fragile a house of cards that a discussion of any aspect of it may bring it tumbling down. What argument a Democrat can make to justify the action our imagination is not adequate to conceive. We believe that Senator Lodge, who has the bill in charge, can move to discharge the Committee from further consideration of the bill. Precedents are said to be against such a course; but fair play is worth more than precedents, and we hope that Mr. Lodge will make the motion and give the Senate a chance to put itself on record and the country a chance to see how its Senators stand on a question so vital to our commercial interests in the East and to our honor in the civilized world.

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Senator Foraker on Railway Rate Regulation Senators rarely pay one of their number the compliment of a full house. They did

so, however, last week to Senator Foraker, of Ohio, the galleries also being crowded, and gave close attention to a much-heralded speech from perhaps the most conservative opponent of railway rate regulation as intrusted to the Inter-State Commerce Commission. Foraker conceded that some railway evils exist; they were (1) excessive rates, (2) rebates, (3) discriminations. Under the first heading he found little to complain of; rebating, he said, was a more serious evil, and Mr. Foraker naturally traced the present railway consolidations to the fact that the Supreme Court decisions against pooling had left the railways without protection from rebates except to resort to some general understanding (like that, we suppose, upheld on the following day by the Supreme Court itself). As to discriminations, the speaker declared the power of the Elkins law to be as broad in remedying discriminations as to localities as it has been found to be in remedying discriminations as to persons. Though the Supreme Court has never passed on the question of the right of Congress to make rates, he

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believed that it would decide adversely; and such a decision would be fatal to the entire scheme of railway rate legislation now before Congress.

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An Estimate of his Argument aker's most fundamental his Argument contention, that the Supreme Court would hold the railway rate regulation bill to be unconstitutional on the ground that Congress has no power to regulate railway rates, The Outlook has simply to say that if it should so hold it would run counter, if not to its previous decisions, certainly to the trend of those decisions. For the Supreme Court has held that a State Legislature has power to regulate rates within the State, and it has also held that the Federal Government has all the powers over inter-State commerce which any sovereign nation can have over its railways, subject only to the express or necessary implied limitations imposed by the Constitution itself. It is difficult, in the light of these decisions, to see how it is probable that the Supreme Court would deny to the Federal Government the authority over inter-State commerce which it has declared is possessed by the State over State commerce. We think Congress has a right, in the light of these decisions, to assume the Constitutional power of the legislative body to enact that railway rates shall be just and reasonable, to define in general terms, as the pending bill does, what are just and reasonable rates, and to leave to the administrative department of the Government the application of these general principles to individual cases as they may arise. We certainly agree with Senator Dolliver, of Iowa, who in his reply to Senator Foraker declared it to be most important to know what power Congress had in regard to rate-making, and urged the passage of the pending measure for that purpose if for no other. The other question raised by Senator Foraker is more difficult; it is at least doubtful whether under the Constitution any department of the Government has a right to allow more favored rates to one port than to another, which is now done by the railways upon the plea that this is necessary to secure a

distribution of the traffic and a consequent distribution of the prosperity which that traffic brings. But if it is unconstitutional for any department of the Government in its railway rate regulation to allow such differentials, it is at least questionable whether it is Constitutional for the Government to allow them to be made by the private corporations into whose hands have been intrusted the administration of the National highways. Certainly, if the traffic is to be distributed by artificial methods, such as discriminations in rates between different ports, such discrimination should be made by an organization which represents all the people of the United States rather than by one which represents special interests and special localities. Under any circumstances, said Mr. Foraker, the attempt to confer upon a body asserted to be administrative in character all three powers of the Governmentlegislative, judicial, and executive-"would be alarming if its utter unconstitutionality were not as apparent as its unreasonableness."

It involves the general supervision by a political board, appointed by the President, of a business so tremendous as to be practically incomprehensible, and so complicated and difficult in its character as to be almost beyond the power of human intellect to master it, with authority to change rates with the stroke of a pen, affecting revenues to the extent of millions of dollars, and to make new regulations of every character affecting the operation of more than 200,000 miles of railways, and affecting also, because of their relations to the railroads and their dependence upon them, almost every other kind of important business conducted throughout the length and breadth of the country; and in this behalf this board, to the judgment of which these vast interests are to be subjected, is authorized to be legislator, prosecutor, judge, jury, and marshal all combined.

If, however, Congress has the power to fix rates, Mr. Foraker would still oppose any bill which would overturn the practice of granting differentials on export traffic, although he apparently admitted that the differential system violates the Constitutional provision prohibiting a preference in favor of the ports of one State over those of another State. Citing the differentials allowed, he declared them to be essential to the diffusion of the export traffic, yet they conflict with one

of the purposes of those seeking the proposed legislation, which is to secure to each locality its own particular rightful advantages of location. Mr. Foraker then proclaimed the necessity of a more specific court review provision, in which contention many opposed to him on other grounds will agree.

There are two prin-Amendments to cipal grounds for a the Hepburn Bill judicial review, when properly challenged, of the Inter-State Commerce Commission's action: (1) the charge that the Inter State Commerce Commission has exceeded its Constitutional authority in making a rate that is wholly or partly confiscatory, thus invading the Constitutional rights of the appellant; (2) that it has misinterpreted and misapplied the law to the facts in the case before it. The chief question at issue between the radicals and conservatives is whether provision for appeal in the second class of cases shall be made in the bill. A second amendment which many Senators would like to see incorporated would eliminate the thirtyday provision regarding the effectiveness of the Commission's rate. A court might hold that thirty days was not a reasonable time, and a general policy might be inaugurated through the courts of staying all rates ordered by the Commission on the ground that the time allowed was too short. Moreover, a Commission competent to fix a maximum rate should be equally competent to determine the time when it shall go into Thirdly, there is a strong movement in the line of the amendatory bill introduced by Senator Knox, of Pennsylvania, providing that when a stay has been granted a deposit or bond be given by the railways to pay the difference between the new Commission's rate and the one previously in force; a greater agreement among Congressmen, we believe, could be obtained for a provision requiring cash payment instead of a bond. The cash payment might have the virtue of acting as an additional deterrent. Senator Clay, of Georgia, has proposed an amendment prohibiting railways from dealing in coal, coke, or oil, and also

prohibiting railway ownership of such

properties except for supplying the railway's own needs. Railway officers are likewise forbidden to deal in or own such commodities or lands. Such an amendment would seem to meet Senator Foraker's criticism that the Hepburn Bill does not profess to prevent carriers from engaging in other kinds of business. Senator Elkins, of West Virginia, has also offered an amendment providing that coal-carrying railways shall not compete in the production and sale of commodities hauled over their own lines by private shippers. If these two latter amendments be made law, they might form a separate enactment.

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Within a week of its im-Pooling versus portant decision in the Rebating Chesapeake and Ohiocase the United States Supreme Court has handed down another decision of great moment to railway interests. If the effect of the first decision will be to restrict those interests, the effect of the second may be to expand them. 1899 all the railways of Southern California fixed a through rate of \$1.25 per one hundred pounds on oranges from Southern California points to the Missouri River and further east. In this rule the railways reserved the right of routing (or choosing the route for) the freight east of their own terminals. The California Citrus Fruit Growers' Association complained that a pooling agreement existed among the railways leading to the Atlantic seaboard under which the fruit traffic was apportioned and by which joint rates for all were fixed, and that in pursuance thereof, as shippers were not allowed to name the railways over which the fruit should pass, it was sometimes sent by roundabout routes, resulting in delay and loss. The railways declined to obey the Inter-State Commerce Commission's consequent order to cease compulsory routing. Thereupon the case was carried to the Circuit Court on the ground, as the Commission contended, that rate and traffic agreements were virtually pooling contracts, and as such in violation of the anti-pooling provisions of the Inter-State Commerce Law. railway companies justified the routing

requirement by declaring it necessary to prevent rebates and favoritism. Circuit Court sustained the Commission's contention. The case was then appealed to the Supreme Court, which now reverses the Circuit Court's decision and also the Commission's order, because it does not find that there has been, as a result of the rule, any discrimination between the initial carrier and the shippers; that an initial carrier might agree upon joint through rates with one or several connecting carriers, in which case it guaranteed a through rate, but only on condition that it had the routing; that the payment of rebates was unsatisfactory to all the railways, besides being plainly a violation of the Inter-State Commerce Act; that the routing arrangement was established to break up rebating; that it had been accomplished; that the traffic was fairly apportioned among the Eastern railways and that it went by the shortest routes; that not one of those railways knew the percentage of the traffic which it received: and, finally, that the tonnage pool was a myth. The Supreme Court's decision does three things: (1) It defines legal pooling; (2) it gives a more liberal construction to the law as applied to joint traffic arrangements; (3) it sanctions the modern practice of joint tariffs as a lesser evil than discrimination and favoritism. Thus it tends in the direction of the principle for which The Outlook has long contended, that the remedy for injustice in railway rates is not prohibition of combination, but regulation of the rates by the Government.

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The Secretary of State Congo and the has written an open letter United States explaining the reason why the United States cannot officially interfere or even protest against the terrible wrongs inflicted upon the people of the Congo. How terrible those wrongs are our readers have been told. strongly as we wish that something could be done by America to put a stop to these cruelties, we are quite sure that the Secretary of State is correct in his conclusions. Our Government has no official responsibility for the Congo State. It has no means for conducting an inde-

pendent investigation into the conditions there. There is no more reason why it should co-operate with other Powers in a protest against those conditions than why it should have united with them in a movement for the protection of the Christian subjects of Turkey at the time of the assassinations. But while the Nation cannot act officially, the people of the Nation can act unofficially through public appeals and public meetings. For this purpose no new investigation is necessary. The report of the Commission appointed by the King of the Belgians, of which we have given our readers some account, furnishes an entirely adequate basis for such popular protest. defense put forth by the King of the Belgians furnishes all the grounds necessary for his conviction. We are not certain that Congress might not by joint resolution express the public sentiment of the American people on this subject. The refusal of Congress to pass a resolution on behalf of Greece in 1824 is a precedent against Congressional action now, but the historic speech of Daniel Webster in favor of that resolution may perhaps be said to furnish a precedent quite as strong on the other side. emphasis which he put in that speech on the value and effectiveness of public opinion upon nations as well as upon individuals may appropriately be recalled at the present time as an incentive for arousing such public opinion in this country.

The call for a con-President Roosevelt ference of the oper-Intervenes for Peace ators of the central competitive soft-coal territory, embracing western Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois, to be held at Indianapolis on March 19, and the reconvening of the National Convention of the United Mine Workers of America in the same city on March 15, are recent developments in the mine labor situation which the public may regard as indicating that a strike of the bituminous coal employees is to be averted through a compromise of the differences between their representatives and their employers. The calling of these respective meetings followed the receipt of letters from President Roose-

velt by Chairman Robbins, of the bitun.inous operators' committee, and President Mitchell, of the mine workers' union. These letters were in substance the same, the one to President Mitchell reading: "I note with very great concern the failure of your late convention on the joint inter-State agreement to come to a basis of settlement of the bituminous mining scale of wages. You in this business have enjoyed a great industrial peace for many years, thanks to the joint trade agreement that has resulted in the action of your successive conventions. A strike such as is threatened on April 1 is a menace to the peace and general welfare of the country. I urge you to make a further effort to avoid such a calamity. You and Mr. Robbins are joint chairmen of the Trade Agreement Committee of the National Civic Federation, and it seems to me that this imposes additional duty upon you both and gives an additional reason why each of you should join in making a further effort." Shortly after the receipt of President Roosevelt's letters it was announced in New York by President Mitchell that the miners' National Convention would be reconvened in Indianapolis on March 15, and from Pittsburg Chairman Robbins made public the call of the operators' committee for their conference in Indianapolis on March 19. In explanation of this action the operators' committee stated that "said meeting has been called entirely in deference to the wishes of the President of the United States, and that no action has been taken or agreement of any kind has been made by any operator up to this date regarding any possible settlement of existing differences. No settlement is possible on any terms until after such meeting has been held and the individual views of all of the operators of the four States have been obtained." Notwithstanding this statement, it is known that prior to the receipt of President Roosevelt's letters representatives of the operators and miners had been making the usual diplomatic moves to bring about a compromise before April 1 between the demands of the mine workers for an increase of twelve and one-half per cent. increase in wages, and the

counter-demand of the operators that the present wage scale, in force since 1904, should be continued. The President's intervention acted as an additional incentive for those representatives to reach an amicable settlement, and it is believed that the coming Indianapolis meetings will result in a reconvening of the Inter-State Joint Conference which adjourned in January without renewing an agreement for the scale year following April 1.

settling the differences between the soft-

coal operators and mine workers is fore-

Texas), and in some six other coal-mining

States having State or district agree-

ments, is also to be expected, as these

separate conferences usually follow in

general the action of the central competi-

tive inter-State conference. This does not affect the wages and conditions of

employment of the 155,000 mine workers

in the anthracite fields of Pennsylvania,

whose interests for the present are in the hands of the conference of hard-coal

operators and mine employees which

met in New York on February 15, but

which has not as yet come to any decision. The status of the negotiations between

Operators and Miners
Likely to Compromise

shadowed in the statement made public at Indianapolis on February 24 by Vice-President Lewis, of the United Mine Workers. In this statement Vice-President Lewis said, among other things: "You may accept one proposition as a fixed fact—that there will be no general strike in the mining industry April 1. The operators will restore the reduction accepted by the miners two years ago, and perhaps more." On this basis the compromise agreement foreshadowed by a reassembling of the operators and mine workers of the central competitive territory will bring to the mine workers of western Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois an increase of five and onehalf per cent. over their present wages, this being the percentage of the wage reduction in 1904. A similar increase in wages to the mine workers in the Southwestern territory (Missouri, Kansas, Arkansas, Indian Territory, and

The compromise

plan likely to be

agreed upon in

these representatives of the anthracite employees and operators looking to an agreement as to wages and conditions of employment in that industry following the expiration of the Anthracite Coal Strike Commission's award on March 31 is reflected in the statement that at this writing the demands of the miners are in the hands of the operators. Since the conference on February 15, at which sub-committees of operators and mine workers were selected by each side to carry on negotiations, practically all the intervening time has been consumed by the sub-committee of the mine workers in drawing up their formal demands, and last week it was announced that these had been transmitted to the operators' sub-committee and were being discussed by its members. What these demands are the public has not been informed, and the only means it has had of even conjecturing as to the issues between the two interests engaged in the production side of the hard-coal industry are the inferences to be drawn from the letter of President Willcox, of the Delaware and Hudson Company, in reply to President Mitchell's request for the conference. This is the only letter of all the correspondence between the mine workers' officials and the hard-coal operators the contents of which have become public. Judging from the questions which President Willcox discusses in his letter, the demands of the mine workers upon the operators are for an eight-hour day for specified classes of employees, an increase in wages, recognition of the United Mine Workers of America, and a reorganization of the Anthracite Board of Conciliation. All of the representatives of the anthracite employees through whom the negotiations with the operators are being carried on are officials of the United Mine Workers of America, the significance of this statement being in the fact that, whether the operators "recognize the union" or not, it is that organization, for all practical purposes, with which they are dealing. This being plain, it is not believed that the officials of the miners' union will insist upon formal recognition, and this of course removes one of the strongest obstacles to a satisfactory ending of the present negotia-

tions. In view of these negotiations between the mine workers and operators as to the division between them of the price the consumer is compelled to pay for hard coal, The Outlook regards as pertinent the question, Why is not the consumer of coal represented in a matter of such vital concern to him? The next step in the formation of the industrial State ought to bring with it a satisfactory answer to this question.

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Labor Leaders
Charged with Murder

The recent arrest in Denver of the President and Sec-

retary of the Western Federation of Miners on the charge of inciting the murder of ex-Governor Frank Steuenberg, of Idaho, opens a new chapter in the strange and thrilling history of the labor war in the mining States. Governor Steuenberg was slain at the gate of his own home on December 30, 1905. The present Governor of Idaho has issued an official statement in which he says that one Harry Orchard, the actual perpetrator of the murder, has made a full confession as to the manner and motive of the assassination, telling of the plans made and giving the names of those making them. Orchard confesses that this was his third attempt to kill Steuenberg; and it is alleged that he has also told of twenty-six murders growing out of the war between miners and mine-Among those who are implicated by these confessions are President Charles H. Moyer and Secretary W. D. Haywood, of the Western Miners' Federation, and the Idaho authorities declare that they have other evidence of guilt to confirm the confession of Orchard, while Governor Gooding, of Idaho, asserts solemnly that his only object in procuring the extradition of the accused labor leaders from Denver is to secure justice, and that there is no thought of punishing the innocent or waging war on any labor organization. The arrests have created a great sensation in Colorado, Montana, and Idaho, and have caused a revival of the recriminations as to violence, lawlessness, and oppression which marked the miners' war-for it was really little less than war. Among

the acts alleged to have been done by striking miners against non-union men were the intentional derailing of trains, the destruction of fourteen men by dynamite at Independence, the use of infernal machines, and the dropping of a cage with fifteen non-union miners in it down a 1,400-feet shaft. Secretary Haywood has often been accused of inciting violence (he is said to be really a greater power in the unions than President Moyer), but so far legal proof has not been adduced, and the charges have been strenuously denied. We need hardly say that the present accusation of murder is not to be accepted as true, and that until a jury has passed upon the evidence no one has a right to assume that these men are guilty. It may once more be pointed out, however, that the worst enemies of the labor union are those who incite or countenance violence or disregard of law and order. Not only must the non-union laborer be protected to the last point in his personal and civil rights, but the law-abiding union laborer must be protected from the public suspicion and discredit that fall upon him when violence occurs in labor troubles.

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In the case of Franklin Legal Liability Union No. 4 vs. The of Incorporated People, referred to in Trades Unions The Outlook of February 10 (page 283), the decision against the Union has been, on appeal, affirmed by the appellate court. In this case the Union was incorporated, and there was evidence showing corporate acts of the Union in violation of the injunction. Whether the evidence was sufficient to make the organization responsible for the illegal acts of individual members was one of the questions in the case, and on this question the court was divided in opinion. The majority of the court say in their opinion: "We think the evidence clear and unequivocal that Franklin Union No. 4 was a party to the conspiracy alleged in the bill to exist, and it was properly found guilty of a violation of the injunction." The minority of the court, on the contrary, say: "That the evidence does not show that Franklin Union No. 4, in its corporate capacity, entered into any combination with any person or persons to do an unlawful act or to do a lawful act by unlawful means, or that the Union did anything in violation of the commands of the writ of injunction." From the imperfect reports of the case before us we do not think that any principle is decided in this case except the principle that when there is adequate evidence that an incorporated trades union—and the same principle would apply to any corporation—is proved to have participated by its corporate acts in illegal conduct, it can be held responsible by the courts and subjected to legal penalty; and in this principle there is, of course, nothing

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At the last session of The Price of Gas the New York Legisin New York lature a committee was appointed to investigate the subject of gas and electric lighting in the city of New York. As a result of the report of this committee two bills were introduced in the Legislature, one fixing the maximum price at which gas might be sold to the public at eighty cents per thousand feet, and the other creating a State Commission on Gas and Electricity which was empowered, among other things, to fix the maximum rate which any lighting company in the State might charge. The former bill was defeated by the powerful lobby representing the gas interests, but the latter was passed. A bill was also passed making the price for gas sold to the city for public lighting purposes seventy-five cents per thou-The State Commission, after a sand. long and careful investigation of the conditions in New York City, has filed orders fixing the maximum rate for the borough of Manhattan for the next three years at eighty cents per thousand feet. This price was arrived at by determining the cost of the manufacture and distribution of gas to consumers, and adding to this amount enough to provide for a reasonable return to the company upon the actual value of the property owned by the company and used in the manufacture and distribution of gas. This return was fixed by the Commission at eight per cent. of the

value of the property. In determining the margin of profit which the companies shall be allowed to make, the Commission laid down two important principles: First, the return of eight per cent., which the Commission believes to be reasonable, shall be computed, not upon the capitalization of the company, but upon the actual capital employed in the manufacture and distribution of gas. in determining the amount of this capital, the value of the company's franchise shall not be included. It is contended by the companies that as they are compelled to pay taxes on their franchises, the value of these franchises should be considered in arriving at the amount upon which the companies may properly make a profit. The Commission, on the other hand, believes that these franchises, granted by the people without compensation, should not be capitalized against the public, thereby compelling the public to pay a profit upon the value of the favor granted by it. The franchise tax paid by the corporation is charged against the public as an expense of operation, and is therefore, in reality, paid by the consumer. The order of the Commission fixing the price is subject to review by the court, a provision which will undoubtedly be availed of by the gas companies. A bill fixing the same price, similar to the one defeated last year, has passed the Assembly and is being pushed in the Senate. It should be enacted promptly, for it will reinforce the action of the Commission and make it reasonably certain that the new price will go into effect without delay.

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The New York Leg-Removing a islature has passed Dangerous Nuisance the bill requiring the New York Central Railroad to put its freight tracks on Eleventh Avenue in New York City into a subway. These tracks have for years been an obstruction to traffic, often an obstacle to the successful fighting of fire, and always a menace to life and limb. They are a relic of days when Eleventh Avenue was a road running through uninhabited lands on the outskirts of the city, and constitute a valuable object-lesson on

the folly of granting perpetual franchises anywhere in a city. The measure provides that the Rapid Transit Commission shall prepare, in agreement with the railroad company, a plan for a subway under the present tracks, to be built at the expense of the company. In return for a franchise to operate such a subway, the railroad shall surrender all its rights to the street through which it now runs, and shall remove from it all its tracks. The plan and franchise must be approved by the Board of Estimate and Apportionment before they become effective. In case the railroad company refuses to agree upon a plan with the Commission within a year, the Commission is directed to condemn the rights and franchises of the company to operate the road, and to cause the tracks to be removed from the street. It is reported that the counsel for the railroad has notified the city officials that if the bill becomes a law, by the signature of the Mayor and the Governor, it will cost the city a hundred millions of dollars; the company will compel the city to condemn its franchise, and will be able to show that it is entitled to that amount as compensation. The right under which the railroad now uses the avenue is, however, a doubtful one, and if the matter came before the courts it is by no means certain that the company would be found entitled to any compensation.

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For many years the So-The Trouble ciety for the Prevention "S. P. C. A." of Cruelty to Animals has been one of the most useful and widely honored philanthropic organizations of New York City. The principles upon which it was established, and its reformatory work, not only in the protection of dumb animals. but in the development of humane and merciful feelings in the community, have made its founder, Henry Bergh, one of the National figures that Ameri-The Society was cans like to honor. established by Mr. Bergh in 1866, in the face of ridicule and skepticism, but when he died in 1888 he had the satisfaction of seeing the Society placed upon a firm and effective basis, and of know-

ing that the laws for the protection of animals which he had been instrumental in enacting had been adopted by forty States in this country as well as in several foreign countries. It is very unfortunate, therefore, that the Society finds itself to-day the target of serious public and private criticism. The charges are that it has grown slack and indifferent in its work, that its management is autocratic and unsympathetic, and that its income, which is a handsome one—for the Society has grown very popular—is mismanaged or unwisely applied. No corporation, least of all a public and benevolent one, can afford to ignore charges of this kind when they attain such volume and are supported by such authority as are found in this case. The President of the Society, Mr. John P. Haines, is openly accused by some of the very best and most public-spirited citizens of New York of making or attempting to make the Society a close corporation in which he shall exercise despotic power. It is charged that he declines to have the accounts audited. and that he "packed" the recent annual meeting of the Society with paid employees so as to vote down a resolution calling for a complete investigation. is impossible for The Outlook to form any judgment upon the facts presented to it as to the charges of inefficiency and financial mismanagement, but it is very clear to us that Mr. Haines is seriously injuring himself as well as the Society by refusing to give the fullest opportunity for a complete and thorough investigation of the charges We have and of the Society's work. had too recent an example of the personal disaster which followed the attempts to "whitewash" some of our great insurance corporations not to see the folly of trying to stifle by strategy the desire of the directors and members to know in fullest detail how the Society does its work. As the Society receives a large income from State or city funds, it is possible that a legislative inquiry may be made. At all events, it is to be hoped that, if Mr. Haines cannot be persuaded to see that he is pursuing a mistaken course, the managers and members will take steps for a reor-

ganization of the Society. Its work is of so fine an order that public interest in it ought not to be chilled nor its successful continuance hampered by public doubt and suspicion of the wisdom, ability, and humane sympathy of its executive head.

Apparently because

Reaction

municipal reform is Against Privilege not progressing rapidly enough, Mr. Joseph M. Patterson last week notified Mayor Dunne, of Chicago, that he resigned immediately as Commissioner of Public Works. His letter of resignation is a document of some importance because it expresses a feeling that is growing in intensity, especially in the Middle West. It is a feeling of dissatisfaction with the law which Mr. Patterson's letter interprets. Mr. Patterson was bred in an environment of conservatism. He is a young man of means, educated, forceful, a natural executive. Following his convictions, he supported Mr. Dunne when, candidate for Mayor, he raised the issue of "immediate" municipal ownership. In turn, Mr. Patterson was made a member of Mayor Dunne's administration, and he proved himself to be most efficient. In spite of his success, however, he has withdrawn in disgust with the conditions he felt constrained to fight. In his letter he cites instances in which he encountered corporations impregnably secured against attack in spite of their thefts of public property. "The whole body of our laws," he writes, "as at present framed, are ridiculous and obsolete. They are designed always to uphold capital at the expense of the community." Legal delay by appeal to the courts he finds to be the effective weapon of corporate wealth. Money, he believes, has become allpowerful. He therefore concludes that "ownership from which money springs should be invested in the whole community." He is not sure that he is a Socialist; but he accepts that label, and withdraws from the municipal government. He thus retires from the active combat against unjust privilege for the sake, apparently, of a party name concerning which he himself is doubtful. Inconsistent as his withdrawal is, his letter is indicative of a condition which is widespread and threatening. Michigan, for instance, is, by its own Constitution, deprived of the power to own, or to allow its cities to own, street railways. Valuable franchises are about to expire in Detroit, but the companies seem to have the city at their mercy. The cumbrous process of amending a constitution and the inclination of courts to make decisions on technical points in favor of existing privileges are thus coming to be popularly regarded as inimical to popular rights. It is not the part of wisdom for either legislatures or courts to disregard this feeling. No one has a right to ask the courts to disregard or set aside the law; but we have a right to ask that they will give to it a free interpretation, and in the interest of the rights of the common people rather than in that of special privileged classes.

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The violence and rioting Race Riots in of last week in Springfield, Ohio, like the lynching in the same city two years ago, are the outbreaking of a spirit of lawlessness and bad citizenship for which the people of the place as a whole must hold themselves responsible. Race hatred is an evil that may exist anywhere, North as well as South; there are certain districts in New York City, for instance, where the less desirable elements of both races are mingled, and where more than one little race war has broken out more than once—quickly quelled, to be sure, but fierce while it lasted. But a soundly governed municipality will not permanently let such an evil fester. In Springfield the locality of the riots is called the "jungles," and is described as a notorious quarter filled with negro haunts of vice and criminal resorts. The town that lets such an infested "jungle" flourish undisturbed must accept the consequence. The trouble last week began with the shooting by two negroes of two white men. An attempt to seize and lynch the negroes was thwarted, and the mob marched to the negro quarter, wrecked and burned two saloons, cut the hose when the fire department tried

to subdue the flames, chased and assaulted negroes indiscriminately, and brought battering-rams to bear on the wretched "shacks" of the "jungle." The spirit of the mob may be judged from the statement that "the original plan of the mob, according to some of the members, was to get Dean [one of the negroes accused of shooting] out of the jail, pull him at the end of a rope to the railroad yards, tie him to the rails, and let a switch engine run over him.' For three or four days the rioting, burning, and violence continued, and the reports remind one of the descriptions of the Civil War draft riots in New York. The authorities called out eight companies of militia, tried to close the saloons, and broke up by police and soldiers all large gatherings of people. Still there were frequent instances of misconduct and attempts at house-burning, and it was feared that, if one of the white men originally wounded should die, the outbreak might be renewed with increased force. The forces and associations which stand for law and order held meetings to urge a firm stand by the authorities, and it was openly declared that the present conditions in Springfield are due to politicians catering to negroes and low whites and to the non-enforcement of laws.

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Last week the Russian The Russian Socialists raised the boy-Duma cott and decided to take part in the elections for the Duma, or Parliament. The reason for this change of front was "their realization that the Duma will be an accomplished fact" because of an additional Imperial manifesto concerning it published last week. The previous manifestoes have been sufficient to convince Conservatives. Moderates, Liberals, and Constitutional Democrats of the reality of the Emperor's proposal. If the Social Democrats had been more wisely led, they would have accepted, as have other parties, the provisions of the Czar's proposal, not only as assuring for the first time in Russian history a National Assembly to the people, but also as forming a standing-ground from which to press for further reforms. That they did not even grudgingly accept the manifesto is largely the fault of the Polish leaders of the party majority, for not all the rank and file were so fatuous. Hence for four months we have seen the amazing spectacle of a large section of the people obstructing the very reform which was to bring them freedom and liberty. With this doubtless in mind, in a recent address before the Academy of Political Science at Philadelphia, Baron Rosen, the Russian Ambassador, said:

Impartial history will take into account that, in a time of great political upheaval, men's minds are apt to lose their balance, and that, in the fever-heat of political passions long confined and at last unloosened, deeds will be done that will fill some day with burning shame the hearts of the very men who committed them. But severe will be the verdict of history on all those who, whether for selfish ends or blinded by political fanaticism, have been inflaming the passions of the easily deluded (because politically and economically ignorant) masses, thereby doing their best to defeat the noble endeavors of the sovereign and his govern-ment peacefully to lead the country into the path of constitutional liberty based on the reign of law and order.

Baron Rosen declared that the Imperial manifesto,

Opening to the Russian people the gates of freedom, never to be closed again, is an event deeply affecting the future of a country equal in size to one-sixth part of the habitable globe and the destinies of one-tenth part of the human race. By the side of the liberation of the serfs this is the greatest . . . act ever accomplished by a Russian sovereign.

The Czar's manifesto last week definitely creates a legislative and not a merely advisory body, for it provides that

No law will hereafter be effective without the approval of the National Assembly and

Council of the Empire.

The latter body will consist of an equal number of appointed and elected members, taken from the clergy, nobility, zemstvos, Academy of Science, universities, trade and

There will be two houses, both of which will have power to introduce legislation which does not affect the fundamental laws of the

The annual sessions will be convoked and

closed by Imperial ukase.

Both the Council of the Empire and the National Assembly will have the right to ask Ministers regarding alleged unlawful acts. The sessions will be public.

In this connection we note that Count Witte, the Premier, has apparently triumphed over the reactionary tendencies recently and outrageously represented by the Minister of the Interior, and has issued a circular to the provincial Governors instructing them not to interfere in the coming elections, and announcing that the activity of the police will be limited to prevent illegal voting. The eyes of the whole world are fixed with keener and more sympathetic interest than ever on the transition of the Russian Government from autocracy to constitution-

The oppression of the Jews The Jews in Russia has long been a in Russia cause of wonderment to other No Iew in Russia may buy land or farm it; he may not live in the country, and only in certain parts of a town. He may not be a schoolmaster or professor, or even a teacher in a Christian family; he may not be educated at a public school or university, unless he is included among the Hebrew "exceptions," about five per cent. of the whole student number, though in Odessa ten per cent. has been granted. He may not sit in a town council; he may not be an officer; he may hold no State appointment. He may not even move from place to place without a special passport and special permission. The Jews are numerous in South Russia in general and in Odessa in particular. According to the correspondent of the New York "Sun" who has recited the above facts. the population of Odessa is about 600,-000; according to the London "Times's" correspondent, about 430,000; the important fact, however, is that a third of the population is Hebrew. The correspondent of the London paper declares that long before the recent massacre in Odessa the central Jewish organization sent emissaries from Poland to Odessa; that many Jewish students and other Jews openly displayed revolvers, for the emissaries had brought an arsenal with them; that revolutionary meetings had. been continually held at the university; that the students had organized a School Strike Association, by

which they had been able abruptly to dissolve many educational establishments; that they had made barricades in the streets and had instigated rioting there. The excited tone of the deliberations in the Municipal Council, however, was responsible for much of what followed. A passionate majority demanded of the president that the military and civil Governors of the town should be memorialized to withdraw the guards, the Council guaranteeing to enroll a citizen constabulary to maintain order. Governors naturally replied that without superior authority they could not comply, whereupon half a dozen policemen were At this moment the Freedom Manifesto arrived (October 30), but the popular passion was not appeased. flags were everywhere unfurled, and the Russian national emblem was dishonored by having all color except the strip of red torn from it. The mob even gained possession of the City Hall, mutilated the Emperor's portrait, and then declared the dynasty abolished and a South Russian Republic established.

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The Government's Record

Meanwhile other influences were at work in Odessa, General

Trepov started one influence, says the "Sun's" correspondent, when he urged the civil Governor, Neidhart, to allow a demonstration of the so-called Lovalist Black Hundred on November 1. Another influence was started, says the "Times's" correspondent, when the leaders of certain workmen's unions were informed by the police that the cause of all the trouble was the Jewish question the Jews demanding freedom and equality, and yet, gaining these by the Imperial manifesto, now demanding a republic; that vodka, the Russian whisky, helped to stimulate this sentiment; that police emissaries, disguised as workmen, led parties of workmen and dock hangers-on to the Jewish poorer quarters, and instigated plunder of property—an easy task, first, because of race hatred, and, second, as the "Sun's" correspondent informs us, because the fire at the time of the Odessa mutiny last summer destroyed part of the docks, entirely burning away the

wooden viaduct upon which the dock railway runs along the whole face of the port; furthermore, there was distress not only among the dockers, but among all the lower class of laborers. The average wage for unskilled labor in Odessa is only forty cents for a ten hour day, and life in that town is more expensive than in most Russian cities. The Jews defended themselves against their attackers with unexpected strength. The result was a horrible carnage. Leading Jew merchants vainly telegraphed to Count Witte, the Premier, says the "Times's" correspondent; and Baron Kaulbars, the military Governor, also turned a deaf ear. The latter is credited with having dryly remarked: "I have orders that this freedom for which you have schemed and agitated shall be tested for three days without interference from me." When the three days of unparalleled license to the assassin were over, General Kaulbars marched his battalions into the street, and order was restored. In a later issue of the "Times" Rabbi Gaster, of London, denies that emissaries had been sent from Poland. but admits that ever since the Kishinev atrocities the Jews had naturally banded together for protection and self-defense. He also challenges the statement of the "Times's "correspondent that about four hundred lews had been killed, declaring it to be nearer four thousand. In a still later issue of the "Times" the Odessa correspondent gives authority for the statement that the Jews had long been arming, and had ultimately armed between four thousand and five thousand He shows from the cemetery records that only three hundred Jews were actually killed, but declares that of the forty thousand persons rendered homeless and destitute the vast majority were Jews, and that of these a great proportion were inoffensive people. It is gratifying to learn from the "Sun's" correspondent that not only has much relief come from outside contributions, but also that the town of Odessa has already spent \$75,000 in that direction, and has voted as much again for the maintenance of the distressed. While the exact facts are still in doubt, it is certain that Odessa has suffered sorely.

Missionaries and Merchants in China The missionary disaster at Nanchang, China, is now declared to have been due to a quarrel

between a Roman Catholic priest, who, according to the treaty of 1897, was exercising civil functions as a taotai, and the natives. The latter held a massmeeting, which was succeeded on the following day by a riot, during which the property of the Roman Catholics was burned. Six priests and two members of a Protestant family were killed. The Chinese Governor attempted to check the riot and rescue the missionaries. Most of the French Roman Catholic, English Protestant, and American Methodist missionaries found refuge, many of them at Kiukiang, to which point American ships had been ordered up the Yangtse River. The cause of the Nanchang disaster, like the causes of those at Lienchau, Changsha, and Changpu, is thus seen to have been proximately Mr. Rockhill, American Minister local. to Peking, telegraphs that there are not more missionary disturbances than usual, and Mr. Bland, the London "Times" correspondent at Shanghai, says that Boxer outbreaks are unlikely, but adds that "organized obstruction appears probable:" he may refer both to the opposition now manifested by the Chinese to all commercial undertakings in the Empire by foreigners, and to the antidynastic feeling. Interesting testimony is at hand from the Chinese press itself. The "North China Herald" says that "the recent riots are but manifestations of tendencies universal throughout the Chinese Empire;" the "Peking and Tientsin Times" declares that Chinese suspected of anti-dynastic tendencies are to be immediately arrested; according to Dr. Sun-Wat-Sen, the South Chinese agitator for reforms, this will affect four-fifths of China's population. The "Overland China Mail" confirms the reports that the sluggish life of inland China has been stirred both by antiforeign and anti-dynastic agitators. While this agitation may not always affect the missionaries, there is perhaps some significance in the fact that the four missionary disasters above mentioned have occurred in southern China, where anti-

foreign feeling is especially strong and where antipathy to the reigning Manchu dynasty, which once showed itself sharply in the Taiping rebellion, has long been smoldering. A chief reliance of those who expect protection for missionaries and merchants, as well as for the Imperial Government itself, may be found in the veteran Viceroy Chang-Chi-Tung, who still holds his great power at Hankau, governing the two important provinces of Hunan and Hupe. In military reform he has been doing on a smaller scale in the Yangtse Valley what Yuan-Shi-Kai, Viceroy of the Province of Chili, has accomplished there. Chang-Chi-Tung was the one Viceroy who, because of the Boxer riots in 1900, did not lose his head, physically or officially.



Church and State

Pius X. has now taken two important steps concerning the status

of the Roman Catholic Church in France. According to a despatch from Rome, he has issued a papal encyclical condemning the law which provides for the separation of the Church and State in France because it is repugnant to the Church's divine constitution, because the public exercise of worship is intrusted to lay associations, and because the freedom of the Church is submitted to the will of public officials. A few days later, at a secret consistory, the Pope created nineteen French bishops in the dioceses made vacant by reason of the recent Franco-Vatican struggle. Thus, despite the encyclical, French Roman Catholics may congratulate themselves on being again provided with bishops. As to the recent disturbances in the churches, the opinion of some distinguished French Catholics is worth quoting. Speaking for those somewhat conservatively inclined. M. Ferdinand Brunetière, editor of the "Revue des Deux Mondes" and one of the present leaders of French Catholicism, condemns any priests who may have encouraged the recent anti-Government demonstrations. While he shares the indignation of Catholics against the separation law, he sees no infringement of their rights in the operation of the inventory, which he declares to be merely

the legal way of preparing the devolution of Church property to the "associations cultuelles "required to be formed by the State to control the Church property, unless, indeed, it is desired that it should become State property. M. Brunetière points out that the fact of an inventory having been taken must tend rather to hamper than to facilitate any meditated spoliation; furthermore, now that the Government has begun inventories, he recognizes the necessity to finish the list. Speaking for the liberal Roman Catholics, another equally eminent Frenchman declares that the vast majority of Roman Catholics in France are loyal both to Church and State; they recognize the immeasurably enhanced spiritual force henceforth to be exercised by the Church because of its liberation from the former State control obtained by the Government's right to nominate candidates to vacant sees in return for a money equivalent; they also believe that the State will gain as much in its liberation from the clerical intrigues aimed at its overthrow-intrigues never characteristic of the Roman Catholic Church in France as an entirety. As to the recent disturbances in the churches, says this personage, when such a frank monarchist as Cardinal Richard, Archbishop of Paris—the head of the Roman Catholic Church in France-shows a loval and courteous submission to the State, no ecclesiastic of lesser rank should dare do otherwise.

Professor Samuel Pierpont Professor Langley, Secretary of the Langley Smithsonian Institution, who died at Aiken, South Carolina, last week, after a short illness, was one of the bestknown scientists of the day. His connection with the Smithsonian Institution had borne fruit in many directions and had greatly increased the usefulness and advanced the authority of that institu-For many years he was a devoted student of solar phenomena; and in dealing with the special problems presented in this field his most valuable service to science was rendered. was specially interested in the endeavor to analyze the luminous cloud-covering of the sun, examining its spectrum and

making charts which were important contributions to the knowledge of the subject. In order to achieve these results he had perfected the bolometeran instrument which was of extreme delicacy when he took it in hand, and in its development, under his tireless study, recorded differences in temperature to the millionth of a degree. But while the heat spectra and other sources of radiation of the sun occupied a first place in Professor Langley's interest, public attention has been most directed to him of late years by reason of his experiments with flying-machines under the direction of the War Department. air-ship on which he had spent so much time and thought failed to realize his hopes, but the experiment was made on strictly scientific principles, and the failure was due, in the opinion of many students of the matter, to certain faults in the method of launching. What the aeroplane will do in the future remains to be seen. Professor Langley never lost faith in it, and it is reported that the machine is now in condition to be tried again, and that a trial will be made at an early date. Professor Langley was a very clear and delightful writer, with the rare faculty of dealing with technical subjects in untechnical language. The thoroughness of his knowledge and his mastery of clear and delightful English are shown in "The New Astronomy." He was a devout reader and a lover of literature, familiar to an unusual degree not only with the best English but with the best French writing. George Borrow was one of his familiar companions, and his collection of Borrow manuscripts is said to be extensive. He was not only an indefatigable worker, but a tireless writer, and his written contributions include more than one hundred titles. He was a member of many scientific societies, and had friends among scientific people in all parts of the world.

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General Schofield A month ago the death of Major-General Joseph Wheeler removed one of the most prominent of the Confederate Army veterans of the Civil War; last week the

death of Lieutenant-General John M. Schofield removed certainly an equally important veteran from the Union side of that war. General Schofield was a West Point graduate in a class containing Sheridan, McPherson, and Hood. In the Civil War Schofield's first duty was as mustering officer for the State of Missouri. He soon became well known as an artillery officer, rising steadily in rank and remaining with the Department of the Missouri until 1864, during which period he organized the State militia and forced the Confederates south of the Arkansas River. General Grant now put him in command of the Army of the Ohio, thus placing him at the head of a force of 17,000 men forming the left wing of Sherman's army in Georgia. With this force Schofield took part in all the operations of the Atlanta campaign, and after its termination, going to the assistance of Thomas in Tennessee, found himself opposed to his West Point classmate Hood, whom he defeated disastrously at the battle of Franklin. Schofield's "gallant and meritorious service" at this battle gained for him the rank of Brevet Major-General. His forces captured Fort Anderson, Wilmington, and Kinston, and formed a junction with Sherman at Goldsboro. At the surrender of Johnston's army at Durham Station the following month Schofield executed the military convention of capitulation, received the arms, and paroled the prisoners. After the war Lincoln sent Schofield on a mission to Europe in relation to the presence of European troops on the American continent; the Schofield report had great weight in the Administration's maintenance of the firm front which finally resulted in the departure of the French from Mexico. In 1868 Schofield succeeded Stanton as Secretary of War, and was promoted to the rank of Major-General. For six years Schofield was Superintendent of the West Point Academy, and afterwards occupied various distinguished military posts. On Sheridan's death in 1888 Schofield became Commanding General of the Army. The rank of Lieutenant-General was revived and conferred upon him. As a man of sterling character and solid attainments, as an active officer in the field,

and as a military critic of acknowledged prescience and poise, General Schofield served his country long and well. He was a fine type of the scholar, soldier, citizen, and gentleman.

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Last week at Nash-The Student ville, Tennessee, oc-Christian Federation curred the fifth International Convention of the World Student Christian Federation. conventions are held once in four years. Their purpose is to enforce the missionary message to the student body throughout the world; to furnish information about the physical, mental, moral, and religious conditions and needs of the various races and nations: to interview and direct those inclined towards foreign missionary service; to organize these volunteers into a band of brothers. whose business it shall be to further the missionary propaganda; to stimulate general interest in all forms of missionary activity. The Federation is composed of national student organizations such as the American and Canadian Student Young Men's Christian Associations, the British College Christian Union, the Australasian Student Christian Union, and similar bodies. Toronto convention in 1902 was attended by forty Harvard men, the largest delegation present. This year, on the basis of the University's size, Harvard was entitled to forty-one representatives. More applied, however, than could be The same interest was accommodated. manifested in other colleges. When the Convention opened, there were present nearly five thousand auditors and delegates from the many universities, colleges, and seminaries upon which the Federation has brought its agency to bear with such thoroughness and constancy as to make an effective missionary impression. Upon the stage were seated leaders in the missionary work of practically all the Protestant Churches in Christendom, and the Convention was addressed by such orators, among others, as Mr. John R. Mott, Chairman of the Executive Committee; Mr. Robert E. Speer, Secretary of the Presbyterian Board of Foreign Missions; Dr. George Robson, of Edinburgh, Moderator of the United Free Church of Scotland; Mr. J. Campbell White, of Toronto, Secretary of the Forward Movement of the United Presbyterian Church; and Dr. Thomas F. Gailor, Protestant Episcopal Bishop of Tennes-The students and others interested in the Convention subscribed towards the expenses of the Student Volunteer Movement for the coming four years about \$85,000. But the most inspiring feature of the conference was the deeply religious spirit pervading the assemblage, a spirit which, we hope, includes an increasing realization that education as well as enthusiasm must be a vital part of the missionary's equipment.

A Lenten Meditation

The figure of the Christ in the wilderness appeals even more impressively to the modern than it did to the ancient The Orientals of his age were familiar with solitude, for it is through renunciation, withdrawal from the world and separation from its fortunes that the ancient way of release from pain and sorrow lies. The first stage in escaping from the great illusion of life is to flee The "wheel of life" whirls from life. the spirit through endless series of sorrows, until it disentangles itself from all relations with time and sense, and makes itself one with the Absolute. To the modern world, immersed in great and significant affairs, and driven on by the unescapable tasks imposed upon it. the desert and the wilderness seem unutterably lonely and desolate. men of the Middle Ages avoided deep woods, the summits of mountains, and all wild and remote places, and clung to one another in a world full of imaginary even more than of real enemies, so the men and women of to-day flee the solitary places and are eager to fight their battles together. In the wide, unpeopled waste the figure of the Christ stands out in strange and appealing majesty.

He did not seek remoteness and desolation after the Oriental manner, however; for he was bent not on escaping from life but upon mastering it, penetrating to its very heart and returning to it that he might fill all its courses with a deeper vitality. He did not withdraw from life: he went a little way out of it that he might re-enter it with victorious power. It was not to get away from sadness of spirit, misery of body, hardships of condition, that the Christ left the world, but that he might pierce these outward appearances and discern, what the Oriental has yet to learn, that pain and sorrow are not evils to be escaped, but forms of discipline to be accepted from a love so much wiser than ours that it has not only perfect tenderness but perfect courage He did not flee from the horror of sin, defiling life at its fountain sources, because he thought it an illusion, a nightmare of the imagination from which one might awaken himself in the silence of the desert. He knew that sin was a great and terrible reality, and he sought the companionship of God that he might return armed and equipped for the long warfare that should finally destroy it. He did not turn away with sinking heart from the specter of death haunting every home and shadowing every happiness; he went apart that he might come back to his fellows to raise their dead, to stand serene beside all the graves of the world, to be buried after the manner of his kind, and to come forth radiant and triumph. ant in the power of his Father, and to say with the mighty emphasis of his own resurrection to the hosts of the sorrowful and bereaved, "I am the Resurrection and the Life."

The Christ went into the desert not to save himself but to save the world: not to protest against the order of life but to open the eyes of men to its divine significance; not to escape from a Wheel of Life that was a vast circle of torture, but to show life as an ascending spiral whose final curve is in the presence of God. He went into solitude and silence that he might come back to be forevermore the companion of all who suffer, are cast down, oppressed, forsaken, or The wilderness was a place sorrowful. of sore trial to his spirit because he had to drink of the cup of sorrow which life puts to the lips of all its children. There is no loneliness which he did not know, no solitude with which he was unfamiliar, no isolation which he escaped, no sense

of being forsaken in which he did not share; but in the wilderness loneliness became the source of sympathy, solitude of tenderness, isolation of a passion for fellowship, the consciousness of being forsaken for a deep and abiding sense of the unescapable presence of God. The world was not an illusion to the Christ, it was a spiritual reality; the experiences of life were not mere delusions of a creature confused by temporary relations, they were the methods of divine education; pain and sorrow were not evils to be shunned, they were the tests and trials through which the immortal was slowly evoked out of the mortal. Christ pierced the illusion that the world is an illusion and discerned its divine reality; and in the light of the spiritual order which became clear to his spirit in the wilderness he came back to life, not that he might take men out of its meshes and entanglements, but that he might make them its masters and give it to them more abundantly.

Railway Rate Regulation

The newspapers muddle the railway rate regulation situation unnecessarily. It is not as complicated as some of them seem to think, and as perhaps some of them desire to make their readers think. The varying opinions can all be put into three classes.

First are those who think that the courts can render all the relief which the public needs. If any legislation is required, it is only law to make unlawful certain practices which have grown up and to expedite legal proceedings for their prevention.

Second are those who desire to see the Inter-State Commerce Commission given power, in dealing with inter-State commerce, to determine what is a just and reasonable rate, a power which the courts do not possess and which cannot constitutionally be exercised by them; but they also desire that the decision of the Commission shall be subject to a review by the courts in proceedings which would practically make possible a retrial of the whole issue decided by the Commission.

Third are those who wish no power to be given to the courts which they do not possess under the Constitution to review all executive and administrative, acts. It is not easy to say exactly what that power is, but in general terms it may probably be said that it is not power to retry the case already tried by the Commission, but is power to reverse any decision of the Commission on the ground that its interpretation of the law has been incorrect.

Mr. Roosevelt advocates the third view, some of his advisers the second; no one of his official advisers has publicly avowed himself as an advocate of the first view. Of course there are in each of these parties differences of opinion; but if our readers will keep in mind this simple statement of the fundamental principles, they will be able better to understand the issues as they are sometimes not very clearly or intelligibly debated by Washington correspondents and in daily press editorials.

The Joint Statehood Bill

The Joint Statehood Bill, which provides for the admission of Arizona and New Mexico as one State, and Oklahoma and Indian Territory as another State, will, it is announced at this writing, come before the Senate for action on the 9th of March. This agreement probably means that the debate on this measure will then be opened and carried on without the intervention of any other business until a conclusion can be reached. In answer to some correspondents, The Outlook here redefines its position upon this bill.

We reaffirm our conviction that the question whether any Territory shall be admitted as a State and how it shall be admitted is one to be determined primarily by the Nation, not primarily by the people of the Territory. The Congress representing all the people has both a Constitutional and a moral right to determine whether such a Territory shall be divided into two or more States, or

whether, if there are two or more Territories, they shall be united into one State. Such questions are to be determined primarily by a consideration of the interest of the people of all the States, not by a consideration of the opinions of the population which happens at the time to be residing within the Territory.

But while this is true, it is also true, as a general proposition, that it is not for the interest of all the States that any Territory should be converted into a State or a part of a State against the will of the people who reside in that Their will to come in is not Territory. at all conclusive of their right to come in: but their will to remain out raises a very strong presumption that they should be permitted to remain out. The coercion into the Union of a reluctant population is Constitutional, but is rarely expedient. The right of the Congress to enact a law converting a Territory into a State cannot, in our judgment, be successfully controverted; but only extraordinary circumstances can make it wise for Congress to exercise that right against the will of the people inhabiting the Territory.

There are indications that there is a considerable sentiment in the Indian Territory, especially among the Indians and their friends, against union with Oklahoma. How strong this sentiment is we do not know, though we judge that it is probable that a majority of the inhabitants of the Indian Territory would prefer to come into the Union with Oklahoma as a State than to remain as a Territory. If so, we do not think that ancient treaties with the Indian tribes should prevent the Indian Territory from being so admitted, since, so far as we can judge, the rights and interests of the Indians can be better promoted under a State than under a Territorial organization. It is affirmed by the Arizona Anti-Joint-Statehood League that at least ninety-five per cent, of the people of Arizona are opposed to its admission as a State in conjunction with New Mexico. It is claimed that the people of that Territory would prefer to remain indefinitely a Territory rather than to be united in one State with New Mexico. The grounds of their objection to such

union have been stated in the columns of The Outlook. Whether these grounds are adequate or not, we are not able to see that there are any National interests dependent upon the immediate admission of Arizona as a State sufficient to overbear the wishes of the people of Arizona, if the Arizona Anti-Joint-Statehood League is correct in its opinion.

For these reasons, while we are quite clear that these four Territories ought not to be admitted as four States, and while, so far as we can see, the objections against the union of these Territories into the two States do not counterbalance the advantages, so that if we lived in Indian Territory we should probably vote for its union with Oklahoma, and if we lived in Arizona we should probably vote for its union with New Mexico, we are nevertheless of the opinion that the Senate should adopt the Foraker amendment, extending it so as to apply it to the Indian Territory and Oklahoma as well as to Arizona and New Mexico. The amendment so enlarged would provide for an election in all four Territories, and would admit Oklahoma and the Indian Territory as one State only in case the people of both Territories, voting separately, voted for such admission, and the people of Arizona and New Mexico as one State only in case the people of both those Territories, voting separately, also voted for their admission as one State.

In short, while we reaffirm the right of the Congress to determine under what conditions any Territory shall be admitted to the Union, we think the consent of the people of each Territory involved should be one of the conditions which Congress should require in the present case as a condition precedent to its admission.



Our statement last week, in the paragraph entitled "The Fight Against Race-Track Gambling," of the revenue derived from the "privileged stand" of bookmakers and poolsellers at the New York race-tracks requires correction. We are informed that last year the stewards changed the rule at a sacrifice of revenue, and now admit those gentlemen simply on tickets like everybody else.—The Editors.

The Spectator

On different occasions during the last few years the Spectator has spent several weeks at a time in the home of a Virginia farmer, a member of the middle class, a growing body at the South, where of old there was only the division of high caste and "poor whites" in the Caucasian population. The farmer was kindly, shrewd, honest, intelligent, industrious, prosperous. He was amazingly pious, quoting Scripture for everything he did. "From him that would borrow of thee, turn not thou away," he lived up to literally, but with discretion. To him the texts "In the sweat of thy brow shalt thou eat thy bread," and "He that will not work, neither shall he eat," meant what they He was his own hired man a great part of the time, because labor was not easy to get and not satisfactory when gotten. Sometimes his wife went with him to the field. "Not that I have to work in the crop," she said, "but my man wants my company."

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She was as pretty a thing as one might care to see. They had been married fourteen years, and he called her "Sweet." She had a hired girl to help about the house. Her husband allowed her to do no heavy work, none that would hurt her, on the farm. . Knocking down corn-stalks, tying fodder, dropping corn or tobacco plants, gathering peas, loading wagons with fodder, and other agricultural offices, when continued for a reasonable time, involve no more labor than golf or tennis, and not as much as basket-ball, bag-punching, walkingmatches, and races across country, in which things the modern young woman indulges with pride, for the fun of it and for the good of her body. " Sweet," who knew naught of fashionable athletics, walked along beside her husband and knocked down corn-stalks, or followed his plow, dropping corn into fur-She was rosy and healthy. "Working in the field with my man is not nearly so tiresome as my indoor work," she would say. "My head aches when I work in the house too much. And my man needs my help." On an

afternoon the Spectator, looking out of his window, beheld her, in her pink print frock and pink sunbonnet, sitting on a load of fodder. When the wagon stopped in front of the barn, she stood up on the hay and tossed bundles into the loft, laughing and bandying words with her "man." "She is getting as much fun out of it as if it were tennis," the Spectator meditated.

3

One night the Spectator put down his pen and descended to the living-room. There he beheld by lamplight and leaping firelight a picture he longed to paint. White-oak splits littered the floor; brown farm baskets (browned by use and exposure) stood around, upside down, right side up, and sideways; and two happy folks were patching them with the new strips, or splits, that gleamed like white ribbons interwoven with the brown. It was like a scene in a kindergarten for grown-ups.

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Another night, when "Sweet" and her "man" were not to be discovered in the living-room, the Spectator, with fine perspicacity, walked out to the tobacco barn. While he does not use tobacco himself, he must confess that there is to his mind a most delectable fragrance hanging around these old Virginia tobacco barns in "curing" time. The interiors are picturesque with the dark weeds hanging overhead and all around like canopy and curtains, the glow of smoldering fire in the center of the earthen floor, the "hands."—strippers, graders, and tiers—sitting around, deftly twisting and turning the leathery leaves. In the past such work was done almost wholly by negroes. The Spectator saw in the rich mahogany gloom of the barn, feebly lit by two lanterns, the white man and his pretty wife. He went in and sat down by the man: "Can I not help?" "Well, I reckon maybe I can teach you to tie," was the surprised but cordial answer. "I didn't think town folks would like this sort of work." The Spectator profited by instructions, and, if he says it who should not, succeeded in doing his part fairly well, and received praises and congratulations with becoming modesty.

The Spectator rambled into a field which was being cleared of rocks. farmer's wife and her hired girl were tossing the smaller stones into the wagon, while the farmer was handling the larger ones. The hired girl was saying, in a spirit of rivalry, to her mistress, " Ef I can't beat you makin' good lightbread, I kin beat you th'owin' rocks in de waggin!" "Go slow! go slow!" said the farmer. "I don't want back-broken women around me! Sweet, you and Jinny Sue leave them big rocks alone, I tell you!" "Sweet," her slim body poised, her two hands holding a rock above her head, laughed back: "Don't you fret! You're the back-acher in our house-goin' out all sorts of weather in any sort o' shoes! I don't know I've got a back!"

The Spectator discovered the ox-cart at the edge of the woods, and "Sweet" and Jinny Sue picking up chips from ground covered with fragments of fallen "Would you like to help?" the trees. former asked the Spectator, with a merry twinkle. The Spectator helped, grateful for the invitation. "We'll store these under one of the sheds,", said she, "against a rainy day. And," in a burst of generosity, "you can get a basketful for your fire whenever you like. These fat-pine chips are fine for making a fire burn bright." An aristocrat of the old school riding by paused to "pass the time o'day." "Would you like to help pick up chips?" the farmer's wife asked him politely. He dismounted and "helped," selecting very large pieces of pine bark for his gatherings, stooping and bending laboriously in the task. "He don't know much about picking up chips," said she to me in an aside, "but then," apologetically, "he wasn't raised to it. He does the best he knows how."

Presently she uncovered a basket and treated us to a lunch of fried chicken and lightbread and pie, washed down with a glass of milk which had been kept cool in the spring near by. Evidently she regarded picking up chips as a festival. The Spectator has come to

look back upon it in that light. The smell of the woods and of the new chips, the vision of the green pines, red-leaved maples and sweetgums and lordly golden poplars on one side and the expanse of tan broomsedge on the other, are with him now, teasing him to flee again the dust, grime, rush of the city, and hie him where he may pick up chips to an accompaniment furnished by singing birds and cawing crows which sing and caw as if there was nothing else in this world to do but sing and caw.

From the farm-house the Spectator wandered by devious ways leading through pleasure resorts where people labored diligently to amuse themselves, and found himself presently at a little wayside hostelry where the proprietor's wife was her own cook, housemaid, and everything else, her servant having fallen ill, or quit suddenly, or otherwise failed her, and it being impossible to secure another for love or money.

In his room that night the Spectator was thinking of the farm-house. A timeworn, finger-worn Bible lay at his elbow. Many a guest had turned its pages. The Spectator opened it and read, "In the sweat of thy brow shalt thou eat thy bread," with a new understanding. "Is this a curse, after all? The college athlete does not consider the sweat of his brow a curse. The girl who plays basketball does not consider it so. Why should labor that God blesses, rewarding it with bread, be so considered? With love and peace, all labor is godlike, kingly, sweet, and joyful. Will it not come to pass that those who have not enough to do will reach out eagerly, tenderly, to hands that are overtasked and claim their share of work as duty, privilege, and pleasure?" A tired sigh just outside his window gave his philosophy a setback. Then these words, uttered by a lady boarder, floated in from the "piazza:" "May I not string those beans for you? And you go to bed; you've been up so long; you rose before the sun. My hands are tired of lying still, while yours have too much to do."

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FINLAND AND HER RELATION TO RUSSIA

BY BARON SERGE A. KORFF

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HE crisis that Finland has recently passed through and the manifesto of November 4 of the Czar restoring the old Finnish guarantees have completely changed the position of this small State and her relation to her greater neighbor.

The restoration of her old rights came to Finland not quite unexpectedly. Already Prince Obolensky's policy was characterized by the slackening of the system of Russification of his predecessor, General Bobrikoff. Now that the country has again her constitutional guarantees and Prince Obolensky is succeeded by Privy Councilor Gerard, an educated and trustworthy Governor, the relations of Finland to Russia have entirely changed, and the change is cordially welcomed both by the liberal Russian party and also by the Finns, although not by the Russian reactionaries, who look upon the Finnish constitution and the Finns' recently acquired liberty as a severe blow to their pride and to their

The administration of Bobrikoff was particularly galling to Finland, as the people had been accustomed to independence and freedom since the reign of the Emperor Alexander I. Her constitution and juridic relations to Russia have been well described in the works of Telliulk, Pillet, Despagnet, Brie, Fisher, and Lapradelle; they all agree on the question of the existence of the real union between the two countries being similar to the union between Austria and Hungary, or the former union between Sweden and Norway.

The Czar's manifesto of November 4 was the solemn restoration of Finland's old rights, and is so considered by the Russian Government, by all the liberal parties of Russia, and also, naturally, by the Finns.

The policy of Russification that lasted

for about six years had strained to the utmost the good relations of the two neighbors. All of General Bobrikoff's measures aimed at the introduction into Finland of the methods of the Russian bureaucracy, and the means employed were almost invariably compulsion and force.

The Russification consisted in compulsory teaching of the Russian language in the schools to the detriment of Finnish and Swedish, the mother tongues of the population; in the appointment of Russian bureaucrats and officials to all the important positions in the civil government; in the introduction of press censorship, not known in Finland since the eighteenth century; in the court-martialing of all those who tried, even passively, to resist Bobrikoff and his associates (later on such persons were deported, without trial, to remote Russian cities). All this was done with the object of reducing Finland to the position of a Russian province, and utterly regardless of the great racial and historical differences between the two countries.

The repressive policy of Bobrikoff and his associates was the more hateful to the Finns because they had been for nearly a century accustomed to full political freedom and liberty. Unlike the Russians, the Finns never knew slavery or serfdom, and until 1898 they knew of bureaucratic evils only by hearsay.

Under the constraint of Bobrikoff's rule the strong character of the Finn grew still stronger; his will had a better training; his ideals were focused on one point—the restoration of liberty, law, and order. The heavier the pressure of the Russian Government, the worse the action of Bobrikoff, the better the Finn learned to draw a line of distinction between Russia private and Russia official; and the worse the hatred grew against the latter, the stronger were the

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sympathies that were manifested for the former of these classes.

The stormy days of the November strike afforded strong proof of this, and showed plainly that no feeling of national hatred exists now, or ever did exist, between the two countries, though the Russian and the foreign press have for years past spoken so often and so much of the national dislike of the Finns for the Russians that it is difficult even now to persuade the world of the fallacy. The reactionary and official press of Russia endeavored to persuade the people that racial and national hatred existed, and offered that as a reason for the detested policy of Russification.

The events during the past months afford the strongest possible proof of the sympathy existing between the Finns and the Russians. During the strike one could see Russian soldiers and Finnish workmen going about the city arm in arm. Russian and Finnish children marched together in procession through the city.

At the University a new society has been organized, whose aim is to study Russian history, life, laws, and conditions.

On the day the manifesto was published, every shop on the main streets displayed Russian and Finnish flags and ribbons of the National colors draped together. The Russian relief concerts and money collections attracted many hundred Finnish marks. These are significant facts. The good understanding has undoubtedly grown very much stronger during the last months, for the Finns realize that the whole empire of Russia is struggling for freedom and liberty, and to throw off the yoke of the bureaucracy. With such a movement the Finns heartily sympathized, having so recently learned to know by their own bitter experiences the ways and means of bureaucratic government.

The natural consequences of this form of government and the result of the policy of generating national hatred are only too clearly demonstrated in the present conditions existing throughout the whole empire. The Baltic provinces are devastated, Poland is in a perpetual state of siege, and the Caucasus is in

open rebellion. Considering these facts, the calm evolution of Finland is certainly noteworthy.

The Czar's manifesto restored Finland's old order of government, provided for the summoning of the Diet, and referred to the latter the reform of the nation's representation.

And now as to the cardinal question of the future relations of the two countries to one another. From careful study and observation, I can confidently assert that not only does Finland not desire to separate from Russia, but separation would be decidedly detrimental to the best interests of both countries. Finland agrees to the union with Russia as it was outlined by Alexander the First. Russia has exclusive control of foreign affairs, the military and naval policies, and consequently the right of settling international questions. At the same time, the Czar, as Grand Duke of Finland, has the right to summon, open, adjourn, and close the Finnish legislature, and has at the same time a farreaching power in all legislative questions and in the administration of law.

The Governor-General, the highest executive officer in Finland, is and will be a Russian, responsible only to the Czar, who has the right of confirming the nomination of Senators. All military and naval forces stationed in Finland are under the direct orders of the Russian Minister of War. Those are the bonds that bind the two countries into a close union. Finland agrees to this union, and will maintain it—a union with Sweden being now impossible and undesired by the Finns.

Although Finland does not wish to separate from Russia or to break the union, she nevertheless stoutly defends her independence. What Finland desires is a separate legislative body, the independent administration of her internal affairs, and, in short, to stand his somewhat the same relation to Russia as that of Canada to England, which would be as advantageous to Russia as to Finland.

The main determining question of modern life is trade, and trade prospers only when peace is guaranteed. The administration of Bobrikoff and his colleagues did not and could not stimulate exchange between the two neighbors, their relation being too severely strained. The longer Bobrikoff remained in office the less became the exports and imports on the Russo-Finnish frontier. For the past year the conditions have materially improved, and exports and imports show a very large increase.

Finland imports from Russia foodstuffs, meat, and flour, and it sends to Russia paper, wood, iron, and manufactured goods. It is quite clear that when friendly relations are firmly established the trade of the two countries will prosper and develop, to their mutual benefit.

As the Russian press quite rightly pointed out, Russia must have the full right and opportunity to take requisite measures to protect herself against her enemies in case of war. A frontier within thirty miles of the capital and undefended is far too dangerous, as Finland fully realizes. Russia has a row of fortresses on the Finnish fjords, has the supervision of pilots, and the authority to mine all harbors and channels. She keeps stationed in Finland a whole army corps, and she can always use for military purposes the Finnish railway system. To these and similar rights the Finns have never objected.

Finland has free trade with Russia, and there have never been any customhouses on the frontier. Russia, on the contrary, having a high tariff, has to keep her Finnish border closed by cus-The extension of the Russian custom frontier to Finland is quite impossible. It would ruin Finland and be a great burden to Russia. It could not increase the revenue of the latter to any extent, and would cost millions of rubles to guard the Finnish coast, for topographical reasons. This question is so well understood by the Russian Government that even under the Bobrikoff régime it was proposed only by the most ignorant.

Such are the relations between the two countries. Among the unsolved questions which are agitating the Russian nationalistic party are these: the question of citizenship of Russians in Finland, and vice versa; the civil serv-

ice question; real estate ownership; and, last but not least, the military service of the Finns. The present laws give many privileges to the Finns, to which the Russians object. Russians have not the same positions in Finland that Finns have in Russia. This is certainly unjust, and was one of the reasons offered for the Russification of Finland. pily, both Governments realize the necessity for a speedy agreement on these points. It is evident that the only way to settle them is by a mutual understanding of the Legislatures of both countries. the Duma of Russia and the Diet of Finland. Only by the decision of the representatives of both countries can they be settled, and only in one possible way-full mutual equality. Only by such an understanding will the root of grievances be extirpated and the door opened to the broad path of mutual help and development of brotherly relations of the two countries on their way to culture and progress.

Peaceful as the present relations are, it is nevertheless unfortunate that these remaining points of difference cannot be settled in the near future; but both countries are now in full process of reorganization of their system of national representation, so that temporarily all other questions must remain in abeyance.

Finland's representative reform will be submitted to the Diet in February, but it will be several months before the new Legislature can meet.

The reform now under consideration by a special committee, of which many professors are members, includes universal suffrage of all citizens twenty-one years old, without distinction of sex. The Legislature will probably consist of one House, as in Norway.

The Russian Duma can hardly meet before May, and will at the beginning have so many serious questions to settle that the points referred to must be held in abeyance. Such a postponement, though undesirable, cannot be avoided, and we can only hope that both countries will exercise patience and wait until their representatives can meet and amicably settle the points of difference and not disturb the peace and good understanding by hasty and violent action.

OKLAHOMA AND INDIAN TERRI-TORY

BY GRANT FOREMAN

HE discussion by Congress of the proposition to admit Oklahoma and Indian Territory as a State suggests just one important question—Is that section of the country ready for Statehood? There is nothing in the attitude of Congress toward the subject to suggest any doubt that the people of those so-called Territories wish to be united in one State; just what they desire in the premises, in fact, seems to be of secondary consideration.

In the month of July, 1905, a call was made by the Chiefs of the Five Civilized Tribes for a Constitutional Convention to assemble at Muskogee, Indian Territory, on August 21, 1905. At this Convention there assembled one hundred and eighty-two intelligent representative men, both Indians and white, delegates from every section of Indian Territory, presided over by Pleasant Porter, Chief of the Creek Tribe of Indians. treaties with all the Five Civilized Tribes it is provided that all their tribal governments shall pass wholly out of existence on March 4, 1906. To anticipate this situation, to provide some form of government to take the place of their own, and to provide for local government for people of all classes, it was proposed by this Convention to draft a Constitution and ask for the admission of Indian Territory into the Union.

The Convention laid out its work in a methodical manner, and labored industriously for a month. At the end of that time it had framed a Constitution that would be a credit to any State in the Union; it named the proposed State Sequoyah, after the illustrious Cherokee of that name who invented the Cherokee alphabet; it nominated four members for Congress (two Republicans and two Democrats), to go to Washington and work for the admission of the State of Sequoyah under its proposed Constitu-

tion; it declared in favor of Statehood for Indian Territory separate from Oklahoma, and submitted the whole to the people of Indian Territory to be voted on November 7, 1905—the first general election ever held in Indian Territory.

There is little room for doubt that Indian Territory and Oklahoma are both prepared for Statehood. Either would make a State more populous than any other State at the time of its admission; as populous as any one of eighteen of the States at the present time, and equal almost in area to the average size State east of the Mississippi, with taxable property greater than that of any one of four or five States.

To appreciate the desire for independent Statehood in Indian Territory, one must understand the anomalous relation of this domain to the United States. While called Indian Territory, this country has not even a Territorial form of government; now that the tribal governments are stripped of most of their powers and jurisdiction, it has less of local or representative government than Porto Rico, Alaska, or the Philippines, while possessing a citizenship superior in intelligence and morals to that of many of the States. The government is administered at long range by the rules and regulations of the Interior Department and by the United States Courts for Indian Territory. The people have no voice in the enactment of laws for their own government; they have not even a delegate in Congress, as has Oklahoma. Chafing under this order of things, the people of this country pray to be delivered from any form of government not of their own making and administration. And there are many who think they see in the anxiety of the people of Oklahoma for joint Statehood an intention to take the reins of government in their hands if joined in a State with Indian Terntory, which would savor of the non-rep-

See editorial comment elsewhere.—THE EDITORS.

resentative government which is now so irksome to the people of Indian Territory.

If the Constitutional Convention referred to shall have accomplished no other result, it has furnished a powerful argument in demonstrating the fitness of the people of Indian Territory for Statehood, whether it be separate or ioint Statehood; it has taken a step toward Statehood far in advance of anything done or attempted by the people of Oklahoma; and if these people must go into a Constitutional Convention with Oklahoma, they have demonstrated their right to demand equal terms with her. To give Oklahoma any advantage in a Constitutional Convention or in any of the branches of a joint State would be manifestly unfair. Indian Territory, with a population equal to that of Oklahomaabout 750,000—is vastly richer in resources, of which many—notably oil, gas, coal, and asphalt—are being turned into commercial channels to the extent of many millions annually. It contains unknown wealth of granite and marble, lead, zinc, and other minerals; its agricultural output and its taxable property are both greater than those of Oklahoma. The people of Indian Territory revolt at the idea of uniting in Statehood with a community which may levy tribute upon their vast wealth of resources for the maintenance of State institutions where they are now located in Oklahoma: whether their apprehensions are well founded or not, the feeling exists.

It is claimed by the advocates of separate Statehood that Congress owes it to Indian Territory in order to keep its pledge that it will prevent the introduction and sale of intoxicants in Indian Territory. In various treaties and agreements this promise has been made and it has been faithfully observed: to such an extent at least that it truthfully may be said that a state of prohibition comes nearer existing in Indian Territory than in any State in the Union. These people say they want to be free to handle the liquor question and continue prohibition under the terms of their Constitution. rather than be delivered into the hands of Oklahoma, already committed to the unrestricted liquor traffic. It is not denied that, in treaties with each of the Five Civilized Tribes of Indian Territory, Congress agreed in the most solemn manner never to make any part of their lands part of any State without their consent.

The movement for separate Statehood was manifested in Indian Territory by a campaign of education announcing the principles and logic upon which it rests. The opposition both in Indian Territory and Oklahoma answered that it was an appeal to sentiment; that the Administration is opposed to the policy; that Congress will not admit two States made out of the two Territories, and that there is no use contending for it; and through the newspapers, of which the opposition controls a majority in Indian Territory, it reproduced numerous interviews and letters of Senators and Congressmen committing themselves, in advance of the meeting of Congress, to joint Statehood and discouraging the separate Statehood idea; and it employed every possible argument to persuade the voters to stay away from the polls on November 7. Yet the result of the election on that day. as announced by the election board upon the sworn returns of the election judges, was 56,279 votes for separate Statehood and the Constitution, and 9,073 votes against. Without election machinery, without rival candidates to stimulate voters, and with no revenues to defray the expense of such an election, a total vote of 65,352 votes cast is significant of a deep interest in the question by the people of Indian Territory.

The result of this election was made known to every member of Congress, to be calmly ignored both by the Senate and the House. It is claimed that a large amount of misinformation concerning the separate Statehood movement has been given circulation by the newspapers. Numerous journals over the country have stated repeatedly that the movement is promoted by the railroads, when the fact is well known in Indian Territory that the railroads are exerting themselves vigorously in the interest of ioint Statehood with Oklahoma. papers have, with favorable comment, reproduced statements made by joint Statehood papers to the effect that less

than 20,000 votes were cast at the Constitutional Convention, which, to one at all familiar with the facts, are palpably incorrect. There seems to have been a concerted effort to prevent any expression

by the people of their wishes in the premises, and to deny that expression, when made, the publicity to which it is entitled.

Muskogee, Indian Territory.

KING FREDERIK AT HOME

BY JACOB A. RIIS

HAD never met King Frederikthe Crown Prince he was thenuntil the summer of 1904, which we spent at Copenhagen. As a boy I had seen him often, and pulled off my cap to him, and always in return had received a bow and a friendly smile. But at home, and to speak to, I had not met him till that summer. We were at luncheon at our hotel one day, nothing further from our thoughts than princes and courts, when the portier came in hot haste to announce a royal lackey who wished speech with me. Right behind him up loomed the messenger, in his gold lace and with his silver-headed cane ever so much more imposing a figure than the King himself. "Their Royal Highnesses, the Crown Prince and the Crown Princess," so ran his message, "desired our attendance at dinner at Charlottenlund the next day but one."

"The dickens they do," I blurted out, fortunately in English, with a vision of silk hats and regalia of which I had none. But my wife pulled my sleeve and saved the day. "Would he thank their royal highnesses very much; we should be glad to come," was the way it went into Danish. Whereupon he bowed and went, leaving us staring helplessly at one another. I think we were both disposed to back out. But the children decided it otherwise. Of course we must go. Such an honor!

So we went. After all, it was simple enough. I just borrowed a top hat (that did not fit; I was glad to carry it in my hand in the presence of royalty, for it simply would not come down over my head; it was three sizes too small). The rest was easy. We drove out with the American Minister and his wife, who

were invited too. It was for a long time after a disputed question in our family whether it was the cross of Dannebrog I wore on my breast, and therefore me, the sentinels saluted; or the American Minister. But he wore no cross. My wife insisted mischievously that it must be his carriage. Could she have seen herself, charming princes and princesses alike with her sweet and gracious ways, as she did every one she met, there would have been no mystery. Where she passed, everybody was made glad. They saluted from sheer desire to do it. And then, we were guests of royalty.

Charlottenlund lies in the forest just outside Copenhagen, on the beautiful shore road. It blew in from the water, and the ladies, on account of their hats, preferred to ride backwards. And so, chatting and laughing, we wheeled into the palace grounds before we knew we were half way, and found ourselves heading a procession of royal carriages bent for the palace. They were easily known by their scarlet-coated drivers. We had barely time to change round, to get our wives properly seated, when the door of the carriage was yanked open and lackeys swarmed to help the ladies. In we went. Almost before we could draw breath a door was thrown wide, our names were announced, and the Crown Princess came forward with outstretched hand.

"It was very good of you to come out to us," she said.

Our entrance had been so sudden, due to the hustle to make way for the princes following close upon us, and in thought and speech we had been so far away during the trip, that the Danish greeting left me for the moment dumb, groping my way four thousand miles across the sea. Slowly and laboriously, as it seemed to me, I found the tongue of my childhood again, but awkward beyond belief. This is what it said:

"How very respectable of you to ask us."

The Crown Princess looked at me a moment, uncertain what to think, then caught the look in my wife's face, and laughed outright. At which the Prince came up and heard the explanation, and we all laughed together. The next moment the room was filled with their children, and we were introduced right and left. It was all quite as neighborly and as informal as if we had been at home. Fine young people, all of them; finest of them all Prince Carl, who is now King Haakon of Norway. Handsome, frank, and full of fun and friendliness, he was both good to look at and to speak with; and in that he resembled his father. They all have the slender youthful shape of the old King. But for his furrowed face and the tired look that often came into it in the last few years, no one would have thought him over fifty, though he was nearly ninety. The Crown Prince at sixty-one seemed barely forty.

My wife was taken in to dinner by a prince, a shy, boyish young fellow, whose great ambition, he confided to her, was to live in a New York skyscraper and shoot up and down in the elevator, which was entirely contrary to her inclinations, and she told him so. I was not so lucky, but I shall always remember that evening with unalloyed pleasure for the hearty and unaffected hospitality of our hosts and of everybody. The Crown Prince talked of America and its people with warm appreciation, and of President Roosevelt as a chief prop of the world's peace, at the very time when some people at home were yet shouting that he was a firebrand. He thought him a wonderful man, and we did not disagree. The thing that especially challenged his admiration was his capacity for work—for getting things done. That any one could get access to him in a nation of eighty millions, and get a hearing if he was entitled to one, seemed to him marvelous. He was interested in everything done for the toiler in our great cities, and heard with

visible interest of the progress we were making in the search for the lost neigh-The talk strayed to the unhappy conditions in Russia, the Jewish massacres, and the threatening unrest. My wife was expressing her horror at the things we read, and I began to feel that we were skating on very thin ice, seeing that the Czar was the Crown Prince's nephew, when I heard him say to her, with great earnestness, "You may believe that if my sister had the influence many think, many a burden would be eased for that unhappy people." my heart swelled with gratitude, for Crown Prince Frederik's sister, the Czar's mother, was the sweet Princess Dagmar whom every Danish boy loved when I was one of them, unless he were the sworn knight of Alexandra, her beautiful sister.

After dinner we strayed through the garden that lies in the shelter of the deep beech forest, and when it was bedtime the boys, including my wife's cavalier, came to kiss their father good-night. It was all as sweet a picture of family happiness as if it were our own White House at home, and it did us good to witness. I think our host saw it, for when we shook hands at the leave-taking he said: "You have seen now how happily and simply we live here, and I am glad you came. Now, take back with you my warm greeting to your great President, and tell him that we all of us admire him and trust him, and are glad of the prosperity of his people-your people."

He had expressed a wish to my wife to read our story, and I sent to London for a copy of "The Making of an American," which he fell to reading at once, according to his habit. They say in Denmark that he reads everything and never forgets anything, and has it all at his fingers' end always. I had proof of that when we next met. It was in Ribe. my old town at the North Sea, where he had come with the King and the whole royal house to open the Domkirke, restored after the wear and decay of nine centuries. I was coming out of our hotel at seven in the morning, and in the Square ran plumb into a gentleman in a military cloak, who had a young man for company, and a girl of fifteen or sixteen.
"Good-morning, Mr. Riis," said he.
"I hope you are well, and your wife, since last we met."

It must surely be that I am getting old and foolish. The voice I knew; there are few as pleasing. But the man—. I stood and looked at him, while a smile crept over his features and broadened there. All at once I knew.

"But, good gracious, your Royal Highness," I said, "who would expect to find you here before any one is up and stirring. You are really yourself to blame."

He laughed. "We are early risers, my children and I. We have been up and out since six o'clock." And so they had, I learned afterwards, to the despair of the cook at the Bishop's house where they were staying. He introduced his son and daughter. "And now," said the Prince with a smile that had a challenge in it, "where do you suppose we have been? Down at the river to look at the bridge where you first met your wife. You see, I have read your book. But we did not find it."

I explained that the Long Bridge had been but a memory these twenty years, but to me a very dear one, and he nodded brightly, "Give her my warm regards." She was glad when I told her, for her loyal heart had made room for him beside his sweet sisters from our childhood. When the lilacs bloomed again, I was alone, and he sent me a message of sorrow and sympathy. And because of that, for his liking of her, I shall always love him.

They told no end of stories of the delight he had given by this gift, so invaluable in a public man, of remembering and recognizing men, even after the lapse of years. One peasant, come to town to see the show, was halted by Prince Frederik in the market square, as was I, and greeted as an old comrade.

They had been recruits together in one regiment; for the royal princes in Denmark have to serve in the ranks with their fellow-citizens. They are not made generals at birth. In Copenhagen I was told that the Prince kept tab on all that went on in the Rigsdag, and the man without convictions dreaded nothing so much as his long memory; with reason, it would seem, for not long before, when a certain member of the Opposition made a troublesome speech, the Crown Prince calmly brought out his scrap-book and showed the embarrassed Minister where the same man had taken the exactly opposite stand half a score of years before. It is not hard to understand how a memory like that might become potent in the deliberations of a parliamentary body, particularly among a people with a keen sense of the ridiculous, like the Danes. However, they have something better than that. They are, above all, a loyal people, and King Frederik starts out with their real affection as his working capital. He is as popular as was his father, though in a different way. I have never seen anything more touching or more creditable to a people than the way the Danes put aside their claims when the dispute between them and King Christian's Ministers over constitutional rights became bitter, and the King, loyal himself to the backbone, would not let the Ministers go. "He is of the past that does not comprehend," they said, "but he is our good old King and we love him." And the clouds blew over, and the people and their ruler were united in an affection that wiped out every trace of resentment. The new King is of the present. He knows his people, and they trust him with the love they gave his father. does not need to be a prophet to predict for the prosperous Danish land happy days in store under King Frederik VIII. and his house.

A REMARKABLE PERSONALITY THOMAS K. BEECHER

BY W. S. B. MATHEWS

OMETIME in the early "seventies" an article appeared in the Chicago "Advance" giving an account of a certain new church building proposed by the congregation of the Rev. Thomas K. Beecher, in Elmira, New York. The building, according to this story, was to be unlike anything then existing, being intended for social and educational purposes quite as much as for the formally religious uses customary with church edifices. Besides the usual auditorium and Sunday-school room, this building had a gymnasium, a reading-room, a library, and in the upper stories of the after part of the church a suite of rooms designed for entertaining, the large ones for general purposes of the societies of the church, the smaller to be loaned to the poorer members, after due notice in advance, for their own personal entertaining of friends. There were suitable parlors, diningrooms, cloak-rooms, and kitchens, fully provided with utensils, crockery, etc. Here any person, upon receiving permission, could bring her supplies and give a dinner to her friends, with all the conveniences of the higher society, yet at no expense beyond the arbitrary outlay for service and articles of food. In short, the proposed Beecher Church in Elmira was meant to be, and in fact proved to be (and I suppose still is), one of the first, if not the very first, "People's Palaces" ever erected. All this was interesting. But this was not the point which most attracted me in the article.

The queer thing was the way the money had been voted and raised. All of us who do church business in evangelical circles know what an energetic "effort" it requires to denude a congregation of what it truthfully calls its "substance" in an amount sufficient to build a large church. And I had myself been living in the shadow of a large

enterprise of that kind. Hence my interest in this story, which was about as follows:

It appeared that a few Sundays previously Mr. Beecher, at the close of the Sunday morning service, made a few remarks. He said, substantially: "When I came to Elmira, the First Congregational Church was perhaps the worst church building in Elmira. That was twenty years ago. I think the building has held its own ever since. I do not think it will fall down for some time yet, although there is an apparent weakness in the roof over yonder, which I will have Brother Jones look at to-morrow and see whether it is still safe. Several times since I have been here the question of a new church has been advocated. I have always opposed the idea, because I knew that you were not ready. I did not wish you to get subscription on the brain, and run races to see who should put down the largest sum; nor was I willing to leave a part of the cost on mortgage. Whenever there is a mortgage on a church, the devil holds the mortgage, and the religious life in that church inevitably dies. A new church is not necessary to me. I can preach in the park in the warm weather and in a hall in winter; or I can do as the Lord himself did—preach from house to house. What I am here for is the life of religion in your souls, and preaching is but a minor question.

"Still, there are advantages in a suitable building. I have been talking with an architect, and I find that it is likely to cost about fifty thousand dollars to build such a church as I think we ought to have, if we have a new one. Therefore I am going to put it to you this morning to vote. On the table in front of the pulpit is a box of envelopes directed to me, and in each envelope is a card with blanks. Write your name and address. Then vote on the ques-

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tions: First, Do we need a new church, and are you in favor of building it now? Yes or No. Second, How much will you give in one payment towards it? Third, How much could you give in three payments towards it?

"Take plenty of time to think it over, and return the envelope to me within five weeks from yesterday. I will open them five weeks from to-day. If the majority decides to have a new church and the amount pledged is sufficient, we will have one. Do not tell any one how you mean to vote; do not talk it over with any one except your wife. What I want is a vote of individuals."

Within a few days the envelopes began to flow back; within the week all were back; yet Beecher was true to his word; he waited out his five weeks, then he opened the envelopes. The vote was practically unanimous for the new church, and the amount pledged aggregated about eighty thousand dollars. The church was forthwith ordered and was then building. The article was signed Mark Twain.

Now, Mark Twain in those days was not widely known as an evangelical worker or as a writer whose stories could be taken invariably at their face value. Therefore the wonderful story stood out forcibly, and created an intense interest to know about how much of it was true. for nothing had then been printed to throw light upon the processes of education which had been operating upon the Elmira congregation for twenty years. Being then a young man of confiding nature, I straightway wrote to Mr. Beecher, asking how much of the story was true. (I did not then know that Mark Twain was Beecher's brother-inlaw-they having, I believe, married sisters.) In due time I got a short note from Mr. Beecher, saying that within a few days he would be visiting in Chicago at his sister's, on Ann Street, and if I would call upon such a day he would be glad to tell me more about it.

Upon the hour I called. I found Mr. Beecher then about forty-five or fifty years old, a strong face, but not with the peculiar mouth of the orator, such as his brother Henry Ward Beecher had, and such as Henry Clay had in a strik-

ing degree. Some of the particulars given above were from what he told me then. I learned that he was to make an informal address that evening before the theological students of the seminary at Union Park. I asked and received permission to attend, and took a friend with me, upon whom the man and the address made as profound an impression as they did upon me.

The talk was made in a hall, a classroom, I think, Beecher remaining seated upon a low platform; the class numbered perhaps thirty or forty, nice serious fellows, maybe a trifle too serious in spots for perfect health. This happens sometimes.

He took for text the verse, "Beware of the leaven of Pharisees, which is hypocrisy." He went on to say that the word hypocrisy had undergone a change of meaning since the English Bible had been made, and had acquired later a meaning which was not what Christ had in mind. By hypocrisy Christ meant that state of mind in which the machine and its smooth working becomes an object for its own sake; it did not mean intentional insincerity. He thought that the Pharisees were perhaps the most sincere religionists of the Jews in the time of Christ; the trouble was not with their sincerity, but with their conception of religion, which they made out to be a matter of formal observances. thought the danger of the kind of hypocrisy which Christ meant to be peculiarly strong with priests, preachers, and ministers, who, standing as the immediate representatives of God himself, became filled with a sense of their own importance, even their indispensability; that this feeling suffused everything they did to such an extent as seriously to impair their usefulness, and in some cases destroyed it entirely. He then went on for some time with a beautiful discourse on the usefulness of the ministry and the privilege of assuaging sorrow and of awakening broken hearts to hope and new life. It was simply a talk by an old minister to a class of neophytes not yet entered into the work. It pointed out the danger, but at the same time magnified the office of the ministry in terms likely to last them a long time.

After the talk there were questions. One asked whether he thought it advisable to preach hell, i. e., the eternal destruction of the wicked. Beecher became extremely affected, and seemed likely to burst into tears. He controlled himself, and answered in a voice full of deep feeling that every man must decide this for himself. He, personally, had never felt himself at liberty to preach the doctrine, for fear of discouraging a seeking soul. At this, one of those very conscientious young men rose up and asked: "But, Mr. Beecher, would not you have us stand up for the truth?"

There was a moment of silence for the poser to strike in. Then Beecher, in a quiet voice, but with deep significance, spoke this apothegm:

"Truth is eternal; it is part of God. If you will give it a chance, the truth will stand up for you."

This was one of those things which Beecher could do: give you a volume in a nutshell, when an occasion arose. I doubt whether any person who heard that sentence will ever forget it.

Upon a later occasion, during this same visit, Mr. Beecher gave me more particulars of the old church. He said that it was terribly cold in winter. "To give you an idea," he said, "water froze one Sunday in a glass by my side on the pulpit while I was preaching. I saw that many in the congregation were awfully cold. So I stopped my sermon and remarked: 'I see that some of you appear uncomfortable, and it certainly is As for me personally, I was cold here. never more comfortable. I have on two pairs of trousers and arctic overshoes." He had on his overcoat, and, opening this, he showed a cardigan jacket over his undercoat. "So if any are cold, you had better go out now, while I wait. It is far better to go home and get warm than stay here and take cold." So a few souls, too frozen to stay, went out, and then Beecher resumed his sermon, and I doubt not gave those who remained ample cause to be thankful that they had done so.

Some months later, while I was engaged in a summer school at Binghamton, New York, Mr. Beecher came down and gave us his lecture upon Church Music. It was a good discourse, but I do not remember much of it now. Afterwards. we had a long talk, and as Dr. Mason and I were walking home with Mr. Beecher, he remarked that during the time he had been in Elmira there had been I forget how many pastors of the other churches—it was a large number. very large. Whereupon I remarked: "Mr. Beecher, you must have a great business in weddings and funerals, owing to your extended personal acquaintance." "Well," he answered, "perhaps in weddings I have my share and more: but in funerals I rather lost my reputation in my first years." This filled us with curiosity to know what he meant, whereupon he told the following story:

"When I first came to Elmira," he said, "I was called to conduct a funeral in the country at a school-house. A man about forty years old had died. went to the place—it was a very hot day in summer—and found that the mourners had arrived in advance of the hearse with the coffin. The widow was a splendid-looking woman, with jet-black hair and eyes, rather well rounded, and well dressed. She was chatting pleasantly with those next her in a low voice. took my seat in the desk and we waited. Presently the hearse arrived and they prepared to bring in the body. As they began, I began to read the usual sentences, such as 'I am the resurrection and the life'—you know them. The minute she heard my voice she began to cry violently and vociferously. I stopped and she stopped. After a moment I went on reading. With the first sound of my voice she began her vociferation. I stopped, and so did she. I remarked, 'If I am to conduct these services, it will be necessary to have quiet.' That woman slid one side of her handkerchief off from one eye and gave me the most devilish look I have ever received in my life. If she could, she would have annihilated me then and there. But she did not set up her wailing again when I went on with the service. Things like this damage a man's funereal popularity."

He then went on with something like this: "But with my own people, if I may say so without being misunderstood, funerals are among the most precious meetings we have. I have done everything in my power to free them from that pagan fear of death, and when I go to the house (for we never have public funerals), I find the mourners sitting around, and I greet them all pleasantly, and we speak appreciatively of the deceased and of his work, and then I read some comforting passages and we sing hymns of heaven and have a short prayer and carry the body away."

Thomas Beecher was a strong and most incisive personality. I think him the strongest of all the children of that patriarch in Congregational Israel, Dr. Lyman Beecher. When Thomas was a boy of fifteen or younger, he used to act as amanuensis for his father, writing the sermons which the old man dictated while walking the floor of the study. Lyman Beecher was a character, and he had the prevailing knack of his day of making the strongest and baldest foreordination, foreknowledge, and predestination agree perfectly with the idea of free grace. It is a high mental trick, that, to have a thing unavoidably and unalterably certain and yet contingent. The Beecher boys could never manage it, Tom least of all. When the doctrine had passed a certain danger point, Tom used to brace himself and break in with, "Father, I do not think that is so." Then he would state his difficulty. Whereupon the father squared off to the argument, and Beecher said that sometimes they argued for two hours on the stretch. His father got warmer and warmer under the collar; but he was good stuff, and knew a "free moral agent" when he saw one, and he knew that his son Tom was of that kind. He used to say, "Tom, Tom, I am perfectly ready to be convinced, but you haven't the arguments." "Whereas," said Tom, "the angel Gabriel, with fresh credentials from heaven, could not have changed father's mind."

So this Beecher got far away from the lines of the family doctrine, and, although strongly biased to the pulpit, he could neither accept what passed for orthodoxy nor yet throw down the bars entirely and go into Unitarianism, which was just then the current dissent. So he got to a period when he realized Christ as the

great example and pattern, but ignored all the rest of his training. In this stress after leaving college he went to Philadelphia to teach a ward school, and his one principle was that he "ought to teach that school as Christ would have taught it." It was a day of routine memorizing of books, an ignoring of principles, and of vigorous corporal punishments. Naturally, the latter seemed widest of all from what Christ would have had.

"To give you an idea of the discipline of that school," he said, "one day I asked a boy, 'Brown, shut the door, please.' Brown answered, 'See you in hell first." "In that case," answered Beecher, sweetly, "I will shut it myself," This went on for several and so he did. weeks, the order getting worse and worse, until one day it was so bad and so little seemed to have been gained that some insolence from one of the large boys entirely broke him down, and he put his head down upon his arms on his desk and sobbed aloud like a baby, with discouragement and grief. "Then," he said, "I prayed; and my prayer was little more than that of the shipwrecked sailor who said, 'O Lord; if there be a Lord, now is the time to put in his oar.

"A few days later there was a sensation in the spelling-lesson. It was that page in Webster's speller, Baker, Maker, etc., and when several had been spelled in the usual perfunctory manner, one boy grasped his head with his hands and rushed into the middle of the room saying, 'I see it, I see it!' 'Well, Jones, what do you see?' I asked. 'Oh, I see,' he answered, 'e-r, one who' (baker, one who bakes, etc.), and it went through the room, and eventually the school, like an electric shock. From that moment on the school began to learn."

"And what of Brown and the discipline?" I asked. "Oh," answered Beecher, "there was no need of discipline; the school, being anxious to learn, disciplined itself."

"And what of Brown?" I persisted. "Brown," he answered, "got very fond of me and followed me about, like a dog, everywhere I would go, thankful if he could only see me and now and then get

a word. When I left Philadelphia for good," he went on, "it was by boat; Brown was out as far as he could get on a spar which projected beyond the pier, and with a great bandana handkerchief was alternately waving it to me and wiping his eyes. Brown was a good fellow and he has made a good man."

And so it came about that Thomas Beecher realized that the family vocation was pressing him more and more, and, after due study, his ordination was to take place. When the day came, his heart failed. Calling his brother Henry Ward to one side (for he was to give the "charge" to the new minister), he said: "Brother, I am afraid to go on. I think I see my way to preach about a year; I will then be preached out, and will have nothing further to give them. I am afraid!" Whereupon Henry answered, "Oh, brother, if you preach Christ one year, you will never stop!"

Thomas K. Beecher was not a natural orator like the versatile and poetic Henry Ward Beecher; he was, as he himself said, "a teacher." What he sought to do was to educate his people. As an example of his unconventionality, this story was told me by a friend in Elmira. On his way to church one Sunday morning he saw a poor woman sawing wood by her little cabin. He placed his hand on the fence and vaulted over in his hearty way, and, pulling off his coat as he came, took the saw out of her hands and went on sawing. "My good woman," he asked, "is it necessary for you to do this work to-day?" She answered that it was: that she had been out "cleaning vesterday, and had gotten home very late and too dead tired to prepare her Sunday wood." "Well," said Beecher, putting on his coat, for he had done enough, "the next time you get in this fix, please let me know on Saturday, and I will send some one to prepare some for you; it doesn't look well for a preacher to be sawing wood on Sunday."

He was very ready, and gifted with curt ways of saying things. For instance, he said one day: "When any of my people leave Elmira to live in New York, they always want letters to join Plymouth Church [his brother's]. They might as well join Broadway!" This

referred, naturally, to the crowds and the continual hurry and change at Plymouth, which was then a sort of evangelical cathedral of the Northern States.

Preachers used to come down to Elmira to investigate the story of how he raised the money for his church. When they had taken it all in, the confiding souls would remark, "I will go right home and start this way of raising money in my church!" "They might as well say they would go home and start an oyster shell," said Beecher.

He was very fond of music, as were all his tribe. Lowell Mason used to lead his father's choir in Boston, and his oldest sister Catherine used to practice on the organ, and Tom had to blow-in other words, to pump—the bellows, a difficult job for a growing boy. Tom used to get the work done on the principle by which Tom Sawyer got the back fence painted charging the other boys something for a chance to pump so many minutes. Meanwhile Tom used to lie on the pulpit sofa and listen to the Bach fugue with which the faithful Catherine was wrestling. One day, in this occupation, he suddenly became conscious of a beautiful melody floating high up above the fugue; it did not seem to be anything which his sister played, but something outside of it, above it. He cried out to his sister, "Oh, sister I hear it, I hear "What do you hear?" she answered. "I hear this," and he whistled the melody. "I have heard it all the time," she replied.

Beecher was never settled in Elmira. He came there, and on invitation decided to preach a while for them, but declined to be settled until he found out whether they would want him. He remained there, I suppose, toward forty years. And if any man belonged to Elmira more than he did, I never heard his name. For instance, one day when the present writer was giving an organ lesson in the Presbyterian church in Binghamton, Beecher came in to hear some music. I was curious to know how he chanced to be there. It came out that the town of Elmira had sent him down to examine two iron bridges in Binghamton, of competing patterns, one or the other of which was to serve

as a model in Elmira for the principal bridge across the river, as Beecher should decide. I have no doubt he decided upon sound principles. He was a man who could.

In his early years at Elmira the Sunday-school was a great trial to Mr. Beecher, but, as he himself said, he "never hurried anything." When he had been in Elmira about a year, it began to dawn upon the more acute that between the conventionality and want of result in the Sunday-school and the preaching there was a difference of kind, and not simply of degree. So they waited upon Mr. Beecher and asked whether he would superintend the school. Beecher's first question was whether they wanted him to be an ordinary superintendent or an extraordinary superintendent. The committee looked at one another in dismay, the distinction being, in Southern phrase, a "huckleberry beyond their persimmon;" and they asked what he meant. Whereupon Beecher defined:

"The ordinary superintendent," he said, "strikes the bell, gives out a hymn, makes the opening prayer, and then walks around and looks important until time to do the same things again and close the school."

This sounded realistic to the committee, and they inquired what the extraordinary superintendent did to fill up the time. "The extraordinary superintendent," said Beecher, "makes it his business to see that the teachers and children all learn something worth while out of the Word of God."

This was too indefinite for the committee, and so they let it go as it was for about another year, by which time the Beecher leaven had begun to work to such an extent that the Sunday-school was plainly out of touch with it. So they came again to Mr. Beecher and capitulated in full, if only he would take charge of the school. Accordingly he did so.

He called a meeting of the teachers and laid down the new rules, which were that strict attendance was imperative, not one Sunday and then a Sunday absent; and that every teacher must learn the lesson perfectly. All unable or unwilling to agree to these conditions were

to resign then and there, and he would find others to take their places. It was a brave congregation, and they mostly stuck. Whereupon Beecher taught them the lesson and what it meant. Then he adjourned for Sunday. When the school had been called to order, the teachers had a genuine surprise. Beecher announced that every teacher would now proceed to recite the text of the lesson to her class, and the class was directed to watch for mistakes. It went on. Then the classes recited in turn, and then the new rules were given out. They were three in number:

Perfect attendance, except for unavoidable cause.

Every pupil to know the lesson perfectly.

Every pupil to put something in the collection.

Upon the latter point he elaborated at some length. He said it was not the money he was most after, but the habit of responsibility and of bearing one's fair share in all co-operative enterprises. Therefore he ordained that the contribution should be at least one cent. He preferred them to earn this cent by some little errand rather than to ask their father or mother for it at the last minute. And when through poverty or ill fortune a cent was not obtainable, the pupil should cut out a little piece of paper, round like a cent., write "one cent" on one side and sign his name on the other. This perfected his status concerning the contribution, for he knew that no one would avail himself of this unless it was necessary.

To all who were perfect for the Sundays of six months the church would present, at the morning service, a New Testament, suitably inscribed. rules had been in force for several years when he was telling me. He went on: "I wish you could have been there last Sunday, for it was my Testament Sun-The class numbered about thirty; some we e over sixty years old; one was a washerwoman; then there were small children not over seven or eight. stood in line in front of the pulpit, one of our best deacons about midway, waiting for his Testament like the others. And I made them a little speech on the

principle of having done well 'as rulers over a few things,' and gave them their books with my writing in them, the date and the period during which the perfect record had been earned."

I remember that Mr. Beecher told me that he had been seduced one year into joining the International series of lessons; but he did not find them to answer his purpose, so ever since that time he had made his own course, taking care to cover the essentials of Biblical knowledge within a reasonable series of years. He also told me that he had a great deal of trouble in limiting his Sunday-school to his own church as nearly as he could, owing to the lack of room in the church for the large numbers who desired to come; I think he also hated to seem to be intruding into the sphere of the other pastor's influence.

When I knew him his attitude with

regard to alcohol was not that of Miss Willard. Naturally, as a Christian minister he was in the fullest compass of the term "a temperance man," but he was not a total abstainer upon principle. I was told that in his later years circumstances brought home to him new views of this danger to manhood, whereupon he became one of the most strenuous opponents of the whisky traffic. We had conversations upon this subject, but no clear outlines now remain.

The impression which Mr. Beecher made upon me was that of a singularly clear-headed Christian teacher, or perhaps more properly of a prophet of God, a teacher of the principles of right human living in the world that now is; and of course a firm believer in the glories of the life beyond. He was a great man; a character contact with whom inevitably left a deep impression.

THE TOWN-MEETING

BY GEORGE E. GOOGINS

THE town-meeting is one of the oldest and most democratic of our civil institutions. It is typically a New England institution, where it still survives and flourishes with all its ancient veneration and spirit. It has been in vogue since the arrival of the Pilgrims in Massachusetts Bay, and is one of the corner-stones of our American system of government. In fact, the American system is substantially a compromise between the town-meeting of New England and the old House of Burgesses in Virginia—a cross between a Cavalier and a Puritan. In Colonial days the New England town was both democratic and puritanic, and the townmeeting was a place where were put into practice the principles of personal liberty, the voting of taxes by the people, and the responsibility of public officials to the municipality. And these are still the prime objects of the town-meeting. The town-meeting embodies the idea of government by the people—not indirectly, like the old House of Burgesses of Colonial Virginia, but directly, by the

people themselves. It is proof to the people that an election is more than an assemblage of voters for the purpose of dividing the spoils. In the town-meeting, Democracy sits enthroned, and

"The Pilgrim's vision is accomplished here I"

Men of wealth and education discuss public affairs and hobnob with those of lesser fortunes and fewer educational attainments. All mingle together about a common ballot-box, and in the annual meeting discuss and settle important questions affecting the future welfare of the town. Where is the ballot-box purer than at an annual town-meeting in New England?

Town-meeting day to the average countryman is full of significance, and he thinks more of it than of any other day of the whole year. It means more to him than does the Fourth of July or Labor Day, and he shows his interest in municipal affairs when the day comes round by presenting himself promptly at the town hall. The town-meeting is the only show on earth that is sure of its

audience. Positively no postponement on account of the weather! Every male citizen is a star performer, and each assumes personal responsibility for the success of the exhibition. And the townmeeting is always a success.

Every male inhabitant of the age of twenty-one (paupers and Indians not taxed excluded) is allowed the privilege of voting and taking part in the townmeeting. This privilege could not be wrested from the people without a struggle. Only sickness or inevitable accident can keep the citizen away from the annual meeting. He may shirk his duty elsewhere, but never in town-meeting. He votes according to the dictates of his conscience, and takes part in the debates with the freedom and dignity of a Clay or a Webster. The average citizen will find his name wanting in the jury-box without feeling the slightest regret, or will sometimes dodge jury service; but his indignation would know no bounds should he be informed by the moderator on town-meeting day that his name had been inadvertently omitted from the voting list. The citizen who would absent himself from the town-meeting without good cause would run the risk of public criticism and would not elevate himself in the scale of public estimation. responsibility is so essential to good citizenship as that of being present at the annual town-meeting, and the average man performs the duty most willingly.

The first that any of us know about the approaching town-meeting is when we see the warrant up in the post-office warning the inhabitants of the town to meet at the town-house at nine o'clock in the forenoon on the fifth day of March, A.D. 1906, and there choose by ballot a moderator, town clerk, three selectmen, treasurer, school committee, and all other necessary town officers; also to take action on a score of articles enumerated in said warrant. The warrant is issued in the name of the State, signed by the selectmen and the constable. This is the regular annual call, which is usually posted up in some conspicuous place two or three weeks before the day of the meeting. The call is a forerunner of the grand day coming. Everybody begins to talk town-meeting,

and the crowd at the corner grocery increases from day to day. Aspiring candidates get to work in earnest, and begin to put up their political fences, which are down in spots, if not all along the line. The annual election is right upon them.

In most New England towns the annual election is held usually in March or April. After a long, cold winter, the event ushers in the new spring. It is the first holiday of the season, and everybody in the town, old and young, male and female, turns out and gives presence and inspiration to the occasion. It is an occasion you city folk know nothing of. It is a great day in the country, and the citizens enjoy it. The meeting always opens on time and with a bang. Every precinct is represented, and the little hall is crowded.

The little town-house, unpainted and with sharp, sloping roof, stands at the fork of the roads, in the center of the town. There is a cordon of horses and sleighs and pungs around it on this morning-all kinds of rigs, such as you might see in the city. There is nothing so very countrified about these people nowadays. The farmers drive into town on annual meeting-day with stylish turnouts, matched bays, and doubleseated pungs, the best that money can The days of the ox-team and the homely old rigs that were once in evidence at town-meeting are gone forever. The country folk are up-to-date in everything now, and you can hardly distinguish them in dress and manners from the city folk.

Every seat in the hall is taken, and standing room is hardly available. Every citizen feels himself an important factor in the problem of municipal government; and he is. Men do not forget that in serving the community they are at the same time serving their country. Men who will allow themselves to be pulled about and voted by scheming politicians at State and National elections refuse to be dictated to here. The people are supreme, and the majority rules in open town-meeting. This is the day when men leave their farm work and business cares to discharge their duties to their town, and they do not find the task either onerous or unpleasant. Men enjoy the fun, the association, and receive a direct benefit from the proceedings. The town-meeting is a source of incalculable good and a means of education to many men. There is always much to be learned there, including business, parliamentary law, and, above all, human nature. Notwithstanding the fact of its existence for three hundred years, the town-meeting has its enemies. There are iconoclasts who would destroy it if they could have their way. However, its enemies are among those who doubt the ability of the people to rule themselves.

The town-meeting has a ludicrous feature oftentimes, and there are situations which to the spectator seem farcical; yet, on the whole, the system gives general satisfaction in small towns. Like the jury system, it is not likely that any better substitute will be offered to replace The people can be depended upon to do the right thing when it comes to a test. When the majority of the people rule, as they do in the towns, the government is usually satisfactory, and there is very little complaining among the citizens. Not so when the people are ruled by chosen representatives over whom they have no control for the time being. When power is delegated, it is liable to abuse. The only true democracy is where the people vote, choose their own rulers, and make their own laws; of this the town-meeting is the best instance. The system, however, is applicable only to towns, it being too unwieldy in places of large population.

The meeting comes to order when the clerk arises and in trembling, half-audible tones announces the objects of the meeting, and reads the town warrant. Then a moderator is chosen and the business of the meeting is begun. The election of officers comes first on the day's programme.

"Bring in your votes, gentlemen, for the first selectman," thunders the moderator, snapping out each syllable separately.

This announcement is usually followed by a volley of cheers for the different candidates in the field; and then ensues a wild, mad scramble for the ballot-box. If there happens to be a contest on, the excitement is intense; but if the same old board is to be given a re-election, then only slight interest is manifested by the voters.

"Votes all in?" inquires the moderator.

"No! no!" comes the reply.

The crowd of free suffragists continues to jostle and surge around the ballotbox, like angry seas about a derelict. The scene is a picturesque one, and the excitement of it all is quite enough to hold one's interest. Everything goes along smoothly, until some fellow who is a trifle the worse off for liquor staggers up to the ballot-box and persists in voting the second time. But the moderator sees him and excludes the ballot. That is one of the sad features of a town meeting.

National politics and party prejudice are wanting in the town-meeting. Party lines are not drawn, though sectionalism is often responsible for strife in the town-meeting: When a new town hall or school-house is to be erected by the town, everybody wants the building located in his district, where it will be of the most convenience to himself. To settle the question of where a public building should stand has been known to require three town-meetings. Before the settlement was made the people divided, and one-half of the town threatened to secede from the other.

The principal officer in the town-meeting is the moderator. He is to the town assembly what the speaker is to a legislative body. He is vested with much power and authority, and his word is law in all decisions pertaining to the meeting. From his decisions there is no appeal. He is accepted as authority on parliamentary law, and, when armed with a copy of the revised statutes and Cushing's Manual, he is invincible. The office is no sinecure, however, and is a trying one to the man who wishes to conduct the meeting with fairness and impartiality. The moderator is usually a man of character and high standing in the town. He is generally respected, and no one makes serious objection to his rulings. The moderator has the power to authorize the constable to remove any person from the assembly who does not conduct himself according to the usages of civilization. He is at all times master of the situation. The moderator who can manage a town-meeting with the least possible friction among the citizens is usually awarded a vote of thanks and three dollars per day by the Assembly.

Formerly the moderator was expected to be a man physically capable of quelling any riot or disturbance which might suddenly arise, without the assistance of the constable. A lively tilt at debate often terminated in a fistic combat, and the moderator who would not stop the fight was not asked to serve at the next annual meeting. But the standard of morals, as well as of living, has been raised in the country, and men have adjusted themselves to the new conditions. The average citizen knows his place in modern society, and strives to keep it. Fistic combats at the polls are not so common now as in the old days. Men have learned to govern their political prejudices, their tempers and emotions, and are not so pugilistic as were some of their sires. Sobriety and reason predominate now in the body politic.

And the crowd one sees about the town-house now is not the same in personal appearance as that which congregated there thirty or forty years ago. At the town-meeting you see more college-bred men, more fine horses, more tailor-made suits, and you breathe a different atmosphere both socially and politi-Jeffersonian simplicity is the exception rather than the rule even at the New England town-meeting. Men still possess their own peculiar prejudices and dislikes against aristocratic tendencies: but the trend of public sentiment in the country is toward refinement, and toward a government based upon intelligence and a free, unhampered ballot.

The town, as a rule, is free from political chicanery, and the art of grafting is unknown to those who manage the affairs of the municipality. A dishonest town official is never re-elected, and, more than that, if he has committed any offense he is immediately punished. Those who seek the public offices are prompted by pride and ambition to be honored by their fellow-citizens, rather than by the

salaries paid. There are no high salaries in the town. Notwithstanding, there are many candidates in the field, each striving to be exalted above the others by the votes of the citizens. To be chairman of the board of selectmen in any country town is the ambition of every citizen, yet this honor can fall only upon a few. It is an honor coveted by those who are qualified to fill the position. The best men stand ready to accept responsible positions in country towns; and, practically, they serve without pay.

The town-meeting is an excellent school for the young man who has political aspirations. Notable men have come from the town-meeting and sat in Congress, but this might have been due to their own native energy, rather than to any superlative virtues of the town-meeting as a school of statesmanship. But in the town-meeting is found an opportunity for the embryonic orator to develop his art. He can make as many speeches as he desires if only he confines his talk to the questions before the house. More than one finished orator got his schooling here.

There is a sociability at town-meeting not enjoyed at any other public meeting. Men meet their fellows on equal footing. and exchange ideas on every imaginable subject, from farming to the building of the Panama Canal. It serves many as a market-place where merchandise is bought and sold, and more than one shrewd trade is consummated before the meeting adjourns. For swapping horses the town-meeting is an ideal place, and more than one farmer drives away with an unknown horse, having made the "shift" while the work of legislating for the town was still proceeding. There is only one occasion affording better opportunities for horse-shifting, and that is the country fair. It is not unusual to have the wheels of municipal legislation stopped by the horse-traders. The moderator is saying, "Gentlemen, listen to the reading of the report-" And then comes the interruption in this fashion: "I'll give ye ten dollars to boot, and throw in the old Concord waggin." Then the constable interferes at a critical moment, and a good trade (for somebody)

is peremptorily spoiled. The business of the assembly is resumed.

All the officers are usually elected during the morning session, and then, after dinner, the articles in the warrant are taken up, duly discussed, and passed upon by the citizens. This, of course, is the most important part of the whole meeting, since it involves the responsibility of appropriating money to be expended for the town during the ensuing year. The watch-dogs are promptly on hand to check any tendency toward undue extravagance or any wanton waste of the public fund. The cry of retrenchment and economy is often heard, but the usual amount of money is always appropriated, for the majority favors a liberal support of the public schools, the building of good roads, and a reasonable outlay in every department of municipal requirement.

But these measures are not adopted without considerable debate, or before the local orators have been given a chance to display their ability at public speaking. There are always a few good speakers in the assembly, and their words carry weight with the citizens. petual oratory in town-meeting, as elsewhere, is not in favor, and the man who is always jumping up and talking on subjects which he knows very little about, and in which he has no special interest, is generally looked upon as a bore and an unavoidable nuisance. When some young man, who makes his maiden speech, arises to address the assembly, the citizens give him close attention and generously applaud him. The old fellows clap their hands and say to each other, "He's smart and will be in Congress some day." But such prophecies are rarely fulfilled.

In the town-meeting much valuable time is occupied by men who have come into the assembly to air their personal grievances or to even up old scores against their neighbors. These men are citizens of the town, and must of course be heard. They do not always stand in order, nor is their language complimentary to their opponents, but the assembly takes their harangues in good nature and with kindly toleration hears them A debate of this kind affords much amusement, and no harm ever comes from it, since the disputants are never taken seriously. Once, in a town of my acquaintance, the town-meeting was enlivened for a number of years by a discussion of this kind between two citizens, A and B. So regularly did it occur that it became a permanent feature of the annual town-meeting. A and B got into a personal quarrel, which had finally resulted in a lawsuit between the parties. A's house was situated on a road but little used by the town, and, prompted by a desire to even up matters with his enemy, B succeeded each year for a number of years in getting inserted into the town warrant an article asking the town to discontinue the road. The article was regularly taken up and bitterly discussed by the two men, but each time the town voted not to close the road. The road is still open.

But a town-meeting quarrel, as a rule, is like a passing cloud; it is soon over. It is seldom renewed outside of the town-house.

Finally, the last article in the warrant having been disposed of, some citizen arises and addresses the chairman:

"Mr. Moderator, I motion that we adjourn."

"Moved and seconded that we adjourn—'tis a vote," says the moderator all in one breath.

Then the men swing on their heavy coats, pull down their caps, and file slowly out of the town-house. On the outside they loiter to review the proceedings of the day, but the crowd of village statesmen soon disperses and the town-meeting for 1906 passes into history.

THE CORPORATION PROBLEM'

THERE is no doubt that just as the most conspicuous feature of the development of society in Europe and the United States on its formal or institutional side during the past half-century has been the growth of corporations, the most striking social fact to-day is the movement in the direction of bringing corporate activity under stricter State control, if not of absorbing the corporation to a large extent in the State. The idea of State ownership and operation of railways, telegraphs, and other utilities admittedly of a public nature seems to be rapidly gaining in favor, whereas only a few years ago its advocacy met slight response. Even those who view with alarm such extension of the State's sphere of action concede that some means must be devised to check the growing power of the corporation. But as to the proper course to be followed there are wide differences of opinion, arising from varying concepts on the one hand of the constitution of the corporation, on the other of the place of the corporation in society. What is emphatically needed is a clarifying of ideas concerning not simply the corporation problem, but the corporation itself. Obviously, this can be obtained only by a broad and thorough review and painstaking analysis of past as well as present corporate functioning—in other words, by a careful study of the historical evolution of the corporation.

It was the appreciation of this fact that, some ten years ago, prompted the late John P. Davis to undertake such a study. It was Dr. Davis's hope not only to follow the development of the corporation, but to make an exhaustive examination of the corporations of to-day, with particular reference to those of the United States, but ill health prevented him from dealing with contemporary phenomena in any detail. In fact, outside of the introduction and three chapters discussing respectively the nature of corporations, the legal concept of corporations, and the characteristics distinguishing modern corporations from their predecessors and those linking the new with the old, his treatise, which has been published posthumously, is essentially a survey of corporations of other days than ours-obsolete ecclesiastical organizations, guilds, colonial companies, etc. As such it is a monument to the enthusiasm with which its author approached and the industry with which he prosecuted his task. It is also highly suggestive, penetratingly analytical, and rich in information useful to the economist. jurist, and legislator; and if it is impossible wholly to agree with Dr. Davis's findings as to facts or to deem his inferences always sound, it is equally impossible to deny the value of his work as an aid to the more intelligent consideration of its important subject.

Apart from the amazingly detailed exposition of the genesis, rise, and decline of the many corporations which Dr. Davis surveys, interest centers chiefly in his concept of the corporation and in his deductions concerning the future of those corporations with which we are most intimately acquainted. In beginning, he points out that, as a general thing, criticism of corporations has gone to one of two extremes: it has been largely negative and destructive from a failure to recognize the permanent and enduring elements in corporations, or it has credited to them elements contributed by other social factors, the result being unqualified denunciation by one group of critics and extravagant approbation by another. From this confusion of ideas, the argument runs, has further resulted the condition of the body of law intended for the interpretation and enforcement of the rights and duties of corporations. In Dr. Davis's opinion the legal theory of "artificial personality" is "pernicious," and must be wholly discarded, in the case of public as well as private corporations, before the problems involved can be successfully attacked. His view of the nature

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of the corporation is well set forth in the

¹ Corporations: A Study of the Origin and Development of Great Business Combinations and of Their Relation to the Authority of the State. By John P. Davis, Ph.D. Two volumes. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York.

definition he offers: "A corporation is a body of persons upon whom the State has conferred such voluntarily accepted but compulsorily maintained relations to one another and to all others that as an autonomous, self-sufficient, and self-renewing body they may determine and enforce their common will, and in the pursuit of their private interest may exercise more efficiently social functions both specifically conducive to public welfare and most appropriately exercised by associated persons." Under this definition there is, strictly speaking, no room for the so-called private corporation, and it is not surprising to find the writer describing the private corporation as a contradiction in terms and insisting that it has no place in a sound organization of society. But, he continues, "the distinction between public and private functions is never easy to determine, and it is not made easier by democratic theories of society and the State; all functions have tended to reach the same level, and 'incorporation for any lawful purpose' has been freely permitted to all."

Further light on his concept of the cor-. poration and on his view of the future of the type of corporation which predominates to-day is afforded by the emphasis he lays on the fact that corporations have been most active during periods of social growth and expansion, while organic periods of social life have witnessed the extension of the machinery of the State. As he puts it: "Society has appeared to develop its new activities during periods of transition in the framework of corporations as a kind of scaffolding or provisional structure, to be destroyed during organic periods, when the State and Church have been able to absorb, partially or wholly, the new activities and incorporate them within their own structure." This position Dr. Davis finds little difficulty in justifying by the argument from history. Of the numerous corporations considered in the earlier chapters of his book, most have gone out of existence, some have been so remodeled by the State that they have

virtually lost their corporate identity, and only a few remain as survivals of a past condition of society. The modern corporation, indeed, seems to be substantially new, not merely in point of time, but of nature, and Dr. Davis does not hesitate to admit that a superficial view almost warrants a doubt whether a study of old corporations, such as he has made, is profitable as a preparation for the study of the corporations of to-day. But he immediately proceeds to show that while society has changed both in structure and activity, the function discharged by corporations is unchanged, and that "when a group of associated individuals is confirmed in its character as a group for the accomplishment of a public purpose through the pursuit by the group of private interest, the group is as much a corporation under the new definitions as it would have been under older ones." All of this leads him to the belief that the fate which has overtaken the old will overtake the new corporations. Already, as he shows, the State has in more ways than one encroached on the field of the modern corporation, and even before his manuscript was completed in 1897 the agitation in favor of "public ownership" was beginning to gain ground. So markedly was this the case that Dr. Davis could write: "It is beginning to be recognized that more government is necessary under the developed conditions now attained by society than under the comparatively simple conditions prevalent a century ago-and that such increased government has actually been provided, not by the State, but by corporations. plain tendency in corporate life at present, in its relations to the State, is in the direction of subjection and submission to close supervision." But he warns his readers that "in history the State has never been satisfied with the mere supervision of corporations by commissions or otherwise; it would be against the teachings of history to expect that now the State will stop short of the complete absorption of the governmental features of corporations."

Comment on Current Books

Among the books of evi-**Important** dently serious value which New Books will be treated at some length in The Outlook at a later date may be named: the first two volumes of the definitive edition of Nicolay and Hay's "Complete Works of Abraham Lincoln" (F. D. Tandy Company, New York), now enlarged with new material and with introductions and poems-in these volumes Richard Watson Gilder and President Roosevelt furnish the introductions, and the poems were written by R. H. Stoddard and Dr. Weir Mitchell; Mr. George S. Merriam's "The Negro and the Nation" (Henry Holt & Co.); "Americans of 1776," by the well-known historian Mr. James S. Schouler, and described as an original study of life and manners-social, industrial, and political—for the Revolutionary period (Dodd, Mead & Co.); "Studies in American Trade Unionism," by Dr. Jacob H. Hollender and Dr. George E. Barnett (Henry Holt & Co.); and, in fiction, Maarten Maartens's "The Healers" (Appleton), and Anne Douglas Sedgwick's "The Shadow of Life" (Century).

There still is ample Descartes, His Life room in English literaand Times ture for such a work as this, commemorative of the genius who put modern philosophy on its feet, the glory of France in the seventeenth century, a star of the first magnitude amidst the clouds of stormy times. Descartes's distinction as a philosopher has eclipsed his fame as a savant of encyclopædic learning, but this volume is concerned with the man amidst his varied experiences, his struggles, vicissitudes, and friendships, quite as much as with his achievements in knowledge and in the rationalizing of thought. Miss Elizabeth S. Haldane, whose brothers, J. S. and R. B. Haldane, are well known in the learned world, has finely told the story of the honest, constructive skeptic, who freed reason from the shackles of scholasticism, who found the ground of certainty within rather than without the mind, and whose epoch-making work entitles him to rank with the foremost leaders of human thought. (E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. \$4.50, net.)

The Development of the European Nations

Mother field, a struggle of another kind, and other motives appear in this volume than those exhibited in its predecessor, reviewed in The Outlook of January 6. The spirit of nationalism had done its work in State-building;

the spirit of commercialism now enters to find for it in colonial enterprises an expansion impossible at home. The sanguinary struggle of European Powers in the eighteenth century for the possession of North America is succeeded by struggles for preponderance in Asia, and especially in Africa, which are prevented from becoming sanguinary only by the maintenance of twelve million soldiers to keep the rivals at peace. Dr. J. Holland Rose opens this portion of his history with a chapter looking back to his former volume, "The Triple and Dual Alliances," which secured stability to the Continental Powers as then established, while leaving the Island Power in an isolation not unattended with occasional humiliation. The scene then changes to Asia, where for forty years Great Britain strove to secure her Indian frontier against Afghan turbulence and Russian aggression. But the field of chief interest is Africa, whose occupation by various European Powers during the last two decades of the nineteenth century appeals to the historic sense as one of the most momentous events since the discovery of America. How Britain, through the strangest combination of causes, extended her sway from the mouth to the source of the Nile. and how in other portions of the continent she was enabled to cope tolerably well with Germany and France, more by the enterprise of her subjects and subordinate officials than by the sagacity and energy of her Government, is a story that runs through chapters of continuous interest. The story of the Congo Free State, initiated with high humanitarian professions, and prostituted to the ends of an inhuman commercialism, though dispassionately told, is a blasting indictment of "the weakness and cynical selfishness now prevalent in high quarters." The concluding act of the drama is played by "Russia in the Far East." While all these events are of commanding interest Dr. Rose is more than a mere narrator of them. He exhibits their connection in the line of cause and effect. He unmasks the motives that dictate the moves of the contending parties. He is in touch with the best sources of information for the judicious criticism of events as related to policies. Hence his work is singularly valuable for an understanding of the international relations of contemporary Europe. Thankful that the Empire has survived a great crisis in spite of great blunders, he draws from it a pointed lesson for his countrymen, in whom he sees symptoms of that impaired morale which has been noticed also among ourselves. (G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. \$2.50.)

Accounts have appeared Excavations at from time to time during Nippur the last fifteen years of the progress made by the Babylonian Expedition of the University of Pennsylvania in exploring the buried city of Nippur, the tomb of a civilization whose beginnings precede the traditional date of the creation of man by many centuries, not to say many millennia. The results now attained, a rich reward for the labor and cost of an enterprise most honorable to our country, are about to appear in a superb form, of which a specimen is before us. The entire work comprises some two hundred large folio pages of topographical introduction and descriptive text, abundantly illustrated with cuts and photographs, including some splendid full-page photogravures, besides many folding lithographic plates giving plans and details of the buildings. The superimposed strata that have been penetrated are shown in distinct colors, and the city itself is mapped in color. To avoid delay, the work is to appear in successive parts. (University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa.)

The humanizing ef-Franciscan Legends in fect of the preach-Italian Art ing of St. Francis of Assisi was soon evident not only in religion but in art as well. Italian paintings reflected the change toward a more human interpretation of Christianity which followed the influence of St. Francis. Moreover, the legends of St. Francis provided new subjects for painters. Emma Gurney Salter discusses in this volume, which is somewhat in the form of an inventory with comments, the pictures which are thus related to the saint. Three pages of hints for travelers, a bibliography, a table of painters, and an index add to the usefulness of the volume as a sort of guide-book in its subject. (E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. \$1.50, net.)

This novel is by "Maxwell Gray," whose first book, "The Silence of Dean Maitland," remains the best of her half-dozen or so works of fiction. The title is suggested by the Scriptural story of the rich young man who went away sorrowful; and here a modern young man, whose father's riches have been made by indefensible though common commercial methods, hesitates between the woman who loves him deeply, but not enough to marry him if he renounces his father's wealth, and an honest desire to fight for humanity in his own way and with clean hands. This

is a fine theme, and the spirit in which it is approached is admirable. But as a novel the book needs compression and better proportion, while the exposition of the methods of an imagined altruistic and renunciatory Brotherhood, with which it closes, injures the story as such, without convincing the reader intellectually that the plan is workable. The best thing in the novel is the rapid-fire exchange of sociological epigrams and paradoxes between a group of Oxford undergraduates with which the story opens. (D. Appleton & Co., New York. \$1.50.)

The former publications of The Gospel in Professor W. P. Du Bose, the Gospels of the University of the South at Sewanee, have raised high expectations, which are justified in this his latest work. "The Gospel in the Gospels" is their revelation of God in humanity, and of humanity in God. Christianity is described "in its largest sense to be the fulfillment of God in the world through the fulfillment of the world in God." In this three stages are marked—(1) the gospel of the earthly life of Jesus, the common humanity; (2) the gospel of the resurrection, expressive of the new power communicated by Jesus as the conqueror and destroyer of sin and death; (3) the gospel of the incarnation, presenting the work wrought by Jesus as no mere act of an exceptional humanity, but a work of God fulfilling and completing himself in humanity. These three stages constitute the main divisions of the work. As to the first, Dr. Du Bose sees far more than common humanity in the humanity of Jesus, as a perfect representation both of sonship to God and of the fatherhood of God. As to the second, the death and resurrection of Jesus is, in a purely spiritual view, "the supreme act of faith by which humanity first completely realized itself in God." "Without these it is a great question how much of either Gospel or Gospels there would have been at all." As to the third, the perfect power of Jesus' humanity thus to fulfill itself, and to impart that power to all humanity, reveals in him what transcends humanity. The Pauline saying, "God was in Christ," is accepted, in view of the universal immanence of God, by many who part company in its interpretation. In adopting its ancient and orthodox interpretation Dr. Du Bose relies more on the consensus of Christian consciousness than on the narratives of the virgin birth. These he frankly terms "myths," "pictures," and yet conformable to the inexplicable reality underlying. He holds that Jesus, as son of Joseph and Mary, would be simply an individual man. But he is man, not a man, and this universality of his humanity can

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come only of a divine paternity. Such logic will go further with the believer than with the doubter, who may rejoin to the subsidiary appeal to apostolic testimony that conceptions quite compatible with St. Paul's cosmology do not square so well with our truer cosmology. The strength of Dr. Du Bose's exposition of the heart of the Gospel is in the warm spiritual life that pervades it, the high level of thought on which it moves, the broad humanity of it all, and its perceptions of larger truth than is expressed in the creeds which it is concerned to maintain. "If God," says he, "is ever to be spiritually and personally in the world at all, it will be only through the Son of man; that is to say, through the growing divinity of man." (Longmans, Green & Co., New York. \$1.50, net.)

With this volume Pro-The Jeffersonian fessor Edward Channing System carries the "American Nation" serial history from the beginning of Jefferson's first Presidential term to the outbreak of the War of 1812. Thus the period allotted to him is brief, but a great deal of importance transpired during its scant dozen years; so much, in fact, that it is not surprising to find that Dr. Channing has adopted the topical rather than the chronological method. This, of course, gives his contribution somewhat less of unity than most of its predecessors; and, this particular period having already been thoroughly sifted, it has been impossible for him to display any marked originality. But he has, generally speaking, succeeded in investing the wellknown facts with a fresh interest. His pages are rich in acute analysis, suggestive comment, and clear-cut portraiture; his style is lucid, direct, and dignified, his tone judicial. In particular he gives an excellent account of the Louisiana Purchase, the Lewis and Clark Expedition, and the Jeffersonian domestic and foreign policy, although his survey of the preliminaries of the War of 1812 would have been improved by greater emphasis on the significance of the struggle between England and France. He is perhaps least satisfactory in dealing with the Tripolitan War and the Aaron Burr conspiracy, on neither of which does he bestow sufficient attention. His volume includes the usual bibliographical essay which is such a strong feature of this co-operative work. (Harper & Brothers, New York. \$2, net.)

Men and Things
A volume of humorous selections which has upon it the imprimatur of Mark Twain as editor could hardly fail to be good. There are famous bits from John Phænix (Derby), Artemus Ward, and Josh Billings; these

and other passages from the older American humorists are noticeably, and we think advisedly, brief; while the longer selections from Howells, Aldrich, and the moderns (relatively speaking) are thoroughly enjoyable. A few little-known writers are included. Mark Twain explains in an autograph preface that the selections from his own works were put in by his associate editors, adding that this explains why there are not more of them. (Harper & Brothers, New York. \$1.50.)

The familiar saying, "A Physical Nature sound mind in a sound of the Child body," suggests the dependence of mental and moral upon physical conditions. Is a child dull, weak, backward, troublesome, in any way at all abnormal? Probably there is a physical cause, and proper investigation will discover it. Such investigation must have regard not only to the physical nature of the child in various particulars, but also to the conditions of the home and of the school as affecting it. This volume by Dr. Stuart H. Rowe, of the Brooklyn Training School for Teachers, is an admirable guide in this line of work both for teachers and parents. It has been warmly commended by educators at the head of their profession. The need of work in the line which this book opens up is unquestionably urgent. (The Macmillan Company, New York. 90c.)

Once in every ten The Problem of the vears the trustees of Old Testament Lake Forest University, Illinois, are empowered to offer a valuable prize for the best work in the interest of "the religion of the Bible, etc." This prize was offered for the first time in 1902, and in 1905 the committee of award—Professors Ladd, of Yale, Ormond, of Princeton, and Wright, of Oberlin-adjudged the prize of six thousand dollars to the author of this work, Professor James Orr. Dr. Orr, whose special department in the University of Glasgow is apologetics and systematic theology, holds that the methods and results of the Biblical criticism now predominant are so thoroughly erroneous as to threaten the subversion of Christian faith. This conviction has moved him to present in this volume the most comprehensive and elaborate arraignment of them that has yet appeared, but irenic in tone toward the Christian scholars who dissent from him. Fully threefourths of his work are devoted to criticism of the reigning critical view of the Pentateuch. The documentary theory of this, as generally accepted, he rejects, holding to the unity and relative antiquity of "the book," whose "plan . . . must have been laid down

early by one mind, or different minds working together, while the memory of the great patriarchal traditions was still fresh, and the impressions of the stupendous deliverance from Egypt . . . were yet recent and vivid." On the other hand, his admission of "very evident signs of different pens and styles, of editorial redaction, of stages of compilation" down to the time of Ezra is at a far remove from the traditional view, and apparently incompatible with the orthodox theory of an inerrant book. The only criticism for which there is room here concerns Dr. Orr's starting-point. The Pentateuch presents both a literary and a religious problem. Which must we begin with? Dr. Orr says, the religious; the literary problem depends upon it. This seems quite at variance with the scientific and only safe method-the inductive, which by criticism of the literature reaches conclusions as to the religion. E.g., in Joshua we read of the slaughter of Achan's entire family with him for his sin. In Deuteronomy we read that no one is to be punished for a sin not his own. Hence we conclude that, though Deuteronomy precedes Joshua, it was written later: it shows proof of a growing revelation. Dr. Orr rejects the view that man's natural psychical development is the vehicle of divine revelation. He conceives of this as "special," and as supernaturally conveyed from outside the man. But, as he truly says, "everything in the critical discussion . . . depends on the presuppositions with which we start." This is the presupposition which carries him into collision with the Christian scholars in whose view of the immanence of God everything is supernatural, while everything is natural. The multitudinous points taken by Dr. Orr against the prevailing critical opinions present to the unlearned reader a formidable array. He will need to bethink himself that the learned majority from whom Dr. Orr dissents can hardly be ignorant of his reasons, and must have seen more formidable difficulties in the way of accepting them. (Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. \$1.50.)

The Quickening More than usual skill in analysis of motive and description of complex character is to be found in this tale of modern life by Francis Lynde. As has become the fashion, business figures largely in the romance. The hero, a sensitive boy, under the compelling influence of his mother, a narrowly religious woman, begins his life as an unconscious hypocrite, if there be such a thing. How he frees himself from these conventional fetters, yet never drifts away from the strong foundation principles of his training, is remarkably indicated

by the author. The heroine is a true and charming woman, while the supporting characters are all well drawn. An excellent story. (The Bobbs-Merrill Company, Indianapolis. \$1.50.)

This story by Ottilie A. Rändvar Liljencrantz is a well-susthe Songsmith tained romance set in the time when the Norsemen occupied America in fabled Norumbega. Randvar, the son of Freya, a dweller in the forest and a friend of the native Indian, by chance becomes the confidant of the Norse chieftain Helvin, and after many adventures is given the right to win the Jarl's sister in marriage. The Jarl suffers paroxysms of insanity, being controlled by the fearsome werewolf, and this tragic shadow darkens his life and that of his trusted friend. The story is well told, and as a pure romance is well worth reading. (Harper & Brothers, New York. \$1.50.)

Sankey's Story of the Gospel Hymns

Mr. Ira D. Sankey, long associated with the evangelistic

work of Mr. Moody, and now living in Brooklyn, retired and totally blind, here tells the simple but stirring story of his life and work. The larger part of the volume is devoted to brief narratives of the circumstances occasioning the composition and the incidents connected with the use of very many of the "Gospel Hymns" so effective in Mr. Sankey's "singing the Gospel" which Mr. Moody preached. Whittier was criticised for driving his Muse roughly in his anti-slavery poems, and the "Gospel Hymns" are often defective in literary form; but they were written, not to be read, but to be sung to music that opened the heart to their message. Their story as told here, with Mr. Sankey's story of his experience, is one that touches and grips the heart. (The Sunday School Times Company, Philadelphia. 75c., net. Postage, 10c.)

Perhaps no country seizes upon the Sicily imagination more than does Sicily, for it seems to combine Italian natural charms with Greek historic associations. The guide-book prepared by the late Augustus J. C. Hare has now been published in a revised edition by Mr. St. Clair Baddeley, the author of "King Robert the Wise." The author's great fund of information is presented in compact style, as is of course desirable for a small volume which one can carry in the pocket. The style might have been made somewhat clearer, howeverespecially with regard to ambiguity in the use of relative pronouns—without any necessity of increasing the text. (E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. \$1, net.)

It is unfortunate that the Social Theories author of this book, Willand Social Facts iam Morton Grinnell, by his assumptions, extravagancies, and inaccuracies, not to say errors, impairs the worth of a work which contains some very valuable suggestions. As an illustration of his false assumptions, take this sentence:

If there are men with vast fortunes, they or their fathers have earned them by their superior ability, thrift, and industry, and they have earned them honestly (this we must acknowledge), or otherwise we stultify ourselves and admit that we have not executed, and do not execute, the elementary criminal laws.

In fact, many of the large fortunes have been made either by operations which are not illegal, or by sagacity in securing possession, and sometimes monopolizing control, of wholly unearned wealth which under a right social system would inure to the benefit of all the people. As an example of his extravagancies, take what is implied in this sentence:

It is no answer to say that we would elect our functionaries and rulers as we do now, for what influence has the average citizen now in municipal, State, or Federal government?

The average citizens have overthrown the corrupt rings in Minneapolis, St. Louis, Philadelphia, and New York, and can always overthrow corruption in government, municipal, State, or Federal, whenever they are aroused and determined. As an illustration of palpable error, take this sentence:

The level maintained in and by a union must be the intelligence and ability of the slowest and stupidest, and the tendency naturally is to reduce this level.

In fact, labor is more able and intelligent in those industries in which it is organized than in those in which it is unorganized, and in the organized industries union labor generally turns out products superior to those turned out by non-union labor. To suppose, as our author does, that a small percentage of workers, and these the slowest and stupidest, can control not only the great mass of workers who are quicker and more intelligent, but also the whole community, is a supposition so violent as to be wholly incred-The chief value in Mr. Grinnell's book is that it points out the difference between political and industrial socialism, and in so doing emphasizes both the true function and the real value of the corporation as a contrivance for the distribution of wealth:

The Standard Oil Company when first organized had forty-five stockholders; in 1901 it had four thousand, and now has more. The Sugar Trust when first organized in 1885 had not over three hundred owners. It now has about twelve thousand shareholders or owners.

One purpose of bringing these corporations under Government supervision and subjecting all their operations to Government inves-

tigation is to make them more effective as distributers of wealth by making it safe for men of small means to invest in them. To make effective industrial socialism, which Mr. Grinnell commends, that Government supervision and control which he erroneously calls "socialism in part" is absolutely indispensable. (G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. \$1, net.)

The Unrealized Logic of Religion

This volume by a British author, Dr. W. H. Fitchett, em-

This volume consists

bodies an argument of invincible strength. The "logic" it exhibits is the logic of correspondence, such as is shown in the exact fitting together of the ragged edges of a torn card. Such logic verifies the great truths of religion by showing their correspondence with the great realities of human nature and experience, and the intimations of the physical universe. Pursuing this "study of credibilities" through the fields of history, of science, of philosophy, of literature, of spiritual life, and of common life, Dr. Fitchett presses it against materialism, atheism, and agnosticism with cumulative force. Such an argument may be pressed too far, in neglect of the distinction required between a religious truth and a particular form of presenting Then the argument fails to convince, as occasionally it fails here. But, for the most part, Dr. Fitchett carries it through admirably. (Eaton & Mains, New York. \$1.25, net.)

What is Religion? and Other

of a series of five talks to college students by Student Questions Dr. Henry S. Pritchett, of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. He approaches religious questions not only from the student but from the scientific student point of view. This is a point which, unfortunately, the Church still but little understands, and, misunderstanding, dreads. We wish that this unpretending little volume could be read and pondered by all preachers, especially by those who have any of the student class in their congregation, and we wish that the second address, "What is Religion?" could be printed in a tract form and circulated through college Young Men's Christian Associations. Its text is full of suggestions as to the real mind of the scientific student of to-day: "But this I confess unto thee, that after the way which they call heresy, so worship I the God of my fathers." The student class is not infidel; it is not, in the proper sense of that term, skeptical; but it is too independent to take ready-made convictions, and too serious-minded and earnest to make-believe believe. (Houghton, Mifflin & Co., Boston. \$1, net.)

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Letters to The Outlook

WOMAN'S SUFFRAGE

The answers to your questions regarding woman suffrage, on page 335 of The Outlook (February 17), are plain and simple:

(1) Suffrage is both a National right and a

special duty.

(2) Persons vote, not property nor families; but those who by industry and self-denial have accumulated property have a right to be protected from those who have not practiced such industry and self-denial, and who would live as parasites upon society.

(3) The individual is the unit of the State; the unmarried woman should have the same place in the State as the unmarried man.

(4) Suffrage is both a privilege and a burden—a privilege which all should share and a burden which all should bear. The military argument has been worn threadbare. Woman bears a large share of military duty in the hospital; if this is not enough, then so much the more should she share the burden of the ballot.

CHARLES E. THORNE.

Wooster, Ohio.

THE NEXT QUARTER-CENTURY OF CHRISTIAN ENDEAVOR

In The Outlook of January 13 Dr. Clark, in his article "A Quarter-Century of Christian Endeavor," lays much emphasis upon the numerical growth of the organization. This numerical growth, however, may be wrongly interpreted. The external features of the movement attracted widespread attention. The reduction of the somewhat complex problem of Christian living to a few simple rules satisfied the less thoughtful. Above all, the recognition, after long waiting, of the value of young manhood and womanhood in the service of Christ and the Church sufficiently explains this phenomenal growth. The success of the movement proves that there is a place in the Church of Christ for a young people's movement; it does not prove that the young people's movement as we know it is filling that place.

After a quarter of a century it becomes evident that Christian Endeavor has not learned to adjust itself to present and changing conditions. The result is that as the young people of the passing generation are nearing middle life their enthusiasm is not being duplicated by the youth of to-day—and it is not the young people's fault.

Externalities can attract, but they cannot hold and continue to inspire the Christian enthusiasm of successive and ever-growing

generations. In societies that were organized during the early days of the movement and in which the young people have advanced in Christian culture there is a decline of enthusiasm, for the old standard no longer inspires their loyalty. In societies where there has not been this advance in Christian culture there is lack of virility, for the old standard has not been outgrown. The cause of this condition is twofold. First, too little attention has been given to the adjustment of the local society to local conditions. It is time for us to break away from our bondage to international systems of Christian work and training. Alliance with world-wide interests need not involve world-wide simultaneous action or universal conformity of method. When not in accord with the highest degree of efficiency, it is merely a matter of sentiment. There should be finer adjustment (1) as to aim—each local society should subordinate itself to the needs of the local church; (2) as to organization, only that degree of organization should be permitted which is in direct proportion to the demand of efficiency which grows out of necessity.

A second cause of the present state of decline is a wrong conception of the nature of the Christian life. The Endeavor pledge names three activities which the Christian is to make "rules" of his life, and further asks the young Christian to promise to perform three duties. Why all this legislation? Why this elevation, or rather degradation, of one or two ways by which the new life finds self-expression from a natural impulse to a test of discipleship? Can we expect the thinking, growing young Christian to regard year after year the Christian life as conformity to rules rather than loyalty to moral convictions, and always to test the reality of that life by

its verbal expression?

Even if these requirements could be kept, which, as a matter of fact, they are not, and consequently thousands of promises are broken each week, should not our young people advance beyond these legalistic conceptions?

What conception are our young people gaining of the sanctity of a pledge, and what of the mystical beauty of the life that is hid with Christ in God? Christ did not say, "If ye love me, keep my commandments," but, "If ye love me, ye will keep my commandments." The time is coming, yea, is now at hand, when the Christian life will be regarded more generally as the natural and normal life, and the expression of Christian experi-

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ence the natural expression of the heart, not manifesting itself exclusively or primarily in public testimony, but in all the varied activities of life.

Professor George E. How has recently said that the new theology is an attitude, not a doctrine. And this attitude is part of a larger movement, the scientific genius of our time. In the realm of religion it insists that all the dealings of God with man are grounded in personality, and that therefore all our apprehensions of these dealings can and should be expressed in terms of reality. With the growth of this conception, with the passage, as Dean Hodges has said, "from a religion of authority to a religion of the spirit, free, glad, and comprehensive," all efforts to impose upon our young people obligations to other than the truth as it awakens moral response stand condemned. That alone is the voice of Christ. Moreover, it becomes increasingly necessary for us to charge our young people to give utterance only to spiritual realities and only when they are realities. We would not sound a retreat. We cannot abandon our young people's movement. But if we continue upon the present basis, no forward movement will be possible. Unless we emancipate our young people and teach them to enter into the "glorious liberty of the children of God," either they will break their own chains and lapse into a false freedom, not learning that there is a "law of liberty," or, remaining in bondage, theirs will be the "spirit of bondage to fear " and not the " spirit of adoption by which we cry, Abba, Father."

H. S. M.

HOWARD CROSBY CLASSICAL LI-BRARY FUND

February 27 marked the eightieth birthday of the late Rev. Dr. Howard Crosby. The effort is now making to perpetuate, in a modest way, the memory of one of New York's noblest sons, a man active, scholarly, virile, cheering the weak and weary, self-forgetful. It may be appropriate to recall that he was Professor of Greek in New York University and at Rutgers, Chancellor of the former (1870-81), founder of the Greek Club (December 30, 1857), one of the Company of Revisers of the translation of the New Tes-

tament, President of the Association for the Prevention of Crime, ever a fearless champion of what was righteous and wholesome. It is now proposed to gather a modest sum, say of two thousand dollars, to found the Howard Crosby Classical Literary Fund, the income of which is to be applied to the strengthening of the Classical Library of the University. The acquisition (in 1902) of the Hübner Classical Collection from Berlin has provided an exceptionally well balanced nucleus of a classical library, which is to be extended by the proposed memorial. Contributions, whether great or small, may be sent to Professor E. G. Sihler or to Professor William E. Waters, University Heights, New York City.

READING MATTER FOR PANAMA

Relative to the letter from Mr. Van Breisen, in your February issue, asking for reading matter for the hospitals on the Isthmus, I would say that I have already received some for that purpose, and a good deal of comfort could be added to the life of the Americans on the Isthmus if magazines and books were sent as follows: Director of Hospitals, Ancon, Canal Zone (for Ancon Hospital and Taboga Sanitarium); Superintendent, Colon Hospital, Colon, Canal Zone; Culebra Hospital, Culebra, Canal Zone; Gorgona Hospital, Gorgona, Canal Zone; Empire Hospital, Empire, Canal Zone; Miraflores Hospital, Miraflores, Canal Zone.

Ancon, Colon, and Miraflores are all large or full-sized hospitals. Taboga Sanitarium is a convalescent hospital, almost exclusively for Americans. Culebra, Gorgona, and Empire, especially the latter one, are small.

C. H. R. CARTER, Director of Hospitals.

Isthmian Canal Commission, Ancon, Canal Zone.

[The Traffic Manager of the Panama Railroad Company, Mr. R. L. Walker, informs us that the Company kindly undertakes to forward from New York to the Isthmus, free of charge, packages of reading matter properly packed for transportation. Packages should be marked "Reading Matter for Hospitals," and sent to the Panama Railroad Company, Pier 57, North River, New York City, and the charges to New York must be prepaid.—The Editors.]



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The Outlock

Saturday, March 17, 1906

A House-Boat Trip in China

By George Kennan

Special Correspondent of The Outlook in the Far East

The Paralysis of Criticism

By Hugh Black

Author of "Friendship," "Self-Culture," etc.

Mission Work in the Rocky Mountains

By the Rt. Rev. James Bowen Funsten

Missionary Bishop of Idaho



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The Outlook

Volume 82

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THE OUTLOOK is a Weekly Newspaper and an Illustrated Monthly Magazine in one. It is published every Saturday—fifty-two issues a year. The fourth issue in each month is an Illustrated Magazine Number, containing about twice as many pages as the regular weekly issue, and many pictures.

PRICE.—The subscription price is Three Dollars a year, payable in advance. Ten cents a copy.

POSTAGE IS PREPAID by the publishers for all subscriptions in the United States, Hawaiian Islands, Philippine Islands, Guam, Porto Rico, Tutuila (Samoa), Shanghai, Canal Zone, Cuba, Canada, and Mexico. For all other countries in the Postal Union add \$1.56 for postage.

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The Outlook

SATURDAY, MARCH 17, 1906

8)

The Anthracite Coal

A critical position in the negotiations between the anthra-

cite mine workers and the operators was reached at the beginning of this week when the reply of the operators to the demands of the miners was made public. This reply consisted of a positive and a sweeping refusal to accept the demands, with a counter-proposal on the part of the operators that the findings and awards of the Anthracite Coal Strike Commission—that is, the findings reached three years ago at the investigation called by President Roosevelt-which would naturally terminate on the first day of April next, should be continued. The operators say that they think the findings of the Anthracite Coal Strike Commission should establish practically permanent relations, and deprecate the disturbances to the public's business and comfort in the renewed negotiations. The main demands of the miners were for a written agreement for one year with the union, the eight-hour day, a uniform scale of wages throughout the anthracite regions, an increase of ten per cent. to men working under contract and an additional ten per cent. to allmen using safety lamps (our inference is that this is because the lamp is a badge of extra-dangerous work), the weighing of coal in all mines, with all payments on the basis of a ton of 2,240 pounds: the deduction by the owners of a certain percentage of each miner's wages to be paid into the union as his dues, and the abrogation of the Board of Conciliation. The conditions of the operators in opposition to these demands are briefly as follows: They stand unalterably for the open shop, and decline to deal with the United Mine Workers of America, which they characterize as "an organization controlled by a rival industry "-mean-

ing thereby the bituminous coal miners, who are in the majority in the National organization; the eight-hour day they consider impracticable because of the conditions of the work; they think that ten hours would be fair, but are willing to continue nine hours as fixed by the Commission, adding that the miners do not average eight hours a day now; a uniform scale of wages would mean, the operators say, higher prices for coal, and is impracticable by reason of differing capacity of workmen and varying conditions in the collieries, while they maintain that the employees now receive exceptionally high wages as compared to those paid employees in any like industry the world over; figures are quoted purporting to show that the contract miner is earning per year \$883.10, or \$443.72 more than in 1899; wages, the operators say, cannot be raised without raising the price to the consumer; as to the proposal to pay by the uniform weight basis of 2,240 pounds, the operators say that it is as proper to pay by measure as by weight, and that the Strike Commission decided against any change in this respect; the operators refuse to reserve from the workers' wages money to be paid into the unions, assert that the Board of Conciliation has not caused delay as claimed by the workers, and say that the decisions which were in favor of the men were promptly carried out; the sliding scale is defended as a guarantee to the men that they will share in any increase in price.

(20)

The Miners' Views

The full text of the formal reply of the officers of the anthracite miners' unions has not, so far as we find at this writing, been published in full. Mr. Mitchell, however, is quoted as saying that the

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proposed increase of ten per cent. is justified by the general industrial, commercial, and trade conditions of the country; that the prosperity of the coalcarrying roads is unprecedented, and that, as the connection between the roads and the mine-owners is undisputed, the workmen in the mines should share in this: that an eight-hour work day has become the standard working day of all bituminous coal workers the world over, and that eight hours is as long as a man can work in a coal mine without injury to his health and consequent injury to society; that a uniform scale of wages for men performing the same work is needed to do away with discontent and is quite practicable; that paying for coal by weight is right because cars of different sizes are used, and when the car is made a unit of measure the introduction of cars of a new size makes friction in adjusting payments, while it is claimed by miners that whenever there is a difference of this kind they are the losers. Mr. Mitchell reiterates the assertions that the Board of Conciliation has resulted in serious delay in the adjustment of grievances, that some cases have been in the hands of the Board for two years, that rarely have cases been decided in less than three months, and that reconstruction of the Board is needed. it is still hoped that some basis of agreement will be found between operators and miners, and while this hope, as we write, is partly based on the fact that the United States Commissioner of Labor has been in conference with John Mitchell, the President of the United Mine Workers, and is thought to be urging conciliation on the part of President Roosevelt, it cannot be doubted that the present condition of the mining difficulty is in the highest degree serious. must not be forgotten that, as The Outlook has repeatedly urged, there are three parties to this controversy, and the interests of the third party, namely, the consumers of coal and the Nation at large, are of such magnitude that it ought to be impossible to cut off the supply of one of the necessities of life because of a disagreement as to wages and hours. In some way a reasonable method of settling disputes must be had.

There is a much Mine Labor Conditions broader aspect in West Virginia to the mine labor situation now confronting the operators and mine workers, not only of the softcoal fields of the Middle West, but also of the anthracite region of Pennsylvania, than the questions in dispute as to wages and conditions of employment. This broader aspect is of the most vital concern to the public. It has to do with the effects that mine labor conditions in West Virginia are having upon practically the entire coal industry of the country. The fact that about forty per cent. of the entire annual output of anthracite, or approximately twenty-five million short tons, comes in direct competition with bituminous coal through what are known to the trade as "steam sizes," lends emphasis to the statement that whatever tends to affect the price of soft coal reacts upon the prices of these small sizes of anthracite, as the two are in competition to meet the fuel demands of many of our industries. West Virginia coal, owing to the favorable geographical location of the deposits of that State and of its railway development, competes in both the Eastern and Lake markets: in the former with the steam sizes of anthracite as well as bituminous coal, and in the Lake markets principally with the bituminous product from western Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois. Under prevailing industrial conditions in the coal mines of West Virginia, by which the operators of that State are enabled not only to secure the cheap labor of negroes moving into that district from Southern States and of immigrants from the southeastern European countries, but also to benefit through various means of exploitation of labor, the labor cost of producing coal is much less in West Virginia than that of the operators in the Middle Western coalproducing States having a common market. The Middle Western coal operators, because their employees are strongly organized in the United Mine Workers of America, not only pay much higher wages than the West Virginia operators pay to their unorganized employees, but they have also abolished many if not all the various means of labor exploitation by

which the cost of production to the operator is greatly lessened. Among these methods of exploitation which prevail to a deplorable extent in West Virginia are the company store, excessive dockage, the large mine car, long hours of work (nine and in the great majority of cases ten hours a day in the mines), and systems and devices whose existence and operation redound to the advantage of the operator and to the disadvantage of the mine employee. Through such labor conditions the West Virginia operator to-day enjoys advantages in competition with the operator of the Middle West, upon whom the miners' union and public opinion have forced a higher standard of industrial morality in the treatment of employees, as we hope they will before long in West Virginia also.

Dissensions Among
Operators
and Mine Workers

In consequence of these conditions, operators of the Middle West are finding

themselves unable to meet the competition of the West Virginia operator. This tendency has been pointed out and a remedy for it urged in every Inter-State Joint Conference of the central competitive territory since the restoration of the trade agreement machinery in 1898. The operators of the Middle West not only have been losing their contracts with the railroads and industrial plants, but even their domestic markets are being taken away from them by the West Virginia product. The operators represented in the joint conferences have made repeated demands upon the United Mine Workers, and this organization has made repeated attempts to organize West Virginia miners sufficiently to bring them and their employers within the jurisdiction of the Inter-State Joint Conference; but, through the operation of welldefined causes, these attempts have so far failed. It is clearly understood by both operators and mine workers participating in the Inter-State Joint Conference that unless West Virginia is brought within the jurisdiction of the Conference's trade agreement the entire movement is in danger of going to pieces

at almost any time. This means that so long as present industrial and labor conditions are permitted to continue in West Virginia the coal-consuming public will have impending over it at all times the possibility of a widespread industrial war, as the mine workers of the Middle West and of the anthracite region will never surrender the comparatively high wages and the fair standard of living to which their union has made them accustomed, until they are forced to it through the failure of a strike. The prevailing conditions in West Virginia are reflected in the failure of the recent conferences of operators to arrive at a harmonious understanding as to their action and policy in the coming Indianapolis convention. The newspaper accounts of all these meetings show a clearly marked division among the operators, some of them favoring the compromise proposition of a five and one-half per cent, increase in wages to the mine workers and the others vigorously opposing any increase, the latter claiming that under present competitive conditions they cannot afford to increase wages and at the same time continue in business. The operators who favor the compromise proposition are the large concerns, like the Pittsburg Coal Company, which have long-term contracts for practically all of their output with big industrial concerns such as the United States Steel Corporation, while the opponents to the wage increase are the operators who must sell their coal on short-term contracts in markets where competition is most severe. Under these industrial and business conditions, even if a strike of the mine workers is averted on April 1, it is only postponing the day when this question of West Virginia competition in the coal markets of the country will force upon the Nation the necessity of a solution to the industrial conditions in that State which give to this competition its strength. Not only can the dissension among the operators be traced to this competition, but it is also largely responsible for the break within the ranks of the mine workers themselves, which was referred to in The Outlook of February 24, for those who oppose the strike policy point out the weakness of the union because unorganized West Virginia mines would capture still more markets in case of a strike. The dissension in District 5 (western Pennsylvania) has resulted in the removal from their respective offices by the district convention of President Dolan and Vice-President Bellingham, and the appointment by the National President of the United Mine Workers of a committee to take charge of the executive offices of the district until another election is held, for which provisions have already been made. President Dolan threatens legal proceedings to retain possession of his office until March, 1907, for which term he claims to have been properly elected.

***** :

In returning to Congress For a Thorough with his signature the Investigation joint resolution lately passed by both its branches providing for an investigation by the Inter-State Commerce Commission into the subjects of monopolies in coal and oil and railway discrimination, President Roosevelt sent a special message in which he pointed out that such an investigation, if not thorough and practical in form and method, would be worse than none at all, as it might be regarded as an evidence of insincerity. The President states that it was with hesitation that he signed the resolution, because of his fear that the form in which it was cast might make it ineffective. The defect pointed out may, he thinks, be remedied by legislation, and the intention of his message is to ask for such legislation. It must be remembered that investigations are already being carried on both as to coal and oil by the Department of Commerce and Labor, and care must be taken that the inquiry which the Inter-State Commerce Commission is now asked to make does not conflict with the other, and the two, as the President says, render each other more or less nugatory. It might also result from the fact that immunity from prosecution must be given to all witnesses that criminal prosecution, now at least possible, might be entirely prevented. While investigation and the resulting enlightenment of the public

may conceivably be even more important than prosecution, the choice between the two should be made deliberately and not thoughtlessly be forced by conflicting efforts. The President hopes that Congress will so amend the resolution that the Inter-State Commerce Commission should be furnished with money and power to make the inquiry searching and thorough. At present it has no sufficient sum of money to enable it to do the additional work thus put upon it, and it is even doubtful whether under this resolution as originally passed it could administer oaths or compel the attendance of witnesses. These suggestions of the President can hardly fail to impress upon Congress the necessity of acting with vigor and clear-sightedness if it is to act at all in this important matter.

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The bill which passed The Statehood the Senate last week dif-Bill fers so radically from that which passed the House not long ago as to be a totally new measure. The Senate bill provides only for the admission of one State, to be called the State of Oklahoma, and to comprise the Territory now bearing that name, together with the adjoining Indian Territory. The House, as our readers know, had joined to this the admission of Arizona and New Mexico united into one State, and it had been thought that the contest in the Senate would certer upon the question as to whether each of the four present Territories involved should be allowed to express its opinion as to joint Statehood by vote. The Foraker amendment, providing for this plebiscite, was carried by a large majority, and then, somewhat to the surprise of the Senate itself, an amendment offered by Senator Burrows striking out all reference to Arizona and New Mexico was carried by a majority of twotwelve Republican Senators joining with the Democrats. The House and the Senate are now so far apart in this matter that political prophets think the probability small that they can come together in the conference of committees which must now be held. The vote in the Senate indicates, it seems to The Outlook, increasing adherence to the general propositions laid down in our editorial comment of last week; namely, that Congress has a right to determine when and how States shall be admitted, and with the interest of the Nation as well as of the Territories concerned in view, but that no Territory should be converted into a State or a part of a State against the will of its people. It may be added that, whatever political expediency may seem to demand, a Territory well fitted for Statehood and desiring Statehood should not be excluded for partisan political reasons.

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Free Alcohol for Use in the Arts and Manufactures The Ways and Means Committee of the House of Representa-

tives has had under consideration for some time several bills providing for the removal of the tax on denatured alcohol for use in the arts and manufactures. Denatured alcohol is alcohol which has been rendered unfit for drinking by the addition of substances which are poisonous to a certain extent or offensive to smell and taste and revolting to the stomach. Many processes of denaturing are in use in other countries, and it is practically undisputed that alcohol can be so treated, without impairing its efficiency as a fuel, an illuminant, or a solvent, that it will be undrinkable by any except degenerates. It must be remembered that there are two kinds of alcohol in general use—ethyl or grain alcohol, which is found in intoxicating beverages, and methyl or wood alcohol, which is poisonous. Grain alcohol pays an internal revenue tax of \$2.20 per gallon on the pure spirit, while wood alcohol is untaxed. Denatured alcohol is free from taxation in Great Britain. Germany, France, and nine other European countries, and in Cuba and five countries in South America. It is argued in favor of free denatured alcohol that, judging from the experience in those countries, it would add to the prosperity of many industries using alcohol in their manufacturing processes, would make possible the establishment of other industries in which cheap grain alcohol is a

necessity, and would afford a cheaper and more satisfactory material than any now available for motors of various kinds, and for heating and lighting under certain conditions. At the hearing before the Committee the Secretary of Agriculture and the Master of the National Grange of the Patrons of Husbandry presented the advantages to the farmers of the country from the removal of the tax. It is argued that alcohol, burned in suitable lamps, is a better illuminant than kerosene, that it can be used for heating and cooking and as a fuel for the motors which the farmers are using to a greater and greater extent for baling hay, shelling corn, sawing wood, threshing, churning, pumping water, and running all kinds of farm machinery, much more safely than gasoline and probably more cheaply. The supply of gasoline is limited, and the steadily increasing demand for it is rapidly raising the price. Grain alcohol can be made from all the plants that contain large quantities of starch and sugar. Corn, including the stalks, potatoes, sweet potatoes, waste molasses from the sugarcane and the sugar beet, are all available sources of alcohol, and the farmers, by the establishment of central distilling plants in each section, would be able to dispose of quantities of products which are now waste or unprofitable. The farmers would benefit doubly, by an increased demand for what they raise, and by an abundant and cheap supply of a valuable material for light, heat, and power.

The main objections to **Objections** the removal of the tax to Free Alcohol are made by the manufacturers of methyl or wood alcohol. They contend that the expectation of a wide increase in the use of grain alcohol for lighting, heating, and running motors would not be realized, and that the chief use of the denatured product would be in those industries where wood alcohol is now employed; though they acknowledge that it would displace the wood alcohol because it can do the work as well and in many cases better, is more pleasant to use, and would be cheaper.

The wood alcohol makers claim that

such a decrease in the demand as would result would destroy their business; while the benefits would be felt only by the classes of industries now using wood alcohol. In reply to this argument it is said that there will be a considerable demand for wood alcohol for use in denaturing grain alcohol, and that the expected increased consumption of denatured alcohol would in a short time call for as much wood alcohol as is now manufactured. It seems to be well established also that the employment of methyl alcohol in any industry where the work is conducted in confined quarters is injurious to health, sometimes resulting in complete or partial blind-The question has been raised whether, by the removal of the tax on denatured alcohol, encouragement would not be given to the attempt to recover pure grain alcohol from the denatured product and thus the public health be menaced and the Government treasury defrauded. To us the weight of evidence seems to be on the side of those who deny that, under proper regulation, any such evil would follow the removal of the tax. The arguments of the manufacturers of wood alcohol should receive consideration. If it seems probable, however, that the expected advantages will accrue to many industries and to the farmers, Congress ought not to continue a tax for the protection of a single industry

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A very interesting An Election Reform and suggestive con-Conference ference for the consideration of election reforms was held in New York on March 6 and 7, under the auspices of the National Civic Federation. Mr. Oscar S. Straus, President of the Federation and of the National Primary League, opened the sessions with an able address on "Reform of the Primaries and Election League." Ballot and primary laws and corrupt practices were the three principal topics under consideration. Both sides of each question were set forth by capable representatives. The discussion of the Wisconsin law was particularly interesting. Mr. I. L. Lenroot, Speaker of the Wis

consin lower House, spoke in favor of the La Follette law, and Collector Monaghan, an adherent of Senator Spooner, against. Mr. Lenroot advanced the usual arguments in favor of direct primaries. Mr. Monaghan declared that the present system in Wisconsin practically deprived the farmer of any vote in either county or State affairs because of its cumbersome provisions; it compels the candidate to make two campaigns to secure office, and forces him to waste unnecessary time, and money which many cannot afford; and the plurality vote nominates. Again, Mr. Monaghan thought that one of the strongest objections was that Wisconsin will have a candidate platform instead of a people's platform. He claimed that this was getting near to the people with a vengeance, and was one of the lamest provisions of this wholly bad law. Congressman Bennett, who followed Mr. Monaghan, took occasion to say that all of the objections which Mr. Monaghan had urged against the direct primaries system could be urged with equal force against the convention system, and he illustrated his points from his own experience. He pointed out how one man in a constituency of two hundred and ninety thousand was the dominating factor in nominations. discussion of the Australian ballot was most illuminating, Josiah Quincy and Richard H. Dana defending the Massachusetts ballot with great force and effect. To the chief objection to the Australian system, that it resulted in a great falling off in the vote between the head of the ticket and the other candidates on the ticket, Mr. Quincy replied that a large percentage of the voters do not exercise the right of suffrage. If four out of five registered voters go to the polls, it is considered a big vote. Why should not four-fifths of the people have the right to vote for what officers they please if one-fifth are permitted to stay at home? Mr. Dana made an equally effective reply, showing that very often the large vote was for some office about which there was a particular fight and in which there was special interest, thus indicating that people voted for the offices in which they were specially interested and declined to express a preference where

they were uninformed or uninterested. One of the most striking addresses on corrupt practices legislation was from the leader of the Conservative party in the Canadian Parliament. The resolutions adopted at the conclusion of the Conference declared in favor of the establishment of a permanent department of the National Civic Federation to take jurisdiction of the subjects which the Conference was called to consider: it also declared that experience shows that existing provisions of criminal law against the purchase of votes are inadequate, and that proper corrupt practices legislation should include:

The publication of all contributions and expenditures.

The prohibition of political contributions

by corporations.

The definition and limitation of permissible

political expenditures.

Provisions for judicial inquiry into election expenditures and existence of corrupt practices, in which proceedings any citizen may participate.

The punishment of corrupt practices by further penalties, such as disfranchisement or disqualification for office, in addition to fine or imprisonment.

The bills introduced in

Criticising the the New York Legisla-Insurance Bills ture by the Armstrong Investigating Committee were discussed at a public hearing last Friday by representatives of the insurance companies. The presidents of the three great companies, Mr. Paul Morton, of the Equitable, Mr. Alexander E. Orr, of the New York Life, and Mr. Charles A. Peabody, of the Mutual, the actuaries of these companies, representatives of the smaller companies and of the life insurance agents of the State, presented criticisms and suggestions. With practical unanimity the speakers, highly commended the work of the Committee, and expressed themselves as in accord with the spirit and general tendency of its recommendations. Their criticisms, however, covered pretty thoroughly the various bills, and when the hearing was over few of the provisions had not been attacked. Publicity of accounting was heartily approved by many of the speakers, and the opinion seemed to be general that it would prevent practically all

the evils and render unnecessary specific limitations of management. The prohibition of campaign contributions, the regulation of lobbying, and the provisions for giving the policy-holders in mutual companies greater opportunities for participation in their control were passed over in silence, although we understand that the last subject has been reserved for consideration at another hearing. The provision for the limitation of the amount of new business which a company may write annually was agreed to, with a suggested amendment postponing its operation for a few years, thus giving the companies time to adjust themselves to the new conditions. The limit proposed for the largest companies is about half the amount of the business written by the New York Life Insurance Company last year; to enforce that limit at once would, the large companies assert, disorganize their agency systems and entail considerable loss. Mr. Morton presented a modification of the Committee's plan for the restriction of investments which he believed would accomplish the desired result and at the same time save the policy-holders a great deal of money. Instead of forbidding the ownership by life insurance companies of the stock of other corporations and of bonds secured by stock, he would permit them to retain their present investments, with the exception that no company should hold over twenty per cent, of the stock of a bank or trust company. In the future he would permit investments in the stocks of railroads which have maintained a certain record in dividend-paying, and in collateral trust bonds issued by companies operating railroads which have not defaulted in their interest-paying for a number of years. The abolition of the deferred dividend form of policy was opposed by the insurance companies on the ground that there is a large and legitimate demand for it, that the policy-holder should be allowed freedom to select whatever kind of contract he prefers, and that by this form of policy many men are induced to insure their lives who would not otherwise do so, thereby increasing the number of families having protection. It was argued further that

the deferred dividend plan afforded a perfectly proper reward for, and incentive to, persistence in payment of premiums. The provision for the maintenance of a contingency reserve fund not to exceed a specified maximum and for the annual distribution of all the surplus over and above this fund was also opposed. was claimed that the maximum fixed by the Committee was entirely too low, and that the officials of the companies should be allowed to use their discretion in the laying aside of a fund as a protection against fluctuations in the price of securities and other unforeseen contingencies. It was contended that if the entire surplus must be distributed annually, the variation in the policy-holder's dividends from year to year which must inevitably result would lead to dissatisfaction and would tend greatly to increase the lapsing of policies. The provision of the bills which aroused the greatest opposition was that limiting the amount which might be spent each year in obtaining new business. It was urged that the provision was unworkable; the bill makes no statement of just what expenses shall be included in this category, and, even if they were carefully defined, it would be impossible for the officials of the company to determine at the beginning of the year how much new business they would obtain and therefore how much they might spend in obtaining that business. The limit set by the Committee was protested against, also, because it was so low as to make it practically impossible for the average agent to make a living on that basis. The life insurance representatives were listened to with the closest attention by the members of the Committee, with the evident desire of obtaining the most light possible on the great problem which they have been working on with such energy and fidelity. There seems little reason to doubt that the legislation as finally shaped by the Committee will be, on the whole, sane, equitable, and thorough.

The Battle in Jolo

The engagement of MajorGeneral Wood's forces with a band of hostile

Moros on Tuesday and Wednesday of last week is sufficiently important to mark

it as the most serious military operation in the Philippines since the collapse of the general insurrectionary movement. But it must be carefully distinguished from that movement, with which it has no connection, direct or indirect. It has long been recognized by all who are in the least conversant with the situation in the Philippines that the government of the Moros or Mohammedans in the southern islands is a question entirely by itself. In so far as these people resist and defy American authority, it is not at all from any sympathy with Aguinaldo's former organized resistance—and, indeed, the Moros bitterly hate the Filipinos, properly so called, who differ from them in race, religion, and customs. A sentence in General Wood's report gives concisely the actual facts as to this armed resistance: "The action resulted in the extinction of a band of outlaws who, recognizing no chief, had been raiding friendly Moros, and owing to their defiance of the American authorities had stirred up a dangerous condition of affairs." The Sultan of Jolo has expressed his approval of the extermination of this band of outlaws. General Corbin in his comment about this fight says:

This encounter has no bearing on the Philippines situation. The Moros are religious fanatics, and are not amenable to the influences of other peoples. They owe no allegiance except to their Mohammedan faith, and are liable to cause trouble at any time. Their acts have no more relation to the conduct of the Filipinos than the Apache outbreaks in former days in Arizona with the situation in other States and Territories.

From the military point of view the battle possessed considerable interest because of the strong intrenchment of the Moros in the crater of a lava-cone over two thousand feet high, at the top of Mount Dajo. Such a position, the approaches to which were strengthened by the natural defenses of heavy timber, and further made difficult by the extremely steep slope of the mountain, might well seem impregnable to these fierce Moros, and would be impregnable to any kind of an attack they had known of among themselves. General Wood, however, caused a number of guns to be lifted by block and tackle to a position three hundred feet high, where they

commanded the crater. The detachments of infantry and of the naval contingent which operated with the army advanced under cover of the fire of the guns, and, although the resistance was stubborn, the result was the capture of the position, with a loss on our part of fifteen men killed and about sixty-five officers and men wounded. The scene of the fight was a precipitous volcanic hill about five miles from the town of Iolo—the War Department seems to prefer the spelling Jolo to that of Sulu for the island, town, and group of islands to which the two names are rather indiscriminately applied. The loss to the Moros was about six hundred killed. This includes, it is reported, many women and children who were held by the Moros in their stronghold. The disparity in the losses of the two forces is a significant illustration of the inequality between an army with antiquated arms and insufficient training in an almost perfectly defended position and an army with arms of precision and military science compelled to attack a seemingly impregnable fort. It is generally believed that the defeat of these insurgent Moros will make unlikely any further combined resistance to American authority in the Jolo Archipelago, although there will probably continue to be more or less turbulence from time to time because of the fierce jealousy and warlike habits of the bands of semi-brigands, held together by rival chiefs, or dattos, who sometimes fight among themselves and sometimes resent the authority of the Sultan or of the Americans.

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Perhaps the most remark-The British able feature of the recent Labor Party British elections was the birth of a new political party. For a long time such labor leaders as Messrs. John Burns and Keir Hardie had exercised a strong influence both in and out of Parliament, but only with the present year may a definite, numerous, and weighty labor delegation in Parliament be said to have come into being. Judging from last month's record, its fifty-four members are likely to have a distinct voice in the framing of new legislation.

In almost the first debate in Parliament the subject of old-age pensions came up, and members of the House of Commons listened with keen interest to the maiden speeches of some of the Laborites: with a specially intelligent attention, indeed, because of the report which had just been published on that subject from Mr. Burns, now President of the Local Government Board in the new Cabinet. Out of a total of about 884,000 persons receiving Poor Law relief last year, about 340,000 were over sixty years old; the deduction being that the introduction of a system of old-age pensions would not drain the public pocket as much as sup-This subject had been well discussed during the elections; indeed, Mr. Hardie declares that probably not onetenth of the Liberal members won their seats without making more or less definite promises in regard to old-age pensions. Shortly after the opening of Parliament Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman, the new Prime Minister, received a deputation urging this reform from the Parliamentary Committee of the Trade Union Congress. While assuring the deputation of his full sympathy, Sir Henry urged that there was no money with which to pay pensions; however, if a little less ambitious policy were pursued (doubtless referring to the policy of his predecessors), it would be possible to find money for so beneficent a purpose. Mr. Hardie declared that the excuse of no money had been made twelve years ago; that in the interval the Government's expenditure had advanced by nearly forty million pounds (\$200,000,000) a year, half of which went in "wasteful expenditure on the army and navy." The total extra cost of providing pensions for the aged poor is estimated at from fifty million to sixty million dollars. Since 1895, however, protested Mr. Hardie, fifteen hundred million dollars has been "squandered on a war which did no one good except the contractors." However men may differ as to the necessity of the Boer War, there is no question, we suppose, that the expenditure of huge sums for military purposes is only embittering the Laborites the more in their struggle for legislation on such humaner subjects as old-age pensions, better compensation

and cheap trains for workmen, closer inspection of factories and railway cars, and a new definition of the rights of trade unions.

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On no subject, however, has **Education** the action of the Labor in England party been more marked than on that of education. At the annual Labor Conference, held February 15, the Education Act of 1902 was condemned, and demands were put forth for equal opportunities for all; that all grades of education should be free and State-maintained; that education in all State-supported schools should be secular; that at least one free meal per day should be given to all school-children. This programme seems more like public school education as we understand it in America. Though the recent Education Act of 1902 co-ordinated the English educational scheme by uniting the Board schools with the Voluntary schools, by a system which seeks to reconcile the claims of State and Church as represented by those schools, the claims of the Church have received, not only according to Nonconformists, but also according to many Anglican Churchmen, an undue preference. Canon Henson is a good representative of those liberal churchmen. He truly declares that the lower and lower-middle classes, who are directly interested in the elementary schools to which they send their children, are, in the main, undenominational in the sense that they regard denominational claims as of minor importance; that they have never supported the denominational schools, which have been provided and managed without their consent; but that they are strongly attached to the religion of the New Testament, and desire that their children should be taught it in the schools. Hence, it has been proposed by the Liberal leaders, with the support of some Laborites, that the Government should, first, abolish all religious tests for teachers, and, second, provide a common form for Christian teaching to be taught in all the schools. The Laborites, who support this plan, are also insistent that the Government shall not sanction the compromise urged upon it—namely, to provide facilities for dogmatic instruction for half an hour before the opening of the school proper. This latter position was recently succinctly put by the Bishop of Birmingham, when he declared that—

Undenominationism means either that each schoolmaster shall teach what religious belief he pleases in giving Bible classes, or that the State authority in education shall formulate some sort of standard representing what is believed to be our common Christianity and cause it to be taught. Neither of those alternatives appears to us as tolerable. I use the word strictly. We believe that there is, in the present condition of religious opinion among us, only one tolerable principle; that is, that the parents shall be invited to determine what kind of religious teaching they wish to be given to their children, and by what kind of teachers they wish it to be given, and that the State should impartially facilitate the teaching of religion chosen by the parents.

It remains to be seen whether Canon Henson or the Bishop of Birmingham exhibits the juster sense of proportion. The average American's sympathies will lie, we believe, with the former.

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Last week, after holding The French office a little over a year, Cabinet the French Ministry resigned. The ostensible cause was a fortuitous coming together, in a vote of noconfidence, of Clericals and Socialists. The first blamed Premier Rouvier because he had so drastically applied the provision of the law requiring an inventory of churches; the second, because he had not applied it drastically enough. M. Rouvier's resignation might of course have been avoided had he listened to the counsels of the extreme Radicals. He correctly declares that he has fallen between two stools, that if he had enforced the inventory provision more immediately, unfeelingly, and with less regard for the particular sentiments of the various communities affected, he would have polled a handsome Ministerial majority. Apparently he pays dearly for his wisdom by the opposition to him at a supposed critical moment in French foreign relations not only of his enemies, the Clericals, but of his presumable friends, the Socialists, who have now given another proof of a political irre-

sponsibility which hardly attaches to German Socialists. The Cabinet crisis occurred, apparently, at a critical time, if the Moroccan Conference had not really reached a practical conclusion, and if Church manifestants were not to be checked. The Rouvier Ministry tendered its resignation when M. Fallières was inaugurated President last month, but, at the request of the new President, remained in office. Its departure from office will call forth regret, not only from many Frenchmen, but also from many observers and friends outside France. The manner of its going, however, will only enhance M. Rouvier's reputation as a statesman. On Monday of this week it was announced that M. Jean Marie Ferdinand Sarrien had definitely succeeded in the task of forming a Ministry. The new Premier's name and that of M. Léon Bourgeois, who is to be Foreign Minister, are guarantees that the incoming Ministry will continue its predecessor's praiseworthy policy toward Morocco, Germany, the Vatican, and most important of all—towards England.

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Baron von Sternburg on Morocco Last week Baron Speck von Sternburg, German Am-

bassador at Washington, emphatically denied the charge that by the Conference at Algeciras, Spain, the German Emperor is seeking an excuse for trouble with France rather than an agreement about The Ambassador declared Morocco. that Germany urged a conference at Algeciras for the specific object of reaching a peaceable arrangement; her policy has been and is to preserve the status quo in all countries whose rights rest on the laws of nations. Speaking to a representative of The Outlook, the Ambassador said: "This object explains the Kaiser's policy, to which Germany owes her sound development during long years of peace. It marks the different lines which France and Germany are following at Algeciras, the one tending to guard the signatory Powers of the Treaty of Madrid and the open door in trade, the other to turn Morocco into a French protectorate." Concerning the main points at issue—an international

police system and an international bank for Morocco-France naturally claims a preferential position because of the length of her Algerian frontier, despite the provision of the Treaty of Madrid stipulating that all the Powers shall have equal rights in Morocco. Germany, on the other hand, while acknowledging the special interests of France, insists upon these equal rights. As to the bank, France claims control because of her preponderant interest in Morocco's previous loans; Germany replies that if France obtains control, equal economic rights will be forfeited. The German position is apparently that peace should not be bought at the sacrifice of an international principle; as Baron von Sternburg says, the greatest good to the greatest number is a law among nations as among individuals, and in this particular case the acceptance of the French proposals with regard to the bank and the police would confer upon France the control of Morocco economically and financially, thereby closing the door to the rest of the world. "What Germany is now working for in Algeciras," added the Ambassador, "is nothing more than to place the two vital questions—police and bank—under international control. I am sure that as soon as that is sufficiently guaranteed, she will consider her task fulfilled." From the events of the past week, however, both France and Germany may claim a victory. The Conference as a whole recognizes the special interests of France, but by insisting on the open door prevents her from repeating the commercial policy she pursued in Tunis and Madagascar.

The Russian Duma

Last week an Imperial manifesto was published setting forth decisions in regard to the carrying out of the Czar's manifesto of October 30 last. It is provided that the two bodies which are to compose the Russian Parliament, the Council of the Empire and the Duma, or National Assembly, shall be convoked and prorogued annually by Imperial ukase. Both Parliamentary bodies are to have equal legislative powers in initiating legislation and in other matters,

Both bodies may annul the election of any of their members. Ministers are to be eligible to election to the Duma. sessions of both the Duma and the Council of the Empire are to be public. closure of a debate may be voted by a majority. Laws voted by the two bodies are to be submitted for Imperial sanction by the President of the Council of the Empire. The members of both bodies are to be immune from arrest during the session, except by permission of the bodies to which they belong, unless guilty of flagrant offenses. Only bills passed by both bodies may be submitted for the Emperor's sanction. Bills rejected by the Emperor may not be brought forward again in the course of the same session of Parliament. Bills rejected by one of the legislative bodies will require Imperial assent before being reintroduced. During suspension of the sittings of the Duma, or National Assembly, the Council of Ministers (should extraordinary circumstances arise calling for legislative action) may refer to the Emperor for his decision such measures as do not involve a change in the fundamental laws of the Empire. The power of such a law ceases, however, if, two months after the Duma has resumed its sittings, no bill embodying the provisions contained in the act is brought forward, or if such bill has been rejected by either Parliamentary body.

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The Council of the Empire The Russian is to consist of an equal Council number of elected members and members nominated by the Emperor. Each zemstvo is privileged to elect a member; six members are to be returned by the Synod of the Orthodox Church, six by the Academy of Sciences and Universities, twelve by the Bourses of Commerce and Industry, eighteen by the nobility, and six by the landed proprietors of Poland. All the members of the Council must be over forty years old and baccalaureates. The President and Vice-President will be appointed by the Emperor. Elective members will receive \$12.50 daily during the session. The consideration of the following subjects is intrusted to members of the Council all of whom are to be appointed solely by the Crown:

1. Reports of the Minister of Finance upon

the state of the Treasury.

2. Charges of malfeasance against members of the Council of the Empire, Ministers, Governors-General, and Commanders-in-Chief of land or sea forces.

3. The establishment of stock companies

with special privileges.

4. Questions relating to entailed estates and titles of nobility.

These provisions abundantly indicate the Government's purpose to keep a firm check on Parliament in general, and especially by the composition of the Council—with one-half appointed by the Czar and twenty-four members elected from the nobility and clergy—to insure a conservative majority in the Council to block the Duma or National Assembly should the latter oppose the Crown. But perhaps, after all, these restrictions are relatively small when we consider that for the first time in Russian history an arena of free discussion has finally been opened.

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The indorsement and The Consumers' vigorous promotion of League five bills now pending before Congress constituted the novel feature of the seventh annual meeting of the National Consumers' League recently held at Boston. These bills affect the welfare of wage-earning women and children, and also the conscience and well-being of the consumers who are indirectly their employers. With sixty active branches in twenty States and a fresh record of valuable assistance rendered in urging the passage of the Pure Food Bill in the Senate, the National Consumers' League proposes to add a campaign for Federal legislation to the efforts (which it will continue as before through the State and local leagues) on behalf of the workers in the sweated trades and in stores. Of the five bills thus indorsed and taken up for promotion, the Hepburn Pure Food Bill now before the House of Representatives is the only one which has passed either branch of Congress. The others provide for: The regulation of child labor in the District of Columbia; compulsory education in the District of Columbia; a Children's Bureau;

and an investigation of the labor of women and children throughout the United States. The bills providing for compulsory education and regulating child labor in the District of Columbia failed to pass when introduced at the short session, and are now before Congress for the second time. The proposed Children's Bureau would do for our future citizens what the Government has long done for the forests, the navigable rivers, the Indians, the crops, and many other interests; viz., furnish trustworthy current information concerning them as a basis for State and municipal action. A single point may illustrate the need. There has never been any comprehensive study of orphanage from the point of view of preventing destruction of life of able-bodied fathers of young families on railroads, in mines, quarries, powder-mills, etc. Yet a hardworked argument in favor of child labor is the possible starvation of fatherless children if prevented from working. The Children's Bureau would be in a position to furnish all the facts necessary to enlightened legislation on these interrelated subjects. The investigation of wage-earning women would carry out the recommendation of President Roosevelt in his recent Message. This bill has been reported favorably by the Committee on Labor, and an item providing \$250,000 for meeting the expense has been included in the appropriation bill at the request of Mr. Victor Metcalf, Commissioner of Labor. In order to deal with the now National problem of workingwomen, investigation on a National scale is needed. It is to obtain this, as well as the continuous investigation of all the circumstances shaping the lives of child workers, that the National Consumers' League has committed itself, voicing the great body of consumers, the ultimate employers and the ultimate lawmakers.

Christian Socialism in Ohio

Toledo, Ohio, which, though it caused no stir in the city and passed almost unnoticed by the rest of the State, was not without significance

in the religious development of the Na-

tion. It was the State Convention of the Young Men's Christian Association. During the sessions there was very little of the stereotyped phrase, the trite exhortation, and the solemn discussion of devices as if they were principles; instead there was a very earnest and, on the whole, intelligent attempt to understand the duty of the Association toward the pressing social problems of the day. Instead of the old question, How can we rescue more individuals from an evil world? the question was, How can we get at the evils of the world itself and cure them? A large part of the sessions was thus devoted to a discussion of the place the Association can have in making municipal government sounder and more Christian in spirit. The resolutions adopted indicate the spirit of the Convention. They assert that "the Associations as a rule have taken no sufficient part in the investigation of social conditions," and recommend that "each association, through some department already organized, or by some special committee, make a thorough study of social conditions in its own locality, and propose some definite workable scheme for making our associations in fact Christian Associations as well as associations of Christians." Several of the speakers were not actively engaged in Association work. Among them was ex-Governor Montague, of Virginia. This Convention indicates the progressive character of the Associations of Ohio and the direction in which the Associations throughout the country are likely to develop.

The Chicago City Saloon License Made Council last week \$1,000 in Chicago voted to double the saloon license fee, making the rate \$1,000 instead of \$500. This action was the result of a short but aggressive campaign which aroused the community as it has not been aroused before for years on any phase of the saloon question. Chicago's revenues are deficient, in consequence of which the police force is inadequate in numbers. Within the last two or three months there has been an unusually large number of murders and other crimes of violence. A larger police

force was recognized in all quarters to be imperatively necessary. An ordinance was introduced into the City Council raising the saloon license fee to \$1,000 as the best means of providing the needed police increase. The liquor interests proposed as a compromise that the fee be raised from \$500 to \$600. When the vote was first taken in the Council about three weeks ago, the high license measure was defeated by a very narrow margin. The fight was at once renewed, and resulted in victory for the \$1,000 ordinance. In New York City the saloon license fee is \$1,200. In Philadelphia and Pittsburg it is \$1,100. In Boston the rate varies from \$500 to \$2,000. The higher license fee in these cities was cited as an argument for the increase proposed in Chicago. But a fact which makes the Chicago victory notable in comparison with the other cities mentioned is that in New York and the other cities the high license rate was imposed by the State Legislature, while in Chicago it was the City Council, responsible solely to the local cosmopolitan constituency, in which the liquor interests are very powerful, that voted the increase. fact is full of significance as to the improvement which is taking place in our Ten years ago the Chicago City Council would have voted down overwhelmingly any proposition seriously opposed by the saloon interests. the progressive movement of the past ten years in Chicago has not been an anti-saloon movement, nevertheless the improvement wrought makes it possible, when an issue is raised between the people as a whole and the saloon interests as a class, for the people to dominate and override the protests of the class.

A Fair Hearing for American Compositions As its name is intended to indicate, the New Music Society of America is organized to pro-

duce in public "new music" composed by Americans. The first concert of the Society was given in Carnegie Hall last Saturday by the Russian Symphony Orchestra, under the direction of Modest Altschuler. The music that was really new on the programme was a "dramatic

scene" for soprano and orchestra by H. F. Gilbert, and the composition which won the Paderewski prize last year, entitled "Overture Joyeuse," by Arthur Shepherd. Each in its way exhibited the incoherence that seems to be the characteristic defect of the work of the younger writers for the orchestra at the present; and neither had, as a whole, that quality of freshness and convincing artistic sincerity which saves some modern compositions equally incoherent. The two works of Edward MacDowell which were performed furnished the really valuable and beautiful parts of the concert. Both of these, however, the Second Indian Suite and the Second Piano Concerto, have been performed adequately several times in this country. Ruth Lynda Déyo, a pupil of MacDowell's, gave to the concerto a sympathetic if somewhat too vigorous interpretation. Although the purpose of the Society was very meagerly expressed in this concert, it is one that is not without justification. The fact that almost all the orchestral performers and conductors in this country are foreigners has given to music in America a cosmopolitan quality; but it has to some degree tended to put native composers at a disadvantage. undertaking of the New Music Society to remove in some measure the natural handicap of the American composer deserves a fair trial.

The Present Condition of Labor in England

The Royal Commission on English Trade Disputes has just issued its report. The Commission was formed over two and a half years ago. Its Chairman is Lord Dunedin, President of the Court of Session, and a great Conservative lawyer. Its members are Sir Godfrey Lushington, formerly of the Home Office; Sir William Lewis, representing the South Wales coal owners; the Right Hon. Arthur Cohen, a distinguished Liberal lawyer; and Mr. Sidney Webb, the eminent economist, and long the chief literary champion of trades union-But even with such a protagonist on the Commission as Mr. Webb the trade unions declined to give evidence before it. Fortunately, this abstention was not such a serious hindrance as it might seem, the contentions of trade unionists having previously been thoroughly considered. The Commission evidently spared no pains in investigating actual conditions, and the concurrence of opinion on principal points at issue of the types of men represented by the Commissioners is a striking commentary on the judicial quality and sagacity of their report.

Before 1871 English trade unions were regarded purely as an aggregation of individuals; a suit at law could be instituted only against members individually. In 1871 trade unions were legalized; they had the power to sue, but they were not free from the liability to be sued, provided the proper machinery could be discovered. Trade unionists claimed the right of exemption because of the difficulties of practice. For a long time, therefore, the great labor questions in England were: Can trade unions be sued? Is it or is it not to the public advantage for the funds of trade unions to be liable for payment in damages? Finally, in the Taff-Vale case, the House of Lords, sitting as a court, decided that a registered trade union could be sued under its registered name. The practical immunity enjoyed by English trades unions was ended. It is interesting to note the unanimous vote of the present Commission that the principle of the Taff-Vale decision was equitable and right and ought to be retained, first, because "there is no rule of law so elementary, so universal, or so indispensable as the rule that a wrong-doer should be made to redress his wrong;" and, second, because, since the decision, trade disputes have been less frequent, better conducted, and more easily set-Thus, concerning the liability of trade union funds for payment in damages, the Commissioners unanimously condemn the contention that the trades union should be able to do wrong by means of these funds, and yet not be bound to compensate its victims:

The notion of a trade union having been intended to be specially exempted from actions of tort is a mere misconception, resting

on no other foundation than long practical immunity, which was simply the result of defects in general legal procedure that have now been remedied on general considerations of equity.

A second opinion by the Commission concerns not a general legal liability, but the particular law of agency. Should the funds of a union be taken in execution for its branch agents' wrongful acts? Most of the Commissioners recommend that the central trade union authorities should be protected against the unauthorized but immediately disavowed acts of branch agents—a reasonable proposal, say some critics, quoting the similar New South Wales law of 1903; unreasonable, say others, because such liability is not lessened in the cases of other companies or partnerships: if branch officials do unauthorized acts. the constitution of the trade union itself should be readjusted, not the text of English law.

A third subject was that of "picketing." Theoretically "picketing" is, possibly, harmless; practically it is a menace if not a coercion. By the English law a workman cannot be punished for "peacefully persuading" to strike; the Commission, however, would justly strengthen the present law by recommending that a workman be punished who "acts in such a manner as to cause a reasonable apprehension in the mind of any person that violence will be used to him or to his wife or family, or damage be done to his property."

Fourthly, as to conspiracy, the Act of 1875 declares that no combination to commit any act which, done by one person, would not be an offense punishable by imprisonment, can be made the subject of criminal proceedings. ing to the trend of recent judgments in the courts, however, this does not exempt a union from liability to a civil action a trend so marked as to elicit the not unnatural protest from trade unionists that the law of conspiracy is strained when trade combinations are made illegal though not indictable. It is a distinct event in the English labor world that four out of five of the Commissioners propose that "an agreement or combination by two or more persons to do or procure to be done any act in contemplation or furtherance of a trade dispute shall not be the ground of a civil action, unless the agreement or combination is indictable as a conspiracy, notwithstanding the terms of the 'Conspiracy and Protection of Property Act of 1875.'" Thus the Commission would grant the trade unions' request—a protection on the civil side corresponding to that which the Act of 1875 gave to them on the criminal side.

Finally, a majority of the Commission also recommends that facilities should be established for incorporating trade The trade unions themselves have not yet signified a willingness to avail themselves of such a privilege they shrink from the advantages belonging to incorporation because they will not accept its liabilities. But most of those outside the unions, whether employers or employed, will, we think, generally agree that the present position of the trade union is as anomalous as is that of the capitalistic trust. Neither should be allowed to evade the law, much less be outside the law, either in England or America. Both should frankly accept a legal status, with all its attendant rights, duties, and responsibilities to the sovereign power—the Government.

Indignant Time

It never seems to have occurred to the drivers of this already too impatient and obstreperous generation that Time might resent their ceaseless assaults, and that his cumulative resentment would, sooner or later, in every particular case, overbalance his forbearance.

All living beings have a clearly defined period of growth, and man is no exception. Probably no other kind of created beings could have survived at all if the orderly development of its young from infancy to maturity had been hurried forward by such various means and in so many ways as we apply to the hothouse forcing of the young of our species, in our mad assaults on the one indispensable requisite for normal growth wherever it can be struck at, reduced, or destroyed.

How vast and multifarious these as-

saults are none of us can even faintly realize, any more than we are aware of the motions of the earth or the weight of the atmosphere; but something of the incredible folly of our craze for the annihilation of time may be understood when we hold steadily before our eyes the fact that every last fiber of our natures, all that we are, in gross and in detail, was accurately shaped to fit a life engineered by hand power and carried forward afoot. That formative life was in nowise secure, and it was frequently strenuous, but all the details of its customary business required considerable time, and admitted of frequent intervals of waiting or repose.

Now, certain characteristics in which we are found wanting by impartial critics, such as self-control, balance, dignity, self-respect (which is not the same thing as self-assertion), courtesy, and integrity, cry aloud for time. "Give us plenty of time," implore these vanishing virtues, "else we perish from the earth." For who can acquire manners by steam or And how shall even minor express? morals be laid on while you wait? here, as well as along the mechanical and physical sides of life, we attack divine Time with all our might, incessantly, never dreaming that we work mischief by interfering with a fundamental condition of human development. And because the eye cannot see what we have done, because a man appears much the same whether he has been fatally flawed in the grain by furnace seasoning or has been permitted slowly and thoroughly to mature in a natural way, we do not take alarm. We draw no inferences, even when our figureheads go to pieces like kiln-dried pulp at the touch of salt water, our corner-stones crumble to mud when an insignificant fireman in the ordinary discharge of his duties happens to turn the hose on a waste-basket blaze, and our venerable wardens and directors go down like a row of bricks if a street urchin happens to joggle the

This is where indignant Time, finding no rest for the sole of his foot anywhere in the world, and realizing unwillingly that we mean to slay and annihilate him utterly, and that we do not want to recognize his beneficence, finally makes a stand and strikes back, not very hard as vet, but still hard enough to bring intelligent beings to their senses. We build our men by a telescoping time-process, manhood jammed down upon children without any allowance for the gradual enlargement of all their powers and capacities to man size; and the result is—what we see. A man so built may be great, may fill a great position where he acquires a world reputation and receives world-wide respect; but on a day the child in him, that we would not give him time to outgrow and shed, steps to the throne and legislates on the affairs of men and nations.

With our mouths we speak the words of condemnation, but our hands refuse to put on the brakes anywhere even for the fraction of a second. But Time never wearies, and again and again will he strike, each instant hewing closer to the line, until we do heed his warning, or-cross the divide beyond which no selfish civilization has power to win back the virile virtues and save itself from swift or slow extinction. The deepest, mordant shame of the recent exposures in high "financial circles" is that these little, childish, irresponsible great men are among our very best citizens, for no one attempts to deny that they were culled by our normal, ordinary process of selection from the very front row of our exhibit available for financial and fiduciary places.

The Message of Christianity

There lies before us the official report of an address recently delivered by Mr. Robert E. Speer before the New England Evangelistic Association, at its twentieth anniversary. It is in part a eulogy of the evangelistic spirit; as such it is admirable. It is partly a criticism of liberal tendencies in the evangelical churches; as such it fails. This is not extraordinary. There are very few persons who are able to interpret correctly religious opinions with which they have no sympathy. For this reason it is ordinarily best not to attempt such interpretation.

Perhaps we misinterpret Mr. Speer: perhaps the persons whom he refers to, who "hold that the evangelical conviction is not tenable any longer," are not in the evangelical churches. Perhaps they are the old opponents of the Christian faith. Yet the following sentence from his address produces a different impression: "The churches whose growth has been slight have been churches regarding which the impression prevails that they have relinquished a little the tenacity of their hold upon the central evangelical convictions." This certainly implies churches which once held those evangelical convictions, and are still identified with the evangelical faith. If so, we question the accuracy of the statement. Plymouth Church, Brooklyn, is one of the churches charged with liberal tend-In fifty years 3,653 persons were added to this church on confession of their faith, and the ratio of increase was nearly as great in the last decade as in the earlier years. Phillips Brooks was openly charged with laxity on doctrinal points; and we doubt whether any Episcopal church has shown a greater spiritual prosperity than did Trinity Church under his ministry, unless it be St. George's Church under the ministry of Dr. Rainsford, who was subjected to even fiercer critcism for his theological opinions.

In Mr. Speer's criticism of the liberal tendencies he appears to us not only to forget palpable facts but to ignore important distinctions. We should like to know what religious paper, avowedly Christian, ever expressed the hope that the Christian Church might be conceived broad enough to admit Agnostics, Confucianists, and Buddhists. Or is this statement simply an attempt to interpret the spirit of a Charles Cuthbert Hall, who recognizes that Agnostics, Confucianists, and Buddhists are sincerely seeking what the Christian Church has to give them? We should like to know what religious teacher, avowedly Christian, thinks "we need to separate Christianity from the historic Christ." Or is this charge a misinterpretation because of the failure to see that one may hold fast to Jesus Christ not only as a supreme example of life but also as the supreme manifestation of the invisible God, and yet refuse to accept any "so-called metaphysical theory with reference to his Person." We should like to know where, in churches or teachers that have ever been called evangelical, Mr. Speer finds a tendency to eliminate the supernatural. Or is this accusation due to the erroneous notion that "supernatural" and "miraculous" are synonymous terms? Mr. Speer rightly affirms the existence of the supernatural in the twentieth century; does he believe in miracles in the twentieth century? We should like to know where he sees in evangelical churches to-day, or in churches that were ever accounted evangelical, a tendency toward "intellectual and moral slovenliness." Or is this charge due to a failure to perceive that conscience for one's self and not for another is not laxity of conscience but a distinctly Pauline liberty of conscience?

Having said this in criticism of Mr. Speer's indiscriminating criticisms, we report as far as we can do, with hearty indorsement, three out of his four affirmative contentions.

I. The end of the Gospel is not creed but character. The Bible is given that the godly man may be thoroughly furnished unto all good works. The Church is given that we may all be brought unto a perfect manhood, unto the measure of the stature of the fullness of Christ. But "character has in it no power to create its own standards." The first gift which Christianity has for the world is an essentially new type of character; its second gift is power—moral and spiritual power -to follow after to the attainment of that character. What the world wants of the Church is, what to-day it is getting from the Church in larger measure than ever before, but not in measure large enough, the preaching of this standard and the proffer of this power. The only use of a creed is that it points the way to Christ, as the only use of a guide-post is that it points the benighted traveler to the city of his search. traveler must not stop at the guide-post, and the inquirer must not stop at the creed. What the man wants is not a doctrine of the true humanity of Christ, but a human Christ whom man can follow: not a doctrine of the divinity of Christ, but a divine Christ to lead man to the Father; not a doctrine of atonement, but a forgiving Christ to lift off from man the burden of the past and give him life for the future.

II. It is true that the man wants the real essential thing within, that he wants the living Christ, the present Christ, a Christ who is as effectual a power today with his disciples as he was with his disciples of old. But it is also true that the life of Christ cannot be broken, that the spiritual experience of to-day cannot be separated from the essential historical facts of the first century, that Christianity is not an air plant, dwelling in the air and feeding on the clouds, an unsubstantial mysticism, but a historical religion; it is at once a present experience and a past history. It may not be easy to determine what in that history is essential and what accidental. Yet Mr. Speer himself recognizes that it is not all equally essential. We agree with him alike in his affirmation that "the Christian faith does not depend upon the virgin birth of Christ" and in his implication that it does depend upon the resurrection of Christ as "the central, cardinal fact of the Christian faith."

III. Mr. Speer has said in his address nothing more true than this sentence: "The one thing that gives Christianity any grip upon the world at all is the supernatural power that is in it." There are two tendencies in the thought world to-day, one away from faith in the supernatural, the other toward a larger and livelier faith in it. The latter is the tendency of the liberal movement in the evangelical churches. It is the faith that all the natural is supernatural, and all the supernatural is most natural; the faith that God is in his world and always in his world: the faith that he is still the God of Abraham, the man of vision, and inspires his vision, and the God of Isaac, the commonplace man, and is his companion in the common walks of life, and the God of Jacob, the sordid selfseeker, and educates him out of his selfishness through the hard school of expe-Never more than to-day did the Church believe in a living God, though it believes in him far too little. And never more than to-day did it need to teach

the truth expressed in such pregnant sentences as these of Mr. Speer:

The Christian religion is not a mere finer form of ethical doctrine. Christianity would be our absolute despair if all Christ did for us was just to come and show us a higher standard than we had known before. We already know more duty than we are doing, and see a higher standard than we have attained. We do not want any teacher to come and mock us with larger light unless he is prepared also to give us more strength to live by and attain to the larger light he offers to us. Christianity is not merely a finer form of ethical prescription. Christianity was meant to be the release of a new power into the world.

IV. If we agreed with Mr. Speer that there is any notable tendency in the Church to-day to come "with a poor, washy, tepid Gospel," and with no appeal to men "to array themselves against falsehood and error and wrong," we should agree with all that he has to say against such a tendency. But we do not believe that it exists. Doubtless there are, as there always have been, in the ministry, reeds shaken with the wind, and men ambitious to be clothed in soft raiment and to sit in kings' houses. But the tendency of our time, as we see it, is toward a more virile, more muscular, more courageous ministry. It is toward a more direct and practical Christianity. It is toward a habit of calling things by their right names. It is toward clearness of thought and courage of conviction. It is toward a refusal to believe traditional faiths merely because they are traditional, and to defend social and business customs merely because they are customary. But if the other tendency does exist, or in so far as it exists, it deserves all the condemnation which Mr. Speer heaps upon it. Cowards are useless everywhere; but not even in the battlefield are they quite as useless as in the pulpit.

We fear that Mr. Speer's unintentionally unjust misinterpretations of his brothers in the ministry will close many minds against his wise counsels. It is not every man who can pay heed to wise advice when it comes from a critic whose criticism he resents as unjust. Yet we hope that readers of this address will be able to pass by without heed its negations and ponder its affirmations.

A Lenten Meditation

The Christ was not only isolated from his fellows in the loneliness of the wilderness, but he was hungry. The primal need of man was upon him and cried out for satisfaction; that fierce, tyrannical need which, in its extreme form, has often driven men to forget their humanity and become like beasts of the jungle. And at the hour in which his body cried aloud for bread his spirit knew that but a word was needed and the solitary place would become a place of abundance! Never before was a soul set to face such a temptation: afar from men, without the support of that opinion and those accepted standards which keep many from falling, suffering physical torment and suddenly made aware of the possession of supernatural powers! In the spiritual history of humanity there is no more impressive scene, nor is there a more majestic and significant victory than that in which it ended.

He had but to stretch out his hand, to speak a word, perhaps even to think a command, and in that moment came the suggestion, "Command that these stones become bread!" "You are a man; you are hungry; you must eat or die; you can supply your need by a word; use your power to keep yourself alive!" Never, surely, was a suggestion more simple and rational than this; never, certainly, was a temptation more momentous. The fate of a soul, of a career, of a service unparalleled, of a pouring out of love which has run like a tide over a sorrowful earth, was at stake. It was a crisis not only in the life of the Christ, the Son of God, but in the life of humanity.

The Christ pierced the illusion of the moment, the apparent insignificance of the deed he was asked to do, and saw with perfect distinctness the tremendous issue involved. The will of the Son was at one with the will of the Father; to do that will was life; hunger and thirst, loneliness and betrayal, suffering and death, were mere incidents in the life of one who knew that he was immortal. In that terrible hour, as in so many hours when great souls are tried, the temptation

not only met unsurmountable resistance but evoked a ringing statement of one of those truths which shine like stars above the confusion of the world: "Man shall not live by bread alone, but by every word which proceedeth out of the mouth of God." The Christ refused to use his power for himself; it was dedicated absolutely to the men whom he came to seek and to save.

In a time when greed has become so gluttonous that it is revolting and so aggressive that it is merciless, how like a vision of heaven shines this incident in the story of one who came not to be ministered to but to minister! There has come a flood-tide of power into the modern world, not from springs in the human spirit, but from the fountains whose sources God has sunk deep in the earth. Men have not created the almost incalculable wealth of these recent years; they have used the treasures of field and mine, the forces of air and earth, to do their bidding and to work for them. The knowledge which science has put into their hands has enabled them to open up the world and to develop its resources on a scale undreamed of before. our fathers these forces would have seemed supernatural; in any adequate conception of the universe they are supernatural in the sense that they testify to the presence and power of God here and now, in a world which unfolds like a scroll as men travel on in the mysterious pilgrimage which we call history.

How are men using this tremendous power from God? Are they feeding the world, or are they storing up bread for themselves far beyond the utmost limit of the most gigantic gluttony? Are they using these vast forces at their command like human beings with reason, heart, and soul, or like the beasts which snatch all that lies within their reach, and what they cannot eat pile in a refuse heap and guard with ugly snarls? These are searching questions; let every man answer them for himself. The age puts them to every man, and no man can evade them. There is a gathering of goods which is honorable and noble, because made fairly and used spiritually; but there is also a gathering of goods so greedy that men are turning from it as from the repulsive gluttony of animals. How shall a man use the power with which God has clothed him; shall he feed himself or shall he nourish his fellow? Behold the Christ hungry the wilderness!

The Open Shop

The article on Nuremberg, the City of the Closed Shop, printed on another page, is entertaining, dramatic, and instructive; but to the lover of liberty it is not an argument for the revival of the Nuremberg method. Indeed, the author of the article frankly concedes this: "No informed mind will consider it either possible or desirable to return to the mediæval guild or the social system involved in it."

Underlying the issue between the closed and the open shop is a fundamental question: Is liberty desirable for its own sake, or only for the material benefits which it brings? "The Nuremberg artisan produced good work," we are told. Possibly in the closed shop in our own time better work might be produced than in the open shop. We doubt it, but, were it so, the fact would not be conclusive. The product produced by the laborer is not the only test of character, nor of the system under which he labors. Before emancipation it was said that the negro would not work except under slavery; and that slavery was therefore justifiable. It is now said that the Panama Canal cannot be dug except by contract coolie labor; and that therefore contract coolie labor must be imported. The answer in both cases is the same: Freedom is worth more than either cotton or the Panama Canal. The closed shop, as Mr. Bliss describes it, was wholly inconsistent with industrial liberty. It is better to be free than to be rich; it is better to be free than to be a skilled artisan. Manhood is more than things, and liberty is essential to the ultimate development of the highest man-

This is our argument for the open shop condensed into a sentence.

CHINA IN TRANSITION

A HOUSE-BOAT TRIP IN CHINA

BY GEORGE KENNAN

Special Correspondent of The Outlook in the Far East

This is the first of two articles in which Mr. Kennan will relate his observations in a journey by canal into the interior of China.—THE EDITORS.

TF any one should ask the question, "How can I see something of China and make the acquaintance of the Chinese people with most pleasure and least hardship?" I should reply without hesitation, "Hire a good house-boat: fit it up with bedding and provisions; engage a cook, a 'boy,' a native crew, and a competent interpreter; and then set out on a voyage of exploration through the great labyrinth of rivers, creeks, lakes, and canals, which extends like an immense watery network over the whole eastern part of the Middle Kingdom." Land travel in the interior of China—by horse, donkey, camel, mule-litter, Peking cart, or sedan chair—is attended with much fatigue, if not actual hardship and privation; but water travel in a well-appointed house-boat is as easy and comfortable as it is entertaining and instructive. If you have plenty of leisure and wish to study carefully or enjoy thoroughly the region through which you pass, you may be pulled, rowed, or poled along at the rate of two miles an hour. and may stop at frequent intervals for the purpose of making side excursions overland; but if, on the contrary, your time be limited and you wish to travel rapidly, you may "catch on" to one of the daily house-boat trains which run back and forth through the canals, and be towed to your destination at the rate of seven or eight miles an hour by a powerful steam tug. If the weather be warm and you feel indisposed to exert yourself, you may sit all day in an easy chair on the roof of your moving boat and watch the unfamiliar Chinese panorama as it unrolls ahead and vanishes astern; or, if the air be cool and bracing, you may tie up to the bank and

go ashore, to walk through a picturesque village, visit a queer temple, photograph a pagoda, or examine the ruins of an old fort. Whatever you do and wherever you go, you carry your home with you, and have at your command all the comforts and many of the luxuries of life.

You need not fear that if you confine yourself to waterways your range will be The canals of China are many thousands of miles in aggregate length, and, in connection with the rivers that they intersect, they give access to almost all parts of the Empire. In the seacoast provinces of Kiangsu and Chekiang alone you may travel by house-boat for two or three months without going through any particular river or canal twice; and if you are ambitious to go further afield, you may make a straightaway journey of eight hundred miles from Shanghai to Tientsin by way of Hangchow and the Grand Canal, or a still longer trip of fifteen hundred miles from Shanghai to Hongkong by way of the Yangtse, Hankow, the Siang River, the Kui River, Kuilin, Wenchow, and Canton. In short, you may see from the deck of a house-boat the greater part of eastern China.

If the hundreds of American tourists who pass through Shanghai every fall on their way around the world knew how much pleasure they could get out of a house-boat trip of a week or a month through the picturesque canals and beautiful lakes of Soochow, Hangchow, and the Shanghai hinterland, they would not rush on, as they generally do, to Kobe or Hongkong; nor, if they had a week or a month to spend in China, would they waste it in driving through the European streets and loafing in the

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European hotels of foreign settlements and concessions. Most tourists who visit Shanghai, however, have never heard of house-boat trips on Chinese canals, and after spending a few days at the Astor House, strolling along the Bund, driving out on the Bubbling Well Road, and visiting the native city, they go on to Yokohama or Hongkong, perfectly ignorant of the fact that they have missed an opportunity, not only to see something of the interior of China, but to enjoy an exceptionally pleasant and interesting experience.

For the suggestion that put us on the track of Chinese house-boats we were indebted to Mr. H. B. Miller, our thoughtful and experienced Consul-General in Yokohama. Just before we sailed from that port he said to me, "If you have time in Shanghai, don't fail to take a house-boat trip up country. Nothing that you can do will afford you more pleasure or give you a better idea of Chinese life—especially the life of the common people in their villages and on their farms." Soon after our arrival in Shanghai we acted on this suggestion, and found, to our surprise, that it was almost as easy to arrange a house-boat trip "up country" as to get first-class tickets in the passenger department of an established steamship line. A young English business man who owned a boat that he was not using agreed to let us have it for ten taels a day, including the wages of the Chinese captain and crew; the proprietor of our hotel undertook to furnish cook, boy, bedding, dishes, ice, boiled water, and food; and on the after-...noon of Monday, October 23, the houseboat Annie, fully manned, equipped, and provisioned, lay at the Garden Pier, opposite the Astor House, waiting for her passengers.

A Shanghai house-boat, of the European type, is from forty to sixty feet in length over all; has a beam of ten or twelve feet amidships; and carries a crew of six or eight men. Its equipment for sailing consists of pivoted leeboards on the sides, a single lugsail, with ten or twelve bamboo battens and an equal number of sheets, and a long, unstayed pole mast which may be quickly and easily lowered, by means of shears and

tackle, when it becomes necessary to go under a bridge. In the house part of the boat, which covers two-thirds of the deck, there is a fairly spacious cabin, with a long cushioned seat or couch on each side, and at night this cabin may be divided into separate sleeping sections by means of heavy curtains hung lengthwise and crosswise from the ceiling. At one end of the general living-room there is a door opening into a small kitchen and pantry, and at the other end a similar door gives access to a toilet and wash room. Under the broad seats in the main apartment there are lockers for curtains and bedding, and on the deck outside there is an ice-chest or refrigerator for fresh meats and fish. On the cabin roof, which is carpeted with cocoamatting, and sheltered, when necessary, by an awning, there is plenty of room for easy chairs; and in the capacious hull, under the main deck forward, there are sleeping accommodations for the crew. Our boat carried no less than fourteen persons, and had room in the cabin for two more.

The house-boat trip that we had planned was a triangular excursion from Shanghai to Soochow, from Soochow to Hangchow, and thence back to our starting-point by a different and somewhat longer route. This would enable us to see about one hundred and thirty miles of the famous Grand Canal, and would give us, in the aggregate, nearly four hundred miles of river and canal navigation. In order to economize time as much as possible, we decided to make the first stage of our trip by the regular house-boat train, which leaves Shanghai for Soochow every afternoon at five o'clock. An hour before that time we were all on board, and at fourfifteen our captain, a mild-mannered Chinaman in a faded blue cotton jumper, misfit foreign trousers, a visored European cap, and white-stockinged feet thrust into down-at-the-heel slippers, came into the cabin with an apologetic air and inquired, "How say, Master, can go?"

"Yes," I said. "Can go, Where catch train?"

"Catchee tow bimeby Soochow Creek," he replied, and, touching his weatherbeaten old cap, he went forward to call the crew and cast off the mooring-lines.

When I climbed up on the cabin roof, five minutes later, we had passed under the Garden Bridge and were poling up a muddy canal, fringed with double and treble rows of house-boats, sampans, and junks, and shut in by parallel lines of three-story European buildings standing fifty feet back from the water on thronged and dusty streets. The further we went from the entrance to this canal the greater became the number of boats moored along its sides, or moving back and forth in the narrowing strip of open water between; and before we reached the starting-place of the Soochow boat-train we were forcing and clawing our way through a dense but yielding pack of house-boats, cargo-boats, timber rafts, skiffs, sampans, and junks, which were wedged and jammed together in an almost inextricable tangle, and which seemed to be guided and propelled by a horde of ragged, bare-headed, barefooted, yelling, cursing, gesticulating Chinese lunatics. The only quiet and self-possessed individuals that I could discover in all that wild bedlam of noise. confusion, and excitement were a sober, contemplative monkey and a small, moon-faced Chinese baby. The baby was strapped on the back of a sunburned peasant woman, who, with the feeble assistance of a small boy, was trying to force a vegetable-laden sampan through the dense pack of larger boats. Although the infant's head waggled jerkily back and forth with the energetic movements of its mother's body as she swayed to and fro on the long, curved sculling-oar, it showed no sign of fright or discomfort, and when it passed out of the range of my observation it seemed to be making up its mind to go to sleep. monkey, which was sitting on the high stern of a varnished junk, was quite as cool and unconcerned as the baby, but it took a more intelligent interest in its environment, and watched with a sort of grave, speculative curiosity the frantic efforts of a hundred men to get their junks past one another, around one another, or across one another's bows. Every boat except ours seemed to have a crew made up exclusively of captains;

every captain stopped shrieking orders only when it became necessary to swear; and the crash and grind of colliding boats, the waving and clawing of boathooks, and the intermingled voices of a hundred men, raised in shouts of command, warning, derision, or defiance, made up, altogether, a Chinese pandemonium which I had never seen equaled, and which I cannot adequately describe. For a distance of at least half a mile the narrow canal was an almost solid mass of moving sampans and junks; and how, in that tangle of interlocked boats, the train for Soochow was made up I do not know. Made up, however, it was, and soon after five o'clock we took a line from another house-boat just ahead of ours, and, in tow of a small but powerful tug, our little caravan scraped and bumped its way out of the pack into a stretch of comparatively open water. Half an hour later we left the outskirts of the city behind us, and when the sun set, in a swirl of pinkish vapor, we were moving swiftly westward across a great flat plain, where the horizon line was a distant fringe of mulberry trees and willows, and where winter barley, in long green rows, had already taken the place of the harvested rice. As soon as it began to grow dark and chilly on deck we went down into the cozy, welllighted cabin, where the table was already set for dinner, and where our "boy" soon served up a meal which dispelled our last doubt as to the possibility of living comfortably on a Chinese houseboat.

We were due at Soochow early Tuesday morning, and soon after it began to grow light I turned out in my pajamas and went up on the cabin roof to "look see." We were still running through an extensive cultivated plain, fringed and dotted with low trees, and diversified here and there by the compact little villages or solitary tile-roofed houses of the native farmers. We were just passing under one of the high, curved, "camel's back" stone bridges which are so characteristic of Chinese canals, and in the distance ahead I thought I could see the smoky haze which rises in the early morning from a hundred and fifty thousand domestic fires in the great city of Soochow.

As the morning air was sharply cold, I was soon driven to the shelter of the cabin; but three-quarters of an hour later, when I went on deck again, we were just casting off our tow-line at the corner of a massive crenellated wall, thirty or forty feet in height, which stretched away about two miles in one direction and four or five miles in the other. Its front was broken by great square projecting buttresses, seventy-five or a hundred yards apart, and between them, against massive bricks which were old when the Goths and Vandals captured Rome, some modern vandal had hung up scores of framed cloth advertisements bearing, in big black English letters, "Spiketail Cigarettes." Those detestable placards vulgarized and modernized the most interesting and venerable monument of Chinese antiquity that I had yet seen, and completely spoiled the pleasure that I should have taken in imagining the historic tragedies and pageants which that old gray wall had witnessed in the twenty-four centuries of With "Spiketail Cigaits existence. rettes" staring one in the face, one could imagine nothing older than the American Tobacco Trust, and think of nothing more inspiring than "How to write ads." I might possibly excuse the Chinese for attacking foreign settlements and murdering foreign missionaries, because for such action they had—or imagined they had—some provocation; but I can never forgive the officials of Soochow for selling to a foreign advertising agent the right to plaster "Spiketail Cigarettes" all over walls whose foundations were laid before the days of Pericles, Sophocles, and Herodotus. Men capable of that would not hesitate to sell their grandfather's skeleton for use as a middle layer in an advertising sandwich! However, I am now prepared for almost any display of American business enterprise, and shall feel only a mild thrill of disgust if, when I visit Athens, I find "You've Got to Eat a Biscuit" printed in big black letters on a long strip of white cloth and hung across the columns of the Parthenon.

Before we had fairly lost headway, after casting off our tow-line, a boat came off to us from the Imperial custom-house, bringing the Rev. Benjamin L. Ancell, head of the Episcopal mission at Socchow, who had been notified by telegraph of our departure from Shanghai, and who had been good enough to come entirely across the city at that early hour to meet us.

"It must have been a great bother to you," I said, "to come all the way down here at this time in the morning."

"Oh, no!" he replied. "It was easy enough to-day; but some months ago, when the Shanghai boat-train arrived earlier, I undertook to meet some friends at this custom-house, and had a mat exasperating experience. The principal streets here are divided into short stretches, or sections, by what they call 'thieves' gates '-gates intended to prevent thieves and robbers from escaping from one part of the city to another. These gates are closed, of course, at night, and on the morning to which I refer I passed fourteen such barriers, and at thirteen of them the gate-keepers were asleep and I had to wake them."

No single item of information could have made me realize more vividly the immense difference that exists between the East and the West. Imagine the city of St. Louis with a thirty-foot stone wall around it, and a hundred and fifty big wooden gates dividing its streets into closed sections at night, and making it necessary to rouse a gate-keeper every quarter of a mile! And yet Soochow is as large a city as St. Louis, and, relatively, is almost as wealthy, and from a commercial point of view almost as important.

Acting upon the suggestion of Mr. Ancell, we sculled and poled half around the city, outside the wall, to an extramural suburb near the Chang-Men Gate; and there, in a house-surrounded basin, where two or three canals converged, we pushed the bow of our boat ashore in an almost solid pack of sampans and junks of every imaginable size, shape, and description. Two-thirds or more of these boats were fitted up for housekeeping and were permanently inhabited by Chinese families, so that, in addition to the rabbit-warren of dwellings all around the basin on land, there was a small village of floating houses on

the water, and the incessant chatter of the swarming population made as much noise as an excited political convention not yet called to order. As a place to lie for a few hours it was extremely interesting, because it afforded us an excellent opportunity to study the every-day life of the common people; but it would have been an impossible place to rest, meditate, sleep, or, in fact, do anything but watch and wonder. In the course of a few hours one might see there every social function of the Orient, from a wedding to a funeral, and every detail of domestic life, from the washing of rice, the nursing of a baby, or the shaving of a head, to the spinning of yarn, the setting off of firecrackers, and the feeding of a canary bird. I venture to specify only a few of the things that we actually did see, but there were scores of others which I have not time or space even to mention. Between nine and ten o'clock Mr. Ancell hired for us a small, lighthousekeeping sampan—a sort of Chinese gondola with a long, curved sculling-oar, a matting house amidships, and a family crew-and we set out for an exploration of the city.

Soochow was founded by the Chinese monarch Hoh-Lu, about 500 B.C., and it therefore has a history of nearly two and a half millenniums. It has been taken and sacked repeatedly in civil wars, but, in modern times at least, its salient features have not changed, and a stone map which is still preserved in one of its temples, and which is now almost a thousand years old, shows its principal streets and temple sites in their present Standing as it does on the locations. Grand Canal, and in the midst of a fertile. well-watered plain which produces more than twelve thousand bushels of rice to the square mile, Soochow has always been a wealthy place, and a competent authority declares that more good clothes have been worn there than in any other city on the globe.1 To one who thinks of Paris, London, Berlin, Vienna, and New York, this seems like an incredible statement: but it must not be forgotten that Soochow is almost as old as Rome, and that it was a center of literary culture, commerce, and wealth when Cæsar invaded Gaul. Two thousand years ago it was the capital of "one of the strongest and most famous of the principalities into which China was then divided," and, in the main, it has been prosperous and wealthy ever since. At the present time it covers an area of eight or ten square miles and has thirty miles of canals inside of its encircling wall. It contains seven large pagodas, two of them more than a thousand years old; nearly two hundred bridges, mostly of stone; two or three hundred temples, with seven thousand priests; twenty-five hundred official residences, with forty thousand servants, attendants, and retainers; and a total population of about seven hundred thousand souls. Commercially, it is one of the most important of the inland treaty ports. Sixty or seventy tugs, built for canal navigation, maintain daily communication with Shanghai, Chinkiang, Hangchow, Kuangfu, Fusieh, and scores of other large market towns, and thousands of junks and cargo-boats are engaged in the transportation and distribution of rice, silk, millet, fruit, vegetables, building materials, and European goods.

After rowing through a number of narrow, picturesque canals, where women were washing rice at the boat-landings or lowering buckets for water from their second-story windows, we proceeded to the suburban residence of the wealthy mandarin and railway magnate Sheng-Kung-Pao, which is regarded as one of the show places of Soochow, but which, like the city, is strange and interesting rather than beautiful. It occupies a very extensive walled compound, a mile or two from the Chang-Men Gate, and consists of a great number of detached, highly ornamented, one-story wooden buildings, set here and there in twenty or thirty intercommunicating courtyards, amid lotus ponds, miniature canals, gardens, bridges, pavilions, mazes of yellow artificial rock-work, stone walls with circular gateways and carved dragon copings, and a labyrinth of winding paths paved in mosaic patterns with colored pebbles, shells, and small fragments of broken porcelain. As a typical specimen of a wealthy mandarin's home it was

¹ The Rev. H. C. Du Bose, to whom I am indebted for many of the facts set forth in this article.

curious and interesting, and from the Chinese point of view it was doubtless beautiful; but for the Western taste it was too crowded, elaborate, and artificial. The trees were mostly twisted or dwarfed; the rock-work looked like molasses candy molded into fantastic hummocks and pinnacles; the walls which separated one section of the grounds from another prevented the eye from getting any satisfying sweep of distance; and there was not a suggestion of untrammeled, undistorted nature in any one of the twenty or thirty small, contrived, artificial landscapes. The interiors of the buildings, with their elaborate wood carving and intricate fretwork, were less objectionable to Western taste than the courtyards and gardens; but even there the ornaments and decorations—big mirrors with pinetrees painted across them, and slabs of white marble in which dark veins and cloudings made accidental freak pictures. of mountains and gorges—were not such as would be likely to please the Western eye. Connected with the residence as a whole, but in separate buildings, were a small theater and a library; but the former contained no scenery, and in the latter there were to be found no foreign books.

From Sheng-Kung-Pao's suburban residence we rowed back to the broad encircling moat outside the wall, and, passing through the wall, entered the network of canals which divides the land of the city into twenty-five or thirty nearly rectangular islands. Soochow is regarded by the Chinese themselves as the most delightful place of residence, if not the most beautiful city, in the

Empire; and they have expressed their appreciation of it in the widely known proverb, "Heaven above-Soochow below." To a foreigner, however, who has standards of comparison unknown to the dwellers on the great Chinese plain, the city is strange and interesting, but not beautiful. If it had no temples, pagodas, and canals, it might fairly be described as a great flat human beehive a vast agglomeration of architecturally insignificant houses crowded together inside an ancient and massive wall. Its temples and pagodas, however, relieve to some extent the impression of monotony made by the tens of thousands of nearly uniform buildings, while its canals, with their hundreds of graceful bridges, draped often with clinging vines, invest the city with a charm which is not unlike that of Venice. The houses that stand along these canals may not be stately palaces, but they rise directly out of the still, bluish-gray water; flowering vines, yellow gourds, and leafy branches of trees hang here and there over the walls of their courtyard gardens; varnished sampans and junks land passengers at their flights of projecting steps; and in the foreground or middle distance there is always a stone bridge, with a semicircular arch and a high curved footpath, to give picturesqueness to the water view.

I should have been willing to spend the whole day in a noiseless and restful sampan voyage through these tranquil, house-walled canals; but, as it was almost noon, we made our way to the Episcopal mission, where we were to take tiffin and then set out for an exploration of the narrow city streets in palanquins.

A RUSSIAN WOMAN'S VIEW

The following extracts are from a private letter written last December by the widow of a Russian naval officer. In what seems to us a touching as well as an intimate way, they show how the social unrest and political agitation in St. Petersburg have affected the family life. The effect of college and school "strikes" on the young people is strikingly brought out. The whole simply enforces one's conviction that sensible, sane, and moderate ideas of social order and political government must prevail among intelligent people in Russia, if that country is to emerge from the anarchy threatening it on the one side and the tyranny on the other.—The Editors.

HE children give me great satisfaction with their studies, as they learn with great application. I cannot tell you that there are many mothers in Russia who can say the same just now. You know how those foolish school strikes affect all the youth of the present day. Several times they have stopped their classes; sometimes it is the professors that join the strike with a political object, sometimes it is the boys and girls that refuse to go on studying before they get some new right for their school. Indeed, I know a high school that in all this year, from January to January, has been opened only one month; and now one of my friends, a professor there, has told me that he does not think it will be open before next September.

Now, I have for a while living with me a nephew of mine, a charming, bright, clever boy of seventeen whom I love dearly. He has in him, I am sure, the making of a good, useful man, but the lawless time that we are living in now has a very bad influence on him. He does not work any more, he does not belong to any political party, but one day he believes himself a Revolutionary, and the next he finds that the most important thing in the State is to get for boys longer holidays for Christmas. He is hanging on most of the time at our house without any occupation for his mind, not doing anything bad yet, but ready and ripe, I am sure, for any bad influence that shall reach him. He does not study, he does not regard any longer any rules or fixed hours; he speaks with contempt of all his professors, but yet could not tell in what way they have earned his contempt. He wants to do as his elders, to put everything upside down and get lost among the new political parties that grow all around as mushrooms grow in damp ground after the rain.

Children as well as men have lost faith in everything. They don't believe in the Government, they don't believe in their professors; many, indeed, have brought their doubt even in their own homes and do not believe any more in the judgment of their fathers and mothers. Everything has shown itself wrong in this dreadful war; we cannot, I am sorry to say, as before most Russian parents used to do, count on the influence of the Government to make good, upright men of our children. In this time more than ever fathers and mothers ought to take to heart their duty to their children. How they ought to be careful of their acts and of their tongues! Never to announce a false judgment or a senseless opinion before youth so ready to judge, so quick to observe, so easily led astray. How they ought to be careful never to shatter their children's faith in them. and to keep their good influence as a priceless arm in their hands to make of their boys and girls a good, useful, strong generation!

It is, I think, if we look into the future, the saddest incident of the Revolution—this child's strike of whom so many senseless people make a good joke. These boys are the men of to-morrow, and in idling away the best years given to them, how do they prepare themselves to meet their new duties of free Russian men when the country shall be at last pacified, but more than ever in need of able men to build it up again?

Perhaps we mothers of fatherless children ought to be the most afraid of

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the responsibility; but somehow I think that those children of our heroes of the war have such a past to look at, such a heredity of courage, loyalty, feeling of duty, that I don't seem to be afraid for them—they must be worthy of their fathers, God help us! I am more anxious for the children of those inactive, opinionless men saying one day one thing before their boys and to-morrow something else, and losing in this way all the influence necessary to exercise their sacred duty of educators. . . .

Well, everything is quieted down in Moscow, with only the remembrance that thousands of people have, of seeing many coffins going secretly to the churchyard, and of a sea of blood that went to increase the red flood that has already nearly drowned the country. But death does not seem to signify much here now; one has grown accustomed to it. yesterday in a Revolutionary paper a Christmas tree with heads of death on it, and all around, looking on, the faces of the principal statesmen. I found it the very expression of the feeling that one has at heart now in these pitiful holidays. The only mistake of the drawing was that they put around the tree only statesmen; they ought to have put the largest crowd possible, meaning all the But yet, in this poor, wounded, humiliated country, so many do not care, so many have lighted their tree as always, and danced their "masurka" round it as if there were no war, no mourning, no revolution, no death all around!

Some optimists think that everything is nicely calmed down, and that Russia is really going to have a Parliament and a Constitution. God grant it! But those who believe in it are very few. Most think that all is ended as it always used to end before: the Government has been the strongest; and now, after killing so many of its own people, it feels again the strength in its hands, and won't drop a particle of its "unlimited" power.

This means reaction, endless arrests and disposition of men, loss of so many young innocent lives, dark, cruel captivity in the fortress or Siberia, as before; no liberty of speech, no liberty of press, no liberty at all; but the old yoke heavier than ever. It means more blood and tears for our children, as no nation can stay always under the iron grip.

Of course lack of self-confidence is at the bottom of all the misery in Russia. Why, a foreigner can live here in Russia ten years, twenty years, all his life, and never become a Russian. If he was a German twenty years ago, he is a German to-day, and will be a German to the end. His children will be German, speak before everything their father's language, and keep all the customs of Germany. And it is the same for all the nations. A Polander is a Polander always, a Swede a Swede, a Finn a Finn. (To this rule of course there are exceptions, like myself, but those are particular cases.) There is no assimilation as in your country, for example. Do you remember how many Russians used to say to you that America had too much self-confidence? Well, perhaps (I shall not discuss this point) it is not a very attractive quality for the foreigners to see in a nation; but, I give you my word for it, it is the most useful and essential quality for the strengthening of a nation. And here in Russia I am sure of it that lack of confidence has been the worm eating its very heart and shattering the country to the marrow.

If a man came to your country to live his life, to earn his bread, to make his fortune, he would hear very often around him that America is the best country, that every American thing is the best thing, and American people the best people; so that, without knowing it, perhaps, he would find himself one day wishing to be an American, or at least his children and grandchildren shall be quite American. I shall never forget how, when I was living in Philadelphia, I boarded in a French family; the father was a Belge, the mother a Frenchwoman, and yet you would never believe, when you came in, that it was a foreign home; and a little, pretty girl of six got quite cross at me and showered bitter tears because, not knowing yet the country's ways, I called her a little French girl. "I am an American, indeed I am," she used to say.

To have carried on our Russian shoul-

ders for more than two years the weight of the war and the Revolution, to have given so much, to have lost so much, and to come to the conclusion that all this was perhaps in vain and that the country did not gain anything, is enough to madden anybody!

A LEAF IN THE STORM.

MISSION WORK IN THE ROCKY MOUNTAINS

BY THE RIGHT REV. JAMES BOWEN FUNSTEN

Missionary Bishop of Idaho

BELIEVE that every thoughtful American takes an interest in not only having a greater country, but a better people. Efforts to reach the submerged tenth in our great cities are attracting more and more attention, and it is certainly true that the concentration of masses of people in a limited territory presents a danger point in the National life and makes a perplexing problem for Christianity. This is, however, not the only problem that we have to consider in a domestic way, in our development as a people. In the great cities Christianity has to confront conditions brought about by over-population, whereas, when we come to deal with the propagation of Christian truth in our new Western States, we have the perplexity arising from scattered population, heterogeneous peoples, whose theological preferences are as variegated as Joseph's coat, and whose individualism has been cultivated under the conditions of isolated ranch or degenerate mining town. The problem of infusing into this life the refinement, the spiritual outlook, the unworldliness, that belong to Christianity, is a very difficult one, but is most important when one realizes the growing influence of these States in the National life.

The great question that we have to consider as a Christian Nation is, How can we advance the kingdom of God in the homes and hearts of the thousands of people who are coming from all parts of the country to cast in their lot here in the Northwest? These people, in many cases, have left behind them Christian homes and institutions, but coming here, though they find material things full of fascination and promise, are ofttimes

very much impoverished in their spiritual outlook.

It so happens that the country in which for nearly seven years I have been doing mission work lies in what is called the Rocky Mountain region. When I go out into western Wyoming, to the eastern end of my district, I am several hundred miles on the Atlantic side of the continental divide, whereas the western line of the district is coincident with the eastern boundary of Ore-The whole country is what might be termed, in a certain sense, frontier. The scenery is wild and grand; everywhere there are prospects of material wealth-mines of gold, silver, and copper in the mountains; fruit-raising in southwestern Idaho; ranching along the rivers, where irrigation is possible; stockraising on the wide, undeveloped plains. Hundreds of people are moving in; undeveloped lands are being irrigated and settled: and before many years roll around, the stars of such States as Idaho and Wyoming will shine with a new luster in our National banner. We want to see to it that Christianity does its part in the development of these border States. It is a perplexing, difficult problem, that of reaching these scattered people who live among the mountains of Idaho and Wyoming, but it is well worth while for us to do all we can to lead them to Christ. It is interesting to note that, leaving out mining towns, eighty per cent, of the population of the Pacific Northwest, which includes the States of Oregon, Washington, and Idaho, are American born. The rest are mainly of English or Scandinavian origin. With a wonderfully healthful climate and a great variety of products, with an energetic and American population of intelligence and sturdy physical qualities, it would seem that Idaho and the Rocky Mountain people may be counted on as factors of considerable importance in the future of our country.

It has been my mission to visit many mining camps and to talk to the people of these communities in their homes, and also at services held for their benefit. The heartiness of their greetings, and their ready appreciation of efforts made in their behalf, have compensated me for the long stage journeys through the mountains that I have had to take in order to reach them.

The mining camp in active operation, however, knows no Sunday. I remember on one occasion visiting a mining community, and it so happened that I was detained in a certain town the whole of Sunday, and did not reach another place where I was to have service until Monday. A leading man of the community helped me to give rapid notice, and at two o'clock in the afternoon I preached to a hall filled with men and women, who gave the most eager atten-While I was at the store with the man who had arranged the services I said to him, "That was a splendid crowd we had out to-day." He replied, "Yes, Bishop, we always do have a big crowd when we have a service on Sunday." "But," I said, "this is Monday." "Well," he said, "do you know we thought it was Sunday I" Perhaps but for this mistake I might not have had such a good congregation, as there is a good deal of inherited respect for the Sabbath Day. My predecessor was on one occasion making his annual visit to a mining town far away in the Owyhee Mountains. As he was going up the cañon leading to the mining camp, he saw everywhere advertisements of a show. "Ah," he said, "now I'll have a fine turnout tomorrow. There will be people here from Heap Ranch, Reynolds Creek, Sinker Creek, and other places." The show, however, stayed over Sunday, and when the Bishop went to the hall he found one solitary man, who said, "I am very glad to see you, Bishop; here's a dollar for the collection; but you know you come every year and this show comes only once in three or four years, so we'll have to go to the show." Things are, however, improving even in this locality, because in less than twenty years after this occurred, in the same mining town, I confirmed on a Sunday ten people, baptized ten or twelve children, consecrated a church, and preached to a church full of people morning, afternoon, and night.

In a coal-mining camp where they have a very heterogeneous population, and where thirty-five languages are spoken, I remember the first Easter I had services there I preached to a congregation of twelve people, and the offering was less than two dollars. Now we have a clergyman doing a good work at that point, and on any day of the week when service may be held one could easily count on a good congregation. I mention these facts to show that though the problem of Western missions is a difficult one, earnest, aggressive work is appreciated, and that the spirit of Christ, which is the spirit of sacrifice, love, and progress, must sooner or later be fully recognized even among these miners, cowboys, sheep-herders, ranchers, and, I may add, Indian people.

One thing I have observed in my dealings with the people of this country is that they have an exalted ideal of what a Christian ought to be, and, with all their carelessness personally, they have a very high standard—intellectual, moral, and social—for the man who talks to them on the subject of religion, or who desires to influence them in matters pertaining to their spiritual life. While it is an easy thing for people to have high ideals for other people to fulfill, at the same time, even in this, there is a promise of better conditions in a social and religious way for the future of this country. It also gives a good guarantee that the leaders will feel the responsibility that comes from an intelligent public opinion.

The country is so large, the boundless rolling sage-brush plains so suggestive of breadth, the great snow-capped mountains, rising 14,000 or 15,000 feet, so defiant of narrowness, that we can but believe that the Christian worker will

gather somewhat of the true meaning of the length and depth and height of the love of Christ in his dealings with humanity. He will be but a poor worker who tries to import into a country like this the narrowness, the intolerance, the prejudice that grew and developed under artificial conditions of Christianity, social and political life. They do not historically belong to this part of the world, and, in my opinion, based on observation, they will never be accepted by a people so heterogeneous in their origin that they find in this very thing a protection. The simple truths of Christianity, earnestly presented—the appeal to the moral law, the recognition of the Fatherhood of God, the Divinity Christ, the Brotherhood of Mankindare elemental truths which, along with others of like character, form the backbone of Christianity, and will furnish the foundations of noble living when presented by earnest and devoted workers for the Master. I have found it effective in meeting the tremendous responsibilities of a district like that intrusted to me, to recognize man's triple nature. We have our hospitals, where on the broadest scale of Christian charity we are trying to help suffering humanity without any regard to creed or race. only trying to relieve in the best manner possible the ills to which flesh is heir. Of course this is only remedial work for the body. I would like to have the means in many places to establish reading rooms and parlors; for in the greater number of towns and communities in my district there is practically no place for a homeless man to go to but the saloon or gambling-den; and of course the result but too frequently is the destruction of the body and all that that involves. We are trying to reach the training of the mind through our schools. Here, under Christian instruction, we have girls who come from mining camps, isolated ranches, broken homes, and other places; some coming as far as eight hundred miles from an Indian reservation—representing all the different denominations, preparing to be true, earnest, Christian women, to serve God in that station of life to which they may be called. Two of our girls who came from a mining camp are now teaching in Porto Rico, in the Government schools; two are connected with the Philippines, as wives of army officers; three or four hundred are scattered through the Pacific North-This work is not competitive in reference to the public school, but is cooperative, reaching conditions that could not be met by that institution. In addition, under the laws of Idaho, no religious service is allowed in the public schools, whereas with us it is made a factor for the training of those committed to us, though by no means in a narrow spirit. Our third department of the work, of course, is what I have already referred to, the preaching of the Gospel and the establishment of missions in the new towns and communities that go to make up this country. Quiet and unostentatious must such evangelical work be in the midst of so much materialism. among people who in some cases are going back to the wild, and whose interest is so entirely centered on mining, irrigation, and development schemes. Still, it is our duty to do what we can to create a public opinion in favor of Christian character and habits, and when one is the means of effecting this in behalf of the men and women who are coming here to lay the foundations of a great inland empire where the desert is being driven out, and American towns and homes being made, he is doing not only Christian but patriotic work. "Idaho" is said to be the Indian name for "light upon the mountains." May it symbolize the coming of the Light of Life into the hearts of these people who are casting in their lots in this frontier Rocky Mountain region !

THE PARALYSIS OF CRITICISM

BY HUGH BLACK

Author of "Friendship," "The Practice of Self-Culture," etc.

TE are often said to be living in a difficult age, though every age appears difficult to the men who actually live in it, since every age has to adjust itself to new situations. The difficulty to-day is usually traced, especially in religion, to the new critical attitude of men's minds. Criticism puts everything into the melting-pot and will let nothing escape from its tests. Law cannot get off because of its authority, nor religion because of its sacredness. This is good and necessary; for we cannot set bounds to the mind of man, which has definitely slipped from old fetters. We even welcome the process when we see that a critical stage is needed before a stage of reconstruction. But the very real danger arises of mistaking the scope and function of criticism, and it is worth while considering its practical limitations in every region of life. So much has been accomplished by critical processes that we are tempted to make these an end in themselves. After criticism comes the opportunity for getting at new values and truer appreciations. After analysis comes the need for a larger synthesis.

Further, we must not forget the danger of letting criticism paralyze life. For the practical business of the world men must risk something and must not allow their general ignorance to prevent them from their particular duty. The art of agriculture, on which in the ultimate issue the race depends, could never be carried on by criticism of the weather. If every wind prevented a man from sowing and every cloud kept him from reaping, life would cease. Ignorance is no excuse for inaction and doubt is no reason for perpetual delay. The agriculturist does not wait for the ideally perfect day before he will sow or reap. He waits for the general season for either of these necessary operations, and then trusts to the great laws of the universe. If he spent his time scanning the sky, watching nervously for every breeze of

wind and every drop of rain, it would be proof positive that he was not built for a farmer. Farming needs faith, and cannot be carried on as an adjunct to the meteorological office. Mere criticism paralyzes. A farmer does not choose a blizzard as the time for sowing and a thunder-storm as the time designed for reaping, but the possibility of blizzard and thunder-storm must not prey on his nerves and keep him from his work altogether. The very uncertainty of the future is an argument for industry, for decision to do our own part wisely and well, leaving the rest, which is beyond our control, in faith. To calculate chances too finely will end in doing nothing.

This is a maxim in the practical business of the world. The successful man knows how easily the boundary line of criticism can be passed, and will not let enterprise be choked by caution. The shipper will not keep all his vessels in port because there is a constant menace at sea from storm and fog and collision. It is not his business to let his ships rot in the harbor. He will equip them as fully as possible with care and skill and science and send them out for the harvest of the sea. engineer will not be kept from lighting the fire lest the boiler may burst. He will examine and test and criticise, but he will also proceed to action. world's business could not be done merely by criticism. The genius in practical affairs can wait long and patiently for his opening, but when it comes he seizes it and pushes out his venture. He does not expect the ideal opportunity, and only asks for the practicable. It does not do for a man of action to have his critical faculty too finely developed. The proverb says, " If the iron be blunt and one do not whet the edge, then must he put forth more strength; but wisdom is profitable to direct." If the iron is blunt, whet the edge, but do not be always sharpening

the ax and never using it. It is a fit proverb for many a man who spends all his time perfecting his instrument, furnishing his mind, whetting his intellect for work which he never attempts. If the tools with which we have to work are imperfect and cannot meanwhile be mended, then they have to be used with all the greater skill and strength. Truly, wisdom is profitable to direct.

We can often see in literature and art, as well as in practical life, the paralysis of criticism. A poet may be so finical about the right words, so afraid to venture anything, so concerned about perfecting his poetic apparatus, that he can produce nothing, or, when he does, it may be refined away to mere elegancies of speech without thought or virility. In most cases where the comparison is possible, to compare the first rough draft of a poem with the finished product does not exalt the latter. The strength of the original expression has been rubbed away by undue criticism. The vision, the intuition, the poetic impulse, are often weakened by a too great regard to the formal standards in vogue. It may be even that some Milton is mute and inglorious because he has paid too much heed to the dictates of criticism and would not allow his own spirit to have free course. In all art, such as the interpretation of beauty in painting, or the interpretation of thought by writing in literature or by speech in oratory, the first and chief factor is intuition. It is not attained by analysis, by criticism, by resolving the thing into its component It is creative, constructive, a great emotion which opens the eyes to the beauty or the truth. Criticism is not incompatible with it, nay, is necessary for it at its highest to compare the result with the laws which regulate all beauty and truth; but if it is dominated by a spirit of criticism, by a too great regard for rule and convention, it loses all distinction and takes its place among the great crowd of mediocrity. Has not the paralysis of criticism come over much of our art and literature?

This is true also in other regions of life, as, for example, philanthropy. It is easy to become suspicious of everything that calls itself charity, to harden

the heart because we can point to endless cases where we have been imposed Professional critics of charity tell us that promiscuous giving is demoralizing to everybody concerned, that it only makes paupers and steals away what lingering self-respect may be left to those who accept doles. All that is no doubt true; but there is a real danger of becoming too suspicious, too critical of every story of misery and poverty. Benevolence may have often been abused, but worse than that is callous indifference to the calls on benevolence. man who boasts of never having been taken in is advertising his own hardness of heart. Charity organization is dearly bought at the expense of the extinction of charity itself. We can be too critical about all philanthropic schemes, and find a ready excuse for our own parsimony and niggardliness. Criticism paralyzes beneficence as it paralyzes poetry.

In religion also the same effect of criticism is often felt, and to-day especially is this temptation prominent. Every doctrine, every article of faith, every form of creed, every authority, has been tested and examined. The Bible has been put into the crucible, and the records have been subjected to minute criticism. It is well to note the limitations of criticism. Because theology is in process of restatement does not mean that religion may be rejected meanwhile. Discussions of dates and documents and authorship are useful and interesting, but religion as spiritual experience with a historical past and with a living present does not depend on these discussions. If we live as religious men, we do not live by these things. The forms of religion, its history, its foundations in the past and the present, its formulæ of statement, can all bear investigation. But no microscope or test-tube can alter the fact of it. It is spiritual life, and. like all life, it lives by its own divine right. It is stupid to think that Christian life and work ought to be suspended meanwhile because men are investigating the records of religious history or are criticising the statements of theology. Life must go on, and we cannot call a halt to wait for ultimate decisions of criticism. The literature of religion is



there because the life was there, and not vice versa. The life did not, and does not, depend on the literature. Life does not stop while biologists inquire into the unsolved problems of their science. Religious life does not stop while experts examine the records. Fortunately, we do not need to be experts and original inquirers in order to be Christians.

It is worth while insisting that the Christian life is not accounted for by any sort of literary criticism. The life remains a fact of history and experience. Literature did not create it, and no dealing with the literature can destroy it. The institutions that life creates can be criticised and analyzed, but the life itself cannot be explained by any kind of analysis. An exclusive view of the mere conditions of faith is debilitating. Criticism has its practical limitations in religion, as elsewhere. We have our Christian experience to fall back on, the actual facts of the life of faith. We can wait serenely for every established fact of science; for we know that nothing can affect the ultimate issue. We refuse to let ourselves be driven about by every wind of doctrine. We refuse to stop our

Christian work and life till we are made sure of the dates of the books of the Bible, and have put every record under the lens of the microscope. We must not let our faith be shivered by the paralysis of criticism.

This hesitating, questioning, calculating temper is often merely an excuse for unbelief. A man does not want to bend his heart to the yoke of Christ, he does not want to take on him the sweet burden of faith, he does not want to submit his will to God and to live the life of the unseen, and so he rides off on the plea that he is not satisfied that the fit conditions have come, or he excuses himself by magnifying his intellectual doubts. Christ's claims to the practical allegiance of his life are put off by what is really a sham excuse. Part of Carlyle's great message to his age was that doubt is ended by action. It is quite beyond the point to condone neglect of plain duty by some intellectual quibble. All who loudly question Christian truth need to ask themselves if they have tried the Christian life.

Edinburgh, Scotland.

NUREMBERG, THE CITY OF THE CLOSED SHOP

BY W. D. P. BLISS

TERTAIN voices are singing in America to-day the song of the Open Shop. It means, we are told, liberty, opportunity, Americanism, individuality. It will deliver the country from the threat and peril of the trade union; it will give to the laborer freedom to work long hours, opportunity to accept such wages as employers please, chance to labor on the terms the masters make, liberty to become hand and soul the master's man. It will free the oppressed employer from that paternal or socialistic legislation which is to-day limiting child labor, decreasing the employment of women by night, entailing

needless expense for the safety, the modesty, or the convenience of the workers. "From all these and other evils may the good Free Shop deliver us"—so runs the siren song.

But let us turn from poetry to fact. Let us see what a policy of the Closed Shop actually did do in that one city of the world in which it was carried out most logically and most completely. We refer to ancient Nuremberg. There is nothing that teaches like facts.

Nuremberg to-day is a sea of gables. There rise, indeed, the Imperial Kaiserburg, the ancestral property of the Hohenzollerns; the lordly Rathhaus; above all, the simple yet stately spires of St. Sebald and St. Lawrence, God's

 $^{^{\}rm I}\,{\rm An}$ editorial relating to this article appears on another page.

sentinels over the two parts of the city; there are other towers, but on the whole there stretches out a broad equality, a tableland of gabled roofs. Nuremberg was a city of the people. It had equality, but equality on a high level.

And, noting this, one is struck next by the individuality, the freedom of the houses. You may wander through the city, along the Pegnitz, by the historic mart, down broad streets, through obscure alleys, yet nowhere in Nuremberg find two houses that are alike. Turrets. pinnacles of every size and description. oriel windows, simplest dormer windows artistically placed, carved facades, magnificent towers, winding stairs, picturesque courts, tile roofs—all these, but nowhere two houses that are alike. If Nuremberg was a city of equality, it was certainly one of infinite variety, individuality, fertile wit.

It was a city of success. This breathes from every point. Æneas Sylvius, who wrote in the fifteenth century, says, "The burghers' dwellings seem to have been built for princes. In truth, the Kings of Scotland would gladly be housed so luxuriously as the ordinary citizen of Nuremberg." Nuremberg had no Fifth Avenue, but also no Five Points. No one can doubt the substantial and widely distributed prosperity of the Burgher City.

One wonders still more at the high quality of its life. Equality here spelled Ouality. Art, learning, religion, were universal. There was no artistic set, no learned class, no five per cent. or twenty per cent. who attended church. In Nuremberg, more than elsewhere in the world, the artist was an artisan and the artisan an artist. Her greatest poet was a cobbler. When Adam Krafft carved his ciborium, that "miracle of German art," he represented himself and his assistants in working costume supporting the beautiful creation. When Peter Vischer and his five sons worked twelve years to produce his masterpiece—the shrine of St. Sebald—it was his pride to represent himself at its base in workman's cap, with leather apron and hammer and chisel. Education, too, was popularized. If Gutenberg discovered printing with movable metal type in

Mainz in 1455, Nuremberg, before 1500, had twenty-four presses and had printed two hundred different works. Nuremberg, the city of trade, the Birmingham and Fall River of the Middle Ages, was the first city in Germany, if not in the world, to found a gymnasium, a secondary school for the people. Equally was her religion for all. Vischer wrought his shrine "to the praise of God Almighty above and the honor of St. Sebald." "Here, when art was still religion, with a quiet, reverent heart, lived and labored Albrecht Dürer, the Evangelist of art." Each trade guild had its patron saint, its saint's feast, its guild church or chapel. In St. Sebald's or St. Lawrence's one may still look around on multitudinous carvings or beautiful glass—" Each the bright gift of some mechanic guild who loved their city and thought gold well spent to make her beautiful with piety." Against the walls of St. Mauritz's Chapel still stands the quaint four-hundred-yearold Bratwurst-Glocklein, where, under the shadow of the church and in the very odor of sanctity, Hans Sachs, from generous stein or pewter tankard, "drank and laughed."

It is this commingling of art and of commerce, of learning and of trade, of religion and of daily life, that gives to Nuremberg its greatest charm.

Nuremberg was by no means a perfect city; its citizens were by no means ideal The life we are describing neighbors. was lived five centuries ago, with all its ignorances, its defects, its limitations. The streets were ill kept, if not filthy. Of most mediæval cities one could say what Coleridge says of Cologne-"I counted two-and-seventy stenches, all well defined." The 6,205 "poems" of Hans Sachs were often coarse. government of the city was habitually cruel and harsh, even when just. The subterranean passages under the Rathhaus, the dark dungeons of the castle, the torture-chamber with its horrors, above all, the "Iron Virgin," by which he who was condemned "to kiss the maiden" was seized in iron arms, impaled upon iron spikes protruding from every portion, and which, entering eye and bosom and limb, entailed a horrible death, leaving the lacerated body to drop

upon pointed steel below, to be cut in pieces by revolving knives—all this and much more delivers us from any sentimental desire for the return of "the good old times." Nevertheless, just this, that out of such darkness and ignorance and evil there did arise such art and freedom, such individuality and success, makes us hasten to ask the question how it all arose. How?

We do not hesitate to answer: It arose first and foremost—we do not say solely -because Nuremberg was a city of the Closed Shop. No Nuremberger ever seriously dreamed of leaving trade or art or manufacture or indeed any portion of life to the accident and incident of unrestricted competition. "Competition," the Nuremberger would have said, " is the death of trade, the subverter of freedom, above all, the destroyer of quality." Every Nuremberger, like every mediæval man. thought of himself, not as an independent unit, but as a dependent, although component, part of a larger organism, Church or Empire or City or Guild. This was of the very essence of mediæval life. According to the theory of the times, broadly stated—though more often acted upon than phrased—the town held the right to practice trades as a feudal tenure from the Emperor, who held it from God. This tenure—the right to practice trades—the Rath, or Town Council, parceled out between the guilds or groups of citizens, each guild having the right to practice only that art or even subdivision of art granted it by the Rath. Finally, in its turn, the guild granted to its different individual members the right to practice the trade, conditioned, however, upon restrictions and within very definite limits. Subject to the rule of the Town Council and the overrule of the Emperor, the trade guild held the right to control any detail it would of its especial craft. The guild had the right to say who should practice the craft, and when and where and how. The guild determined what raw material might be bought and how much. The guild determined the number of apprentices any master might employ and the conditions under which they should work. It determined the number of journeymen in any shop, and the wages they were paid.

It held the right to determine, and often did determine, the very methods and mechanism of production. Above all, it fixed the price of the finished product and scrupulously controlled the market. Anything more contrary to the principle of the Free Shop it would be scarcely possible to conceive; equally plainly, the system was paternal, if not socialistic.

It will be said, indeed, and said with truth, that the mediæval trade guild was not like the modern trade union, in that the latter is composed of operatives only, while in the mediæval guilds master and workman, employer and employee, though with fixed order of precedence, nevertheless sat and voted in the same guild. This was true, at least, in the period in which Nuremberg was laying the foundations of her great development. We are not forgetful that the system did not endure. Even under a beneficent feudalism the interests of labor and capital, inherently diverse, broke forth in open strife in Nuremberg as early as the fourteenth century. As masters and burghers amassed wealth and developed power, there grew up, more or less consciously, a trade aristocracy. The masters became jealous of the men and the men suspicious of the masters. The fourteenth century in Germany, as in England and in France, was full of revolution. The artisans evinced a desire to have a voice in the councils of their town. The patrician families had engrossed all the rights. The butchers and cutlers asked and obtained from the Emperor Karl IV. the right to hold a carnival and dance in silks and velvets. This in itself shows ' the prosperity of the artisans. Karl, as repeatedly with emperors, popular for his easy manners and liberal policy, sided with the common people as against the nobles. When the latter favored the Caroline party against the Emperor, the artisans took the opportunity and rose and formed a new Council composed mainly of artisans. This Council, in 1348, allowed the artisans to form separate guilds of their own. Council did not endure, but it sowed the seeds of lasting conflicts between the masters and the men. Karl's successor was not so wise. Wenceslas had been

born in Nuremberg and baptized in St. Sebald's, but he neglected his realm. He cared more for "white beer and girls of various complexions." The struggle in Nuremberg went on till the power of the old guilds was forever gone. But this was the beginning of the end. It shows how much Nuremberg owed to the old system. According to that system little was left to competition. How little will be more clear as we enter into some detail.

Take the vexed question of apprentice-The guild, as we have seen, determined the number of apprentices. According to the rules of the times, the master "must maintain his apprentice night and day in his house, give him board and attention, and keep him under lock and key." Here very surely was the Closed Shop. It does not sound very free, nor very inviting; but listen. The master had to teach the apprentice his trade, with all its mysteries. He must keep no secret back, on pain of losing his license to trade. He must bring up his apprentice in the fear of God, and must see that he attend church. The modern working lad in New York and in London is free not to attend church and to learn little of God; but what apprentice to-day learns half so much of what is to be known of his trade as did the apprentice in Nuremberg of what there was then to be known? And notice still more. When the apprenticeship (Lehrjahre) expired, the young worker was given time and money to travel and study his trade in other countries, for one, three, or even five years (his Wanderjahre). No wonder the Nuremberg artisan produced good work. He was well equipped. If he was an iron-worker, he would go, perhaps, to the Low Countries and see the marvelous iron-work of Antwerp and Liége. If he was a silversmith or goldsmith, he would go to Florence and North Italy. Everywhere he would look and ask and learn. Finally, when he came home, when his Wanderjahre were over, then, while working for a master, he was required to make a masterpiece, and only when he had done this and proved himself a master workman could he be admitted to rank as a master in

his craft. Do we wonder still that Nuremberg workmanship was renowned?

It will be said that Nuremberg's success was based upon thorough training, not upon the Closed Shop. But it was the Closed Shop that made this training possible. The guild did not allow the untrained workman or the mean-spirited trader to cut prices to spoil or steal the market. The guilds measured and weighed and tested all materials, and determined how much each producer could have. The guilds said where materials should be bought. favored the home market. No open market or free trade for them. equally measured or counted, weighed and tested, the finished product. No dishonest goods, no adulterated wares, were to be foisted on the market to deceive the purchaser or lower the price so as to force the honest worker and the conscientious workman to his knees. As late as 1456 two men were burned alive at Nuremberg for having sold adulterated wines. We fear that if, in our open markets, we put to death all who sold adulterated goods, our warehouses would become too much like universal charnelhouses. Wares, the guild laws said, must be, "in the eyes of all, good, irreproachable, and without flaw." To buy in the cheapest and sell in the dearest market was not Nuremberg's commercial law. These guild regulations, indeed, went into every possible and even absurd detail. They determined the working hours. Merry was the day of the vernal equinox when twelve candles were carried in procession and extinguished in the Pegnitz, after which the workman could be employed only till dusk; sadder was the autumnal equinox, when, after the eating of the *Lichtgans* (light-goose), the workman could be required to work till the church bell rang. No workman could be employed on Sundays or on feast days. At first a half and then the whole of Monday was a holiday, save when the men had another holiday in the The guild laws determined even what the artisan should wear and eat. It was a quarrel over this latter item that largely led to the disruption of the old guilds and the development of the journeymen's guilds.

But it was not only in economic matters that the guilds held sway. They legislated in the realm of morals and behavior. Only the right of life and of limb was reserved to the Emperor. The guilds were charitable and benefit societies. Members swore "to show a brotherly love and loyalty to each other, through life, to the extent of each one's ability, to live in peace and kindness one with the other, and in all things to practice Christian and fraternal charity." The guild system thus covered the whole domain of life and entered every province. There were separate guilds for chain-makers, nail-makers, helmetmakers, and spear-makers; there were guilds of architects and tavern hosts, of midwives and women workers. Even the poets had their guild. The Incorporated Poets had pedantic rules for pointing and for meter, for rhymes, and even for punctuation. In 1646 Halsdorfer published a "Nuremberg Tunnel for pouring in the art of German poetry and rhyme, without the aid of the Latin tongue, in six lessons." It will be remembered how, in the "Meistersinger of Nuremberg," Wagner makes Hans Sachs champion the spirit of the old artistic folk-songs against the narrow pedantry of the singers' guild. This is personified in the character of the "Marker," who was the overseer appointed by the guild to mark with strokes the faults committed by the performers, especially if they were candidates for permission to enter the guild. Even Nuremberg's Pegasus was shod in a closed shop.

Nuremberg, however, was not unaware of the dangers of combinations. She saw what they might become, but realized also the dangers of competition, and held the balance between the two evils. A rescript of a commission of the Reichstag, held in Nuremberg, 1522-3, says:

"Item: The aforesaid monopolies, uniting, combining, associatings and their sellings, have not now for the first time been found out not to be borne; but the same were regarded as very noxious to the commonweal and distinctive and worthy to be punished, as aforetime by the Roman Emperors and Jurisconsults, and especially by the blessed Emperor Justinian, so that such trespassers should be made to lose all their goods, and, moreover, should be adjudged to eternal

misery [exile] from their homes, as standeth written. . . Lege Unica Cod. de Monop. . . . But therefore it is not said that all companies and common trading should be wholly cut away. This were indeed against the commonweal and very burdenseme and harmful and foolish to the whole German nation. . . If each one trade singly and should lose thereby, that would then be to his undoing . . such a forbidding would only serve the rich and their advantage, who in all cases everywhere do pluck the grain for themselves and leave the chaff for others." !

Nuremberg thus saw very well that competition only served the rich and the strong, that collective trading was the hope of the poor and the plain people. The guilds were therefore encouraged but controlled. According to the rescript, they could have a capital of only 50,000 gulden, with three storehouses, outside family stores. They must make sworn reports to the town councils. Dispersed companies were not to join. Only limited amounts of material could be bought. They were to be trading companies. Money was not to be lent on usury (interest). The guilds were to serve the people, not to become their masters. Indeed, the guild system cannot be rightly judged unless one take into consideration the control of the guilds by the Rath or town council. This was paternal, often socialistic in the extreme. It was, as we have seen, cruel the children were taught to say a Pater Noster every time they passed the town prison—but it was with a just cruelty. Extortion, false measures, adulteration of goods, were abominations in a trading town and punished usually by death. There was to be no cornering of the market. This was particularly so in the matter of food. The town built granaries and filled them with grain against the day of drought, when they could be opened and the grain sold at low prices to prevent a monopoly price. Nuremberg had four public baths and a town pawn-The town government, if not by the people, was of the people, and most certainly for the people.

Such, in brief, was the system that produced Nuremberg's art and commerce. It most certainly developed freedom and individuality. As early as 1219, Fred-

¹ Quoted in Belfort Bax's "German Society of the Middle Ages," Appendix.

erick II., son of Frederick Barbarossa, declared Nuremberg a Free City, subject to the Emperor only. Few to-day have a conception of the passion for liberty in the fourteenth century, the century of the Peasants' Revolt in England, of the Jacquerie in France, of the ascendency of the socialistic Michael di Lando in Italy. In Germany it was the same, and worked out in every direction. In religion, Johannes Tauler dared to say, "The churches do not make the people holy, but the people make the churches holy." The full influence of this spirit was felt in the Burgher City. Nuremberg was the first Imperial city to declare for Protestantism. Nor did the guild laws fetter the inventive spirit. The first gunlocks, the first air-guns, the first clarionets, the first globes, were made in Nuremberg. In 1500 Peter Hemlein made the first watches, and they were called Nuremberg eggs. That particular alloy which is called brass was first made in Nuremberg, the brass of earlier times being apparently different. The first papermill in Germany, if not in Europe, was established here. A machine for drawing wine was invented in Nuremberg as early as 1360. Printing, as we have seen, though not discovered here, was early introduced. The first playing-cards were printed here; still to-day Nuremberg is the great manufacturer of toys. This is but a partial list of Nuremberg's inventions. The old proverb ran, "Nuremberg's hand goes through every land." A German rhyme said.

"Had I Venice's power, Augsburg's adornment, Nuremberg's wit [inventiveness], Strassburg's defenses, With Ulm's money, I should be the richest in the world."

Open or closed shop? No informed mind will consider it either possible or desirable to return to the mediæval guild or the social system involved in it. No unbiased judgment will desire to see business handed over to-day either to the irresponsible rule of present-day labor organizations, on the one hand, or the uncontrolled organization of capital on the other. On this point, as on all others, we must pick and choose and balance. We present this study of the economic life of Nuremberg, not for what it presents to be copied, which is perhaps nil; but for what it suggests, which is almost without limit. Marvelous quality of work, equality of effort, freedom in inventiveness and creation, grew up largely because by the guild laws the Nuremberg man found deliverance from competition in cheapness of work and of prices. Such are undoubtedly the strong points of a system and a city that America will do well to study. Longfellow has well sung of Nuremberg: "Vanished is the ancient splendor, and

'Vanished is the ancient splendor, and before my dreamy eye Wave these mingling shapes and figures like a faded tapestry.

Not thy Councils, not thy Kaisers, win for thee the world's regard, But thy painter, Albrecht Düter, and Hans Sachs, thy cobbler bard.

Thus, O Nuremberg, a wanderer from a region far away,
As he paced thy streets and courtyards, sang in thought his careless lay:

Gathering from the pavement's crevice, as a floweret of the soil,
The nobility of labor,—the long pedigree of toil."

THE WORKERS

BY MARY G. SLOCUM

All the wisdom of to-day we summon,
And our questions still abide;
Vainly then we look into the future,
Hoping there the answers hide;
While these problems find their one solution
Where the centuries divide.

NEW STUDIES OF MONETARY PROBLEMS'

NUMBER of years have passed since the publication of General Walker's "Money" and Professor Jevons's "Money and the Mechanism of Exchange," and in the interval there have been some important changes both in monetary methods and in the views of economists respecting the principles of currency, banking, and exchange. But until recently English-speaking students have lacked a work comparable with the treatises of Walker and Jevons and utilizing the facts of later research and practice. Within the past year or two steps have been taken to meet this need. Professor Kinley's "Money," for example, is to be commended as a concise exposition from an essentially modern point of view, and Dr. Cleveland's "The Bank and the Treasury" as a trenchant critique of present banking methods in the United States, with especial reference to the necessity for stricter governmental supervision. Neither of these works, however, can compare in point of comprehensiveness with Charles A. Conant's recently issued "The Principles of Money and Banking," which carries the subject from the beginnings of exchange with direct barter to the complicated mechanism of the modern credit system. Mr. Conant is already known as the author of two useful books on financial topics-"Wall Street and the Country" and "A History of Modern Banks of Issue "-and as a member of the Mexican and Philippine Monetary Commissions. As a writer he possesses an agreeable style and the ability so to present the most arid theme that it becomes interesting even to a reader having a minimum of economic knowledge. His present work is distinctly "popular" in treatment, while preserving dignity and caution. It is, we understand, about to be translated into French, and

will no doubt enjoy a wide circulation in the sister republic. For ourselves, although obliged to dissent occasionally from the views expressed and the measures advocated, we have read it with satisfaction, and recognize in it a valuable contribution to a difficult subject.

At the outset Mr. Conant does much to render the student's path smooth by insisting on restricting the use of the term "money" to metallic media for exchange. Paper money, bills of exchange, deposits, etc., are set clearly apart as other forms of currency, and thus a confusing terminology is avoided. This distinction is, of course, rendered possible only by holding that money must contain value in itself, or, in other words, that it is something more than a sign or symbol of value. Mr. Conant further shows that the adoption of money as a substitute for barter was not, as seems to be the view entertained in some quarters, a sudden departure, but a slow evolution in which many experiments were made before it became generally recognized that the needs of exchange might thus best be met-an evolution which has continued until to-day in the gradual extension of credit mechanism to secure elasticity and serve the increasing demands of modern business. the consideration of the function, origins, and development of money our author passes to the principles of the value of money, and here his discussion shows plainly the influence of the Austrian school of economists. Recourse to the principle of marginal utility is, indeed, the only means of explaining satisfactorily the phenomena of rising and falling prices, distribution and exchange, and it is ignorance or neglect of this principle that is largely responsible for the crises through which the United States, like all other money-using countries, has passed. This brings Mr. Conant to one of the most helpful and interesting sections of his work—the study of the evolution of monetary systems.

The Principles of Money and Banking. By Charles A. Conant. Two volumes. Harper & Brothers, New York. \$4, net.

Money Inflation in the United States: A Study in Social Pathology. By Murray Shipley Wildman, Ph.D. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. \$1.50, net.

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To-day, as is well known, the failure of all attempts to keep gold and silver in concurrent circulation has led quite generally to the adoption of the single gold standard system. This, however, has its objections, and particularly in respect to dealings between gold standard countries and countries still on a silver basis. Various remedial measures have been proposed, notably what is termed " international bimetallism," which. briefly, requires an agreement among leading commercial nations that their mints shall be continuously open to the owners of silver bullion for its conversion into coin at a fixed ratio to gold—a ratio which shall be exactly the same in the case of all nations entering into the agreement. Having recited in detail the experiences of France and the United States with national bimetallism, Mr. Conant devotes a chapter to exposing the difficulties in the way of international bimetallism, which, as he admits, has not thus far been fully tested in practice. The prime obstacle, it appears to him, lies in the impossibility of welding into a homogeneous whole two commodities which are not homogeneous, and he quotes approvingly these words of Raguet: "Between gold and silver there is not any fixed proportion as to value, established by nature, any more than there is a fixed proportion, established by nature, between lead and iron, or between wheat and tobacco. Nature does not say that one ounce of gold shall always be worth so many ounces of silver, any more than she says that a certain number of pounds of iron shall always be worth so many pounds of lead, or that a bushel of wheat shall always be worth a fixed quantity of tobacco." To put it otherwise, statute law would come into conflict with economic law, public opinion would intervene, and the bimetallic agreement would crumble into nothingness. But if Mr. Conant fails to find that the problems involved can be solved by bimetallism, he is equally confident that a solution is in sight through the adoption of the "limping" or "gold exchange" standard, which approaches the subject from the side of adapting the supply of silver coins to the commercial demand for them. plan suggested, and already in operation

in several silver-using countries, calls for the acceptance by such countries of the gold standard on the basis of a silver coin of unlimited legal tender, but with a fixed gold value. "Thus far," declares the author, with enthusiasm, "the experience of the Philippines, Panama, and British India has attested the soundness of these principles by their successful operation."

Problems of currency and banking occupy the major part of the second volume as well as a goodly portion of the first. Naturally, the difficult question of power of issue requires considerable discussion, and here, perhaps more than anywhere else, Mr. Conant leaves himself open to criticism. The treatment is hardly sufficiently luminous, and at times the economist appears to be lost in the banker, with the result that the outlook is somewhat narrow. The ideal currency system, in Mr. Conant's opinion, is one which combines the single metallic standard with the issue of convertible bank notes. Coinage he would reserve for the State, but would lodge note issuance with the banks, leaving to the Government merely the right to make regulations to insure soundness. "Government paper money," he explains, "cannot easily be regulated in quantity in accordance with business demands. Attempts at such regulation must be more or less artificial, because government paper is not issued in response to pressure for credit in the money market, as bank notes are, but is issued to meet the needs of the State or at the judgment of some official. If the quantity becomes excessive, it cannot be exported like money of standard metal. If it is redeemable in the standard metal and the quantity becomes excessive, by reason either of an increase in the quantity of paper or a decline in the volume of business, there is always danger that demands for redemption will impose a heavy burden upon government reserves of metal. The government is subjected to much greater difficulty than a bank in maintaining the redeemability of such money, because the bank has means for calling in its money, reducing the amount which it lends to the public, and thereby curing the excess in circulation without losing the entire amount of the excess from its reserves."

Mr. Conant does not, however, range himself with those advocates of typical bank money who allege that the requirement of special guarantees for security is unnecessary. He would follow the Canadian system of a guarantee fund whereby the banks combine to make good the full value of notes in cases of bankruptcy; he justifies the requirement of specific cash reserves, and he urges restriction of issue within the limits of legitimate business demand by a system of prompt redemption for notes, and by changes of the discount rate; both of which measures, it is pointed out, aim at the vital necessity of keeping bank notes exchangeable for coin at par and on demand. But, with reference to the system in vogue in this country, he specifically criticises the provision of the National Banking Law "which takes the security for the notes out of the custody of the banks, and deprives them of that ready control of their note issues which permits their adaptation to business conditions. Such regulation hampers sound banking, tends to increase its cost to the community, and is not justified by experience for the purpose of insuring the safety of the notes." The present system is undeniably faulty in some respects, but it is admirably designed to meet the needs of the American people, and among its most useful requirements is that relating to the depositing of United States bonds with the Treasurer of the United States as security for note issues. The need for greater elasticity is obvious, but any system which is devised to insure greater elasticity must also insure a constant and central redeemable value to the paper currency. This value, in our opinion, must always be given by Any monetary government guarantee. reforms which may be undertaken should be in the way of adapting, not revolutionizing, the existing system.

Dr. Murray S. Wildman's "Money Inflation in the United States" is a book of an altogether different order from Mr.

Conant's. It is the outgrowth, it appears, of an investigation undertaken in a seminar of Professor Laughlin, of the University of Chicago, and is, as its author describes it in his sub-title, a study in social pathology. Dr. Wildman views the "periodic chase after the phantom of value created by legislative enactment" as a symptom of social disease. Analyzing, from both the psychological and the economic standpoint, the several movements which had their culmination in Shay's Rebellion, in the war upon the second Bank of the United States, in the greenback agitation, and in the free silver campaign, he endeavors to determine whether or not the United States is likely to be the scene of any more attempts to "tamper" with the standard of deferred payments. Both his method and his reasoning are ingenious, and although it seems to us that he presses a hypothesis to an extreme, we have found his little treatise singularly stimulating. In every case he traces the demand for currency expansion to a wave of westward colonization, finding as underlying factors, on the one hand, the mental states produced by the isolation of the colonizer; on the other, an undue reliance on the increase of wealth through the growth of population and a consequent increase in demand for land and farm products. Now that the frontier, "in so far as it forms an important element in American society," is a thing of the past, and the railway, telegraph, telephone, and rural free delivery of mail, etc., are narrowing the zone of "isolation," the dangers of "inflationism" are that much diminished. But sundry inimical tendencies remain, and the conclusion ultimately reached by Dr. Wildman is that "Not until the people see the fundamental principles at stake will the country be safe from false monetary doctrine. So long as men go into debt, they will seek the shortest way out. So long as speculation proves profitable, men will go to the limit of their credit in good times and find themselves insolvent in times of depression."

Comment on Current Books

American Men of Science Begun as a reference list for the Carnegie Institution, this biographical dic-

tionary is offered as a contribution to the organization of science in this country. It includes the names and records of over four thousand scientists, and is especially full in the entries relating to those who have carried on research work in the exact and natural sciences, with a considerable representation, however, of teachers and writers, and of men who through applied science (as in medicine or engineering) have contributed to the advancement of pure science. The complete membership of a long list of scientific associations was used as a basis. The work is evidently prepared with care, and its usefulness is obvious. (The Science Press, New York.)

In Mr. Ira D. Sankey's story of As Jesus his life and work mention is Passed By made of a gipsy lad converted under his influence. The author of the addresses in this volume is that lad, now the influential evangelist, Gipsy Smith, widely known and esteemed in the British churches. The reader who is aware that the preacher never slept in a house till he was seventeen years old, but roved the country in his father's band of nomad tent-dwellers, becomes aware of a divine power in the Gospel which so transformed him. These discourses, published only under friendly pressure to publish, reveal the glowing heart of a plain but evidently inspired man. They are marked by virility, "very straight talking," and ethical vigor. (The Fleming H. Revell Company, New York. \$1.)

Peter, and The Revelation of John

The Epistles of These volumes of the "Devotional and Practical Commentary," under the editorial direction of Dr. W. Robertson Nicoll, editor of the

"British Weekly," the former by the Rev. J. H. Jowett, Dr. R. W. Dale's successor at Birmingham, and the latter by the Rev. C. Anderson Scott, follow the line of the widely known "Expositor's Bible." Mr. Iowett abstains so far from the field of criticism as not to mention even the generally received belief of critics, that the second of the Petrine letters is from a later hand than Peter's. His exposition is wholly concerned with the intrinsic value of the Epistle, and with its general lessons, together with their specific bearing upon present-day conditions. Mr. Scott's exposition of the Apocalypse is

marked by fine appreciation of its literary structure and pictorial form, together with a sane and satisfactory perception of the cyclical unfoldings of its general theme—the judgment of the sinful world in successively widening areas. (A. C. Armstrong & Son, New York. \$1.25, net, per volume.)

The Evangel of the New Theology

The Gospel as viewed by the "new theol-

ogy "-which is really old theology newly revived—is presented here both doctrinally and practically in its religious and ethical aspects with a clearness and fullness rarely found. The author of these twenty discourses, the Rev. T. Rhondda Williams, of Bradford, England, has thought his way through the intellectual confusion of our time, and is a proper spokesman for a growing body of such thinkers. The basal question of religion, as he observes, is the relation of God to the living world. The theology now being outgrown conceived of God and man as external to each other, beings apart, and out of this fallacious dualism the Unitarian controversy grew. But "the gist of the new theology" is the oneness of the spiritual nature in God and man, so that humanity itself is "an incarnation of the divine life." The charge that this is "Unitarianism" Mr. Williams rebuts on historical grounds, and with a discriminating statement of the likeness and the difference. Trinitarians and Unitarians have moved off their old grounds, and in moving to higher ground have approached each other. Many other vital questions are discussed here. "Does Evolution Account for Jesus?"-answered in the negative, but with showing that Jesus is not a solitary instance of the fact-is a noteworthy specimen of these. The unfriendly doubt whether "the new theology" has a true "evangel" is well met by this book. It is marked by warmth as well as freshness and force, and by intentness on the realities of religious faith. (Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. \$1.50.)

Dr. C. W. Saleeby is an en-Evolution the thusiastic Spencerian. His Master Key present "discussion of the principle of evolution as illustrated in atoms, stars, organic species, mind, society, and morals" undertakes to expound and vindicate the "synthetic philosophy." Clearly enough, Spencer was no materialist. And when his "unknowable" is here explained to mean merely incomprehensible, he locks arms with pious Job. The supreme idea bequeathed by Spencer is, in Dr. Saleeby's opinion, this: "May there not be a mode of being as much transcending intelligence and will as these transcend mere mechanical motion?" This is his conjecture of the nature of the ultimate Reality. Of this Dr. Saleeby permits us to affirm that it is intelligible and intelligent; but the question whether it is benevolent he regards as "meaningless anachronism." Yet while this partial knowledge of Spencerians concerning the Eternal in no way affects, as he says, their conduct or their happiness, it appears that it does affect it so far as this: it is of such a nature as to leave them free to hope and to work for the best. Not being against them, it may be for them. Beyond his exposition of his great master, " an immortal," it does not appear that Dr. Saleeby has contributed anything of importance upon the subject of evolution. This, after all, is not, as he calls it, a "principle," but simply the method in which, to use Spencerian terms, the homogeneous becomes the heterogeneous. (Harper & Brothers, New York. \$2, net.)

Mr. S. R. Crockett is a Fishers of Men facile teller of tales, and although he is too much given to springing some lurid and dime-novelish incident upon a reader who wants rather to have more of his clever character-sketching, sprightly dialogue, and attractively depicted and lively girls, there is always enjoyment to be had from his books. We could very well spare in this story, for instance, the insane valet who lives in his dead master's tomb, issues forth to scare people by his ghostly walks, and commits a murder for which another man is nearly hanged. But one could ill spare the devoted little city missionary, Mr. Molesay, who, in a beautifully human, devoted, and non-pietistical way, is shown among the burglars and toughs of Edinburgh's Cowgate. The hero of the story is a lad who has the advantages of a high-class finishing school in artistic burglary, but insists on turning out straight and square; and some of the most interesting scenes are in a boys' reformatory. Altogether a badly constructed but decidedly readable book. (D. Appleton & Co., New York. \$1.50.)

History of the English Bible Wright of Bishop Westcott's work, which first appeared Macmillan Company, New York. \$3.50.)

Japan as a Great Power Does Japan really constitute a "yellow peril," or does she, on the contrary, make the world's civilization greater? The present volume is written by one who strongly

believes that what Japan has accomplished has been in the interest of civilization, Oriental and Occidental. Dr. Seiji G. Hishida carefully traces Japan's historic policy in dealing with foreign nations. Incidentally he makes frequent reference to the diplomatic and commercial history of Europe and America, to the principles of international and other law, as well as to certain phases of economics and sociology, in order to elucidate with scientific precision the relations between the Orient and the Occident. Dr. Hishida's volume has distinct value for students of history and politics. We are informed as to the early intercourse of Japan with Korea and China, ancient nations indeed, for, like the Jews and the Egyptians, so the Chinese and Koreans claim to be able to trace their national existence back to a time centuries before Solomon erected his temple at Jerusalem. Dr. Hishida does not enter into the myths and legends of Japan, but declares her national history to have begun with the Emperor Jinmu, the first Mikado, who established a capital at Kashiwabara, B.c. 660. The first intercourse of Japan with European nations, however, did not take place until about twenty-two centuries later, despite the fact that Japan had been described to Europe by Marco Polo at the end of the thirteenth century. After narrating the history of ancient and modern Japan, Dr. Hishida describes the Empire's definite entry into the comity of nations, the Russo-Japanese rivalry in Korea, the various struggles of the great Powers in China, the Boxer rebellion, and the Russo-Japanese war. An appendix appropriately contains the text of the Russo-Japanese and Anglo-Japanese treaties. As might be expected, Dr. Hishida believes that Japan has a distinct mission and that she is accomplishing it with credit to herself and to the world. By the publication of this painstaking study the world should the better appreciate how this has been accomplished. (The Columbia Press, New York.)

There are very many who in Method in the matter of personal relig-Soul Winning ion have lost their way in the woods, and need to be put on the trail that leads out into the open. Whoever would do such service for another will find this book one of rare value. It is written by one who, having learned how to do it, would impart his method—Dr. Henry C. Mabie, Secretary of the Baptist Missionary Union, and for-merly a successful pastor. "It is amazing," he says. " how little truth is essential to salvation," if one will only be loyal to the modicum of truth he possesses. Loyalty to the truth one has in hand is saving faith. Following a single ray of light leads out of the cave into the day. Ethical rectitude as well as religious earnestness dictates this course. Dr. Mabie's narratives of many difficult cases in which he applied this method with happy effect, together with his judicious cautions against tactical mistakes, are both instructive and stimulating. (The Fleming H. Revell Company, New York. 75 cents, net.)

Some very strong objec-Old Testament tions can be brought, as Introduction eminent scientists like Faraday have confessed, against the theory of gravitation, but it is universally accepted notwithstanding. Likewise the consensus of critical scholars upon the documentary theory of the Pentateuch, and other innovations on traditional beliefs concerning the composition of the Old Testament, are open to a variety of more or less plausible objections. These are here urged by Professor John Howard Raven, of the Theological Seminary at New Brunswick, N. J., in a fair and manly argument, to which is appended a select bibliography impartially referring both to allies and adversaries. Professor Raven's contention against "the insidious nature of the current views" seems motived by his fears. Back of these seems to be the fallacious assumption that the religious faith which produced the Scriptures must stand or fall with a theory of the mode in which the Scriptures were produced. (The Fleming H. Revell Company, New York. \$2, net.)

The Sacred Cap In this story by Vincent Brown an English rector, who, in spite of the awesome presence of his Bishop and the social power of the great folk in his parish, persisted in living up to the standard of the Prayer-Book, came to temporal grief but spiritual exaltation. He withheld the Holy Communion from a prominent member of his parish because of impenitence for acknowledged sin. There is decided ability and moving power in the scenes when the quiet, timid little rector stands true to his religious conviction and sacrifices his interests and his human ties. (G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. \$1.50.)

The Sea Maid

There is always a fascination about tales of shipwrecked or stranded people, and it is from this romantic element that Mr. Ronald MacDonald's tale draws its interest. The seizure by a somewhat too theatrical villain and his accomplices of a steamship carrying a large consignment of gold and the enforced landing of the passengers on a remote island, where they find a little family shipwrecked

many years ago, is the starting-point for various incidents and love-making. The "sea maid" is the daughter of the English clergy-man who, with his wife, inhabits the island when the others arrive, and was herself born there; so that she had known only two living people. She is quite charming in her naïvet!. The fault of the story is that it mingles the romantic, the burlesque, and the melodramatic rather indiscriminately. (Henry Holt & Co., New York. \$1.50.)

In this story by Mrs. Lu Wheat, The Third of Los Angeles, Ah Moy, the Daughter third daughter of a good family. is the central figure in an idyllic picture of a Chinese home. This at length is broken up by dire calamities, which give occasion for the display of high qualities of character, but bring Ah Moy to a tragic end. Chinese customs, the position of women, foot-binding, sex-morality, the Boxers, the traffic in slavegirls, their importation hither, and the efforts of missionaries to thwart it, make up the rapidly shifting scene. To study her subject Mrs. Wheat visited China with an introduction from Minister Wu-Ting-Fan, and writes in large sympathy with whatever she has seen that is attractive and worthy. Concerning Christian missionaries there she has not taken equal pains to inform herself correctly. (Oriental Publishing Company, Los Angeles.)

It is more than a year and The Writings of a half since the publica-Samuel Adams tion of the initial volume of this handsome edition of the writings of the "penman of the Revolution." The second volume, at last in hand, includes the articles, resolutions, letters, etc., written by him from January, 1770, to February, 1773. These have to do almost altogether with the subject which was his master passion-the securing of a larger measure of self-government for the colonists and the abolition of policies repressing their activities. Throughout. whether writing of the non-importation agreement, the Boston massacre, or the stamp tax, the dominant note is an appeal to the people to unite for the preservation of their liberties. And, as the years pass, it is easy to detect an increased intensity and vehemence; and always, beneath the rhetorical flourishing, an obvious sincerity. Extended comment must be deferred until the completion of the work, but this we may say-that whoever desires a vivid first-hand presentation of the case for the Colonies in the conflict which immediately preceded the War of the Revolution will be well advised to secure this collection. (G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. \$5.)

Letters to The Outlook

LETTER FROM A RUSSIAN LEADER

Believing that part of a letter from St. Petersburg, dated February 3, 1906, will interest the readers of The Outlook, I am sending you a translation of it. The letter was sent me by my father, Ivan Ilyitch Petrunkevitch, President of the Russian Agricultural Society and member of the Zemstvo of Twer, who is at the same time leader of the Russian Constitutional Democratic party. Readers of The Outlook may remember that he was one of the deputies received in audience by the Czar after the horrible events of the "Red Sunday," and also his later speech in which he said: "The wall surrounding the Czar is too strong; there is no hope for reforms. We can count only upon ourselves and upon the people. Let us say this to the people. No need of ambiguity. Thanks to the Government, a situation has been created which gives sanction to the revolution. The revolution is a fact. We are obliged to turn it aside from the path of bloodshed. We shall go for that purpose to the people. shall earn their confidence. It is necessary to tell everything courageously to the people. We have to go with petitions, not to the Czar, but to the people."

Twenty-seven years ago he was banished without trial by order of Alexander II. for an address which he wrote as member of the Zemstvo of Tchernigoff and signed, together with some thirty other members. This address was in its essence nothing less than a petition for a constitution, but, owing to the strict Russian censorship, little is known about it in foreign countries, or even in Rus-In 1894 Mr. Petrunkevitch, together with other members of the Zemstvo of Twer. where, after several years of banishment, he was finally permitted to live and work, signed that well-known address of the Zemstvo of Twer to Czar Nicholas II. upon the occasion of his coronation, in which was a plea for an establishment of direct relations between the Czar and his people, without the intermediary of the Ministers (the address was written by Mr. Roditcheff). For his participation in this address, for these now celebrated "senseless dreams," as the Czar designated them in his answer, Mr. Petrunkevitch has, with all the other members of the zemstvo, received a public rebuke from his Majesty. Yet these same senseless dreams have guided him and many other liberal Russians through the whole of their turbulent lives, and are, it may be, at the present time nearer than ever to a realization of some kind—of a kind, perhaps, least expected by the vacillating but always reactionary Czar.

ALEXANDER PETRUNKEVITCH.

21 Jan. 1906. 3 Febr. 1906. St. Petersburg.

... You know many things from the papers, but the papers present in the majority of cases only the external side of events, measure affairs by a scale so great that all characteristic and often very important details are completely lost. . . .

At the time when our deputation was received by the Czar, the movement had scarcely begun and we were at the head of it. Now all Russia is swept by a revolutionary conflagration; all is under martial law; everywhere runs blood; people are arrested and shot with trial or still oftener without any trial; estates burn; factories and mills are closed; masses of workmen hunger without work; all the universities and the majority of high schools are closed; in the streets of the cities, including St. Petersburg and Moscow, the black band reigns and no one's life is safe. I myself have received several death sentences from different "patriotic parties," i. e., those that understand under patriotism a return to the old régime. In one word, here reigns full chaos. The whole mass of the people is revolutionized, and in the spring we expect an enormous agrarian movement. The Government is entirely unable to rule the country, but leads a ceaseless police war, fruitless, and, what is still worse, one that infuriates peasants and workmen and the educated class. Notwithstanding all this, the country gradually forms itself into several parties, and the agitation before the elections to the Imperial Duma begins. But the election law itself, as well as the lack of political training of the masses, makes of the elections a veritable lottery, so that it is absolutely impossible to predict the results. Therefore I do not know anything about my own election either. My election, as my defeat, will be a matter of chance. . . .

Our party, the Constitutional Democratic party, was the only one which, after the crushing of the social-revolutionary rising in Moscow, did not move toward the right, and which will in the coming sitting of the Duma doubtless uphold reforms of a political and social nature in the spirit of democracy. We must therefore expend much effort in order to elect as many members of our party as

possible to the Duma. In addition, we founded here a newspaper, which was forbidden after five numbers appeared. We founded another paper, which was also forbidden after two numbers were issued. Now we have asked permission to publish a third paper, and hope to get this permission during the present week. At the head of the paper stand Professors Milyoukoff and Hessen, both having great authority not only in our own party but in the country at large. Scientific work in Russia is scarcely possible, and the majority of professors, those at least who work, now spend most of their time in meetings and not in laboratories. In the last days a resolution was passed by the Committee of Ministers to keep the universities closed until autumn, as it is evident that in any university or technical school instead of lectures public meetings would be arranged. I doubt, however, whether these institutions will be opened in the autumn, as the revolutionary fermentation cannot soon cease, while the meeting of the Duma cannot appease the agitation, especially if the body of the Duma shall be reactionary. Still, we have to hope that the constitutional régime will sooner or later appease the country. . . .

HIGHER EDUCATION IN FLORIDA

Last summer The Outlook published a paragraph on the educational situation in Florida, which appears to me now, after coming here and observing the situation for some time, to have misrepresented the conditions in some respects. That it did create a wrong impression is evidenced by the fact that several asked me if the State had not abolished its University.

The last Legislature did abolish the University, and along with it five other institutions supported wholly or in part by public funds which were claiming to do collegiate work. In all cases they were also doing secondary work. When these schools presented their claims to the last Legislature and asked for \$750,000, the lawmakers demurred. Instead of the appropriations asked for, the Buckman Bill was passed, abolishing all six of the institutions at one fell swoop, and declaring their property forfeited to the State under certain conditions.

This destructive feature of the bill was emphasized in the paragraph published in The Outlook; but this was only a work of preparation. It was the result of a wish to stop wasting the resources of the State through scattering them, and to increase its power for effective work through concentration. The constructive features, which are more noteworthy, may be stated as follows: In

place of the six schools abolished, it provides for two institutions of higher learning—one for boys, to be known as the University of the State of Florida; and one for girls, the Florida Female College-and creates one Board of Control for these and for the Colored Normal School and Deaf, Dumb, and Blind Institute. A normal department is to be maintained at the University and at the College for Girls. By statutory enactment, before students can enter the University they must present certificates of graduation from a high school maintaining the twelfth grade. or other evidence of equivalent training, and from the tenth grade to enter the College for Girls, though the Board is empowered to alter this. Another bond was taken of fate in the effort to make these institutions the head of the educational system of the State. The Board of Control, acting always in conjunction with or subordinate to the State Board of Education, is empowered to provide a system of written examinations for admission to and advancement in the public high schools.

If the system is open to criticism anywhere, it is in the extensive and minute powers vested in the Board of Control. However, if these powers are wisely used, all will be well. So far no steps have been taken to assume control over the public schools.

The Board of Control and the Board of Education were directed to locate the two institutions, and they have placed the Female College at Tallahassee, and have selected Gainesville as the permanent seat of the University. For the present it is located at Lake City, and is using the grounds and buildings of the old University. A faculty was secured which will favorably compare with the teaching force of any institution of like resources in the country. Nine of them have the Ph.D., and represent the best universities of America and Europe. The entrance and gradution requirements are a decided improvement over those of the old University, and will compare favorably with those of most of the universities in the South. The State, then, has not left her youth without any provision for higher education, even for a year, as the paragraph referred to intimated would be the case.

Gainesville, the permanent home of the University, is one of the most beautiful and progressive towns in Florida. Its public spirit was shown in a large donation for the University. The plan adopted for the University is very elaborate, and calls for the expenditure of \$1,500,000; consequently it will require considerable time for its realization, as the State is not able to appropriate so much money at one time. However, a begin-

ning has been made, and contracts have been let for two buildings, which are to be ready for occupancy next September. The foundations are being laid for a university of which the State may one day be proud.

DAVID Y. THOMAS.

University of the State of Florida.

[We are glad to have this report of progress. A letter from Mrs. E. H. Sellards, of the University of Florida, printed in The Outlook of July 29 last, must, we think, have removed any misapprehension from the paragraph in question.—The Editors.]

CHILD LABOR AND WOMAN SUF-FRAGE

Having noted with interest the use which The Outlook makes in its issue of February 24 (p. 382) of a portion of my report as Chairman of the Industrial Committee of the National American Woman Suffrage Association, presented to the recent Convention at Baltimore, it occurs to me that you may be disposed to give space for my interpretation of the facts cited.

I am convinced that the enfranchisement of women is indispensable to the solution of the child labor problem, and I cited the conditions existing in Maryland, in New York, and elsewhere, in support of this view. In Maryland, where children work all night as messengers and telegraph boys, and in glassworks, while men and women sleep, women have never voted, and have made but limited use of the right to petition which they possess. The children of Maryland are suffering from this failure of the women of Maryland to protect them.

In Georgia, where no protection is afforded to working children, little girls work in cottonmills all night at the age of six, seven, and eight years. In that State women have used their right of petition five years on behalf of the working children, and have achieved nothing for their protection. Women in Georgia have no vote on any subject.

In Illinois women have used the right of petition with increasing vigilance and energy for more than a generation. There, children

do not work at night, though the largest glass-bottle works in the world are at Alton, Illinois, and the messenger service of Chicago is second only to that of New York City. The effort for the protection of the children in industry in Illinois is, however, a ceaseless, wearying struggle. Only last year, for instance, the appropriation for the State factory inspectors' expenses was cut in half, and the present energetic officer was kept in office only by long-continued protest of women's organizations against his removal.

The amount of exertion required of the disfranchised women of Illinois for the protection of the working children alone is greater than that required of the voting women of Colorado for the performance of

all their political duties.

In the four States in which women vote on all subjects, child labor and illiteracy have ceased to be problems. Nowhere in the industrial world are children so effectively safeguarded in life, limb, health, education, and morals as in Denver, where mothers and teachers unite to keep in office the justly famous Judge Lindsey of the juvenile court, overcoming (with the help of a minority of politically independent fathers) the united efforts of the Republican and the Democratic bosses against him.

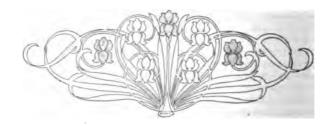
In contrast with the good fortune of the children of Denver is the plight of the halfmillion illiterate children in the thirteen Southern States in which women have no vote and make slight use (if any) of the right

of petition.

In New York City, also, where women have no vote, the young children pay the penalty of the disfranchisement of their mothers and teachers, as is shown by the facts cited by The Outlook (February 24, p. 283).

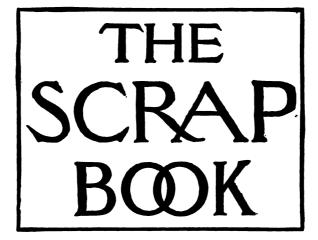
It is largely because these facts and many others like them have come to my attention that I am serving as Chairman of the Industrial Committee of the National American Woman Suffrage Association.

FLORENCE KELLEY, Vice-President N. A. W. S. A. Hull House, Chicago.



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The Outlook

Volume 82

Saturday, March 24, 1906

Number 12

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THE OUTLOOK is a Weekly Newspaper and an Illustrated Monthly Magazine in one. It is published every Saturday—fifty-two issues a year. The fourth issue in each month is an Illustrated Magazine Number, containing about twice as many pages as the regular weekly issue, and many pictures.

PRICE.—The subscription price is Three Dollars a year, payable in advance. Ten cents a copy.

POSTAGE IS PREPAID by the publishers for all subscriptions in the United States, Hawaiian Islands, Philippine Islands, Guam, Porto Rico, Tutuila (Samoa), Shanghai, Canal Zone, Cuba, Canada, and Mexico. For all other countries in the Postal Union add \$1.56 for postage.

CHANGE OF ADDRESS.—When a change of address is ordered, both the new and the old address must be given. The notice should be sent one week before the change is to take effect.

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HOW TO REMIT—Remittances should be sent by Draft on New York, Express-Order, or Money-Order, payable to order of THE OUTLOOK COMPANY. Cash should be sent in Registered Letter.

LETTERS should be addressed:

THE OUTLOOK COMPANY

Chicago Office, 1436 Marquette Building

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The Outlook

SATURDAY, MARCH 24, 1906

The Consular Service

The duty of our Consular Service is to enhance Ameri-

can interests and prestige abroad. In the vast majority of cases these interests are commercial; in certain instances they are diplomatic also. At present the famous, or rather infamous, doctrine, "To the victor belong the spoils," still holds unnecessary sway in consular appointments. It has two inevitable results: first, candidates have too often been appointed, not because of their fitness in character and attainments to represent their country abroad, but because of a particular party service at home; secondly, changes in Presidential administration bring wholesale changes in the Consular Service. As to lack of character, we have seen what has happened when consuls have "found themselves in remote Eastern ports, where there was not much that made life attractive, where there was very little supervision over them, and yet great temptation," to quote President Roosevelt's words last week to the delegates in attendance at the National Consular Reform Convention at Washington. As to lack of attainments, our consuls in general have not been conspicuous by reason of their knowledge of languages, of international law, or even of trade conditions at home and abroad. If unfitness in the appointees and lack of permanency of tenure seem the greatest evils of our present system, a third is found in the haphazard method of payment, whether by salary or fee: most consulates are underpaid; a very few are disproportionately paid. As Mr. Roosevelt says: "We cannot keep the service as high as it should be kept unless we have adequate salaries. Remember that the dearest kind of public servant is a servant who is paid so cheaply that he must render cheap service." Salaries could

have been increased without adding to the cost of the service if, instead of an undeviating fee for authenticating or legalizing invoices, we had a system of graded fees; the foreign producer who sends to us a shipment valued at a hundred dollars pays just the same amount for having his invoices legalized as does a shipper who sends a hundred-thousanddollar shipment. Of course in such an unscientific consular service there is no provision for old-age pensions. of our present consuls, who have been continued in office through Presidential changes, are, because of advanced age, somewhat incapacitated to perform their required duties. Nor is there any system by which consular officers who do not reach a specified grade by the time they have reached a certain age are dropped from the service, or any by which those are dropped whose record for efficiency does not reach a certain standard.

The Consular Service as It Should Be

consular service.

through Senator Lodge, recently sub-

mitted a consular reform bill to Con-

gress which, in its entirety, ought to

pass that body, since it asks, not for a

service; its only excuse is that it grew out of conditions when we were expending all our energies at home. During recent years, however, definite executive efforts have been made towards amelioration. Secretary Blaine tried to secure the appointment of wellequipped men. President Cleveland rendered conspicuous service in providing for the examination of certain candidates, and President Roosevelt an even greater in extending the scope of Mr. Cleveland's order and in systematically purging the No Secretaries of State have been friendlier to reform than Secretaries Hay and Root. The latter,

Ours has thus been

an uneven consular

full, but only for a modest measure of reform. Among other things, it provides for an examination of all candidates for appointment, particularly in connection with their knowledge of commercial affairs and foreign languages; a recall within one year of every officer now in the consular service for the purpose of re-examination to ascertain his fitness to remain in the service; a classification and grading of all consular positions, defined by the salaries paid; a payment of all fees into the United States Treasury; a power to promote consuls on merit from lower to higher grades, and to transfer consuls from one post to another in the same grade without making new nominations to Congress; and the appointment of consular inspectors, whose duty should be to visit biennially every consulate. The Senate, eliminating the clauses providing for examination and promotion, passed the rest of the bill. The House Committee has eliminated the clause providing for transference. While chagrined at this loss, Senator Lodge declared to the National Consular Reform Convention last week, in part in the language of The Outlook on the same subject some time ago: "I accept half a loaf when I cannot get a whole one. Let us get this bill through if we can, and then we can provide for further improvement as the service develops." Representative Adams, the champion of consular reform in the House, urged the Convention not to expect ideal legislation. but to do two things immediately: to bring power enough to bear on the Speaker so that he will allow the bill to come up, and individually to bring pressure on the Representatives. Secretary Root also advised in like manner. cordingly, the Convention in a body, after visiting the President, called upon Speaker Cannon, and put itself on record by adopting, among others, the following resolution:

It is the opinion of the constituent bodies of this Convention that the consular service of the United States should be recognized as provided for in Senate bill 1,345, introduced by Senator Lodge December 11,1905. Every feature of that bill is, in the judgment of the business organizations of the country, most essential and in harmony with 'the growing need of the United States.

The city of Chicago Chicago's Great won an important vic-Traction Victory tory before the Supreme Court of the United States last week when that tribunal handed down a decision holding the so-called ninetynine-year act not to bear the interpretation placed upon it by the companies. This act, passed in 1865 by the Illinois Legislature, extended from twenty-five to ninety-nine years the corporate life of the Chicago City Railway, Chicago West Division, and North Chicago City Railway companies, operating in the south, west, and north divisions, respectively, The act also of the city of Chicago. contained a clause extending "during the life hereof" the contracts or licenses to occupy the streets of Chicago made a few years before by the City Council for twenty-five-year periods. This clause was understood at the time to extend the life of the franchises to occupy the streets from twenty-five to ninety-nine years, and was vetoed by Governor Oglesby for that reason, and passed over The companies have always the veto. contended that such was the effect of the legislation, and their contention was squarely upheld by Judge Grosscup. The city, on the other hand, has steadily refused to recognize the validity of the ninety-nine-year act, and the companies, as a matter of fact, have never rested their right to operate on that act alone, but have always had, in addition, Council authority. In 1883, when the twentyfive-year grants made in 1858 should have expired according to the terms of the Council ordinance, the Council passed blanket twenty-year extension ordinances, with the stipulation that neither the companies nor the city thereby waived the right at the expiration of the period to claim that the act was or was not valid, as suited the interests of the respective parties. With the expiration of the twenty-year period in 1903 the ninety-nine-year act again became a live issue.

The Effect on the Street Railways
in the west and north divisions of the city, was placed in the hands of re-

ceivers named by Judge Grosscup, of the Federal Circuit Court, on a creditors' bill, on the petition of persons believed to represent New York holdings of traction stock. Then began the litigation to determine the rights of the companies, which resulted in the decision of last week. Judge Grosscup held that the clause on which the decision turned could have no meaning unless it was intended to extend for ninety-nine years the franchises of the companies. The Supreme Court did not pretend to interpret the clause or give it meaning. That body merely said that the clause "during the life hereof" as used in the act was ambiguous; that corporate privileges can be held to be granted as against public rights only when conferred in plain and explicit terms. Therefore the act in question merely extended the corporate life of the companies, and did not operate to lengthen their franchise rights in the streets. In other words, the men who secured the legislation of 1865, in their desire to accomplish their object without clearly stating it, failed through timidity to make the language strong enough to satisfy the Supreme Court that the act really did encompass the purpose intended. The decision ought to have a healthy influence in promoting clearness of statement in all future legislation of this sort. Notice has been served that corporations desiring important privileges must secure the same in language so plain that the people can readily understand the nature of the grant conferred. Financiers had attached much importance to a legal opinion of the late Benjamin Harrison that the interpretation placed upon the act by the companies was the correct one; therefore they were not prepared for the decision given by the Supreme Court. This ruling deprives the companies of their most important weapon in their fight with the city, and the prices of traction securities naturally dropped rapidly on the stock The City Railway was not a markets. party to the litigation, but the decision, of course, is applicable to that company. Under the Court's ruling the companies together have only about two hundred miles left, the franchises to which in no case run longer than ten years. This is

a disjointed mileage, mostly for outlying lines. The franchises for about five hundred miles of single-track road have expired or are terminable by city purchase, so that the city now is in an excellent position to dominate the situation. the north division the grants have expired absolutely. In the case of most of the south and west side lines, under the terms of the original ordinances, the companies have the right to operate until the city shall elect to purchase the tangible property at an arbitrated valuation. Naturally, the companies will be allowed to go on operating by sufferance for a considerable time yet, as they have been doing heretofore as to a number of lines the grants for which expired by limitation on July 30, 1903.

The Dalrymple Report on Municipal Ownership

full text of Mr. James Dalrymple's report to Mayor Dunne, of Chicago, on municipal ownership of street railways, made public last week by the Chicago City Council, does not alter the opinion expressed editorially in The

A reading of the

Outlook in the issue for the 24th of June, 1905, which is based on the reports of interviews with Mr. Dalrymple at the time of his visit. What Mr. Dalrymple has to say, both in the original report and in the supplementary notes, concerning the working of municipal ownership and operation in Glasgow is of undoubted value. In telling what this Scottish city has done, and, in particular, in reporting the financial results of its municipal undertaking, Mr. Dalrymple speaks as an expert; but in expressing his views as to the fitness of American municipalities for establishing either municipal ownership or municipal operation of street railways Mr. Dalrymple speaks, not as an expert, but as an observer. As regards the practical results of ownership and operation in Glasgow, Mr. Dalrymple makes it clear that the undertaking is an undoubted success. He also makes it clear that the methods in vogue there are different in detail from those which could in all probability be adopted in

this country. His suggestions for the

organization of a department to operate street railways deserve careful consider-They range all the way from the suggestions for the organization of the executive staff, and devices for insuring the payment of fare, to suggestions on arrangements for the comfort, safety, and insurance of the employees. His suggestion, on the one hand, for the policy which Chicago ought to adopt should be considered with great caution. As is indicated in previous paragraphs, the situation with regard to the franchises of the street railway in that city has just been changed by a court decision. Moreover, Mr. Dalrymple's judgment as to the fitness of American cities for municipal ownership cannot have the weight that his statements as an expert on the Glasgow undertaking necessarily have. It is, besides, noteworthy that Mr. Dalrymple neglects to make any distinction between municipal ownership and municipal operation. Mr. Dalrymple's objections, however they are to be regarded, are directed against municipal operation in American cities, not against municipal ownership. It is to be remembered that the issue in Chicago, as in other cities of the United States, is one not of municipal operation but of municipal ownership.

Governor Pennypacker's Veto of Railway Probing Resolutions Governor Pennypacker, of Pennsylvania, has vetoed both reso-

lutions passed by the recent special session of the Legislature of that Commonwealth directing an inquiry into the affairs and relations to coal-mining of the railroads of that State. The Garner resolution provided for a special commission to inquire into the affairs of the Philadelphia and Reading Railway Company and the Philadelphia and Reading Coal and Iron Company; while the Creasy resolution directed the Attorney-General of Pennsylvania to investigate the relations of the railroads of that State to the coal-mining industry, in view of the constitutional prohibition aiming to prevent railroads from engaging either directly or indirectly in coalmining. The Governor's reason for the veto is to the effect that the subjects

treated in these resolutions were not germane to the objects expressed in his call for the special session. The adoption of the resolutions by the Legislature has served a useful purpose, however, in calling to the attention of the public important facts bearing on the relation of the hard-coal-carrying railroads to the anthracite industry, which are likely to have a reactive effect upon the coming regular session of the Pennsylvania Legis lature and may result in action along this line, unless the investigation now in progress under the direction of the Inter-State Commerce Commission attains the object A general summary of the more important facts dealing with this problem was presented in the Philadelphia " Public Ledger" of March 5. The writer of the "Ledger's" article points out the constitutional provisions in question, and, in clearly explaining the intricate corporate organization of the "Reading system," shows how, in the opinion of that writer, the constitutional enactments of a sovereign State are set at naught in letter as well as in the spirit and intent of the will of the people. One of the most telling and convincing points in this article is summarized as follows: " As President of the Philadelphia and Reading Railway Company, Mr. Baer makes the rates for the transportation over his railroad of the coal mined by the Philadelphia and Reading Coal and Iron Company, of which he is also Presi-As President of the Central Railroad of New Jersey, Mr. Baer makes the rates for the transportation over that railroad of the coal mined by the Lehigh and Wilkesbarre Coal Company, of which he is also President. In other words, Mr. Baer as President of the coal-mining companies receives rates from himself, although under the legal distinction as President of the railroad companies." All four of the above-mentioned companies, as well as more than seventy-five other distinct corporations, are owned by the Reading Company through the possession of a majority and in some cases of all of their capital stock. The "Ledger" article also shows that the Reading system is controlled, through ownership of stock, by the Pennsylvania Railroad which latter also controls the

more important soft-coal-carrying railroads, such as the Baltimore and Ohio, the Chesapeake and Ohio, the Norfolk and Western, and others. In view of the statement of the writer of the "Ledger" article that "through corporate creatures of the State there has grown up a 'system' which not only controls absolutely the present output of hard coal, but has within its grasp almost the entire future supply of anthracite in Pennsylvania, thus permitting a small group of men to levy a tribute upon this and succeeding generations through every ton of coal consumed," The Outlook is of the opinion that the investigation of the Inter-State Commerce Commission into the relation of the railroads to coal-mining is one of the most important public duties ever committed to an investigating body. We hope that the Commission will be able to suggest to the Federal Government some practical way out of the present intolerable situation of corporate taxation of the people without their representation and consent. Important results bearing upon the general situation are expected to flow out of the reopening of the case of William Randolph Hearst vs. the anthracite-carrying railroads, which was postponed about a year ago to await action on issues involved in a suit before the United States Supreme Court, and which case has now been set for a hearing in Washington on March 29.

8

In the account in The

Outlook of the en-

The Battle with the Moro Outlaws

gagement in the island of Iolo between United States troops and a band of Moro outlaws who were defying the authority both of the Sultan of Jolo and that of the United States, the fact that the Moro loss of about six hundred killed included many women and children was stated without comment for the very good reason that at the time of writing no detailed and satisfactory account of this matter had reached this country. It is perfectly natural that the news of the killing by American soldiers of women and children should be received with profound regret, but the character of the American soldier and the purposes and methods of our Government in the East are such that to condemn unsparingly without knowledge. (as was done by some newspapers and individuals) was on the face of it reckless and unreasonable. We have now General Wood's own account of the matter. sent in response to the cable request of the War Department. General Wood points out that these Moros were not only outlaws against every Government, but were Mohammedan fanatics of the most extreme kind, who believed that death at the hands of the infidel means immediate paradise. They neither gave nor received quarter, but fought to the last extremity in their intrenched stronghold. Even when American nurses and surgeons attempted to aid the wounded Moros, the latter, at the last gasp, tried to kill their rescuers. With this band were a number of women and children. eral Wood's statement as to the death of the women and children is as follows:

I was present throughout practically entire action, and inspected top of crater after action was finished. Am convinced no man, woman, or child was wantonly killed. A considerable number of women and children were killed in the fight—number unknown, for the reason that they were actually in the works when assaulted, and were unavoidably killed in the fierce hand-to-hand fighting which took place in the narrow inclosed spaces. Moro women wore trousers, and were dressed and armed much like the men, and charged with them. The children were in many cases used by the men as shields while charging troops.

These incidents are much to be regretted, but it must be understood that the Moros, one and all, were fighting not only as enemies, but as religious fanatics, believing paradise to be their immediate reward if killed in action with Christians. They apparently desired that none be saved. Some of our men (one a hospital steward) were cut up while giving assistance to wounded Moros, by the wounded and by those feigning death for the purpose of getting this vengeance. I personally ordered assistance given to wounded Moros, and that food and water should be sent them and medical attendance. In addition, friendly Moros were at once directed to proceed to the mountain for this purpose.

General Wood further pointed out that in all former actions against the Moros the latter have been begged again and again "to fight as men and keep women and children out of it," and that in this case it was impossible for men who were fighting for their lives at close quarters to distinguish who would be injured by their fire. In transmitting General Wood's despatch to the President, Secretary Taft declares that it shows most clearly that the unfortunate loss of life of men, women, and children among the Moros wholly unavoidable. President Roosevelt evidently holds the same view, for in replying to Secretary Taft he says that General Wood's answer is entirely satisfactory; and as to the military operation itself, adds that "the officers and enlisted men have performed a most gallant and soldierly feat that places added credit on the American army."

æ

The establishment by the Forestry in Federal Government of forestry reserves has been attended with a well-nigh unanimously favorable feeling on the part of the citizens of the States affected. Here and there, however, as in Minnesota and Idaho, misconceptions and misunderstandings have arisen. In the latter State these have had as their spokesman United States Senator Heyburn, who in the Senate has now formally stated the grounds for his discontent. He claims that vast agricultural and mineral lands have been included in the forest reserves to the detriment of farmers, miners, and prospectors; that the forest service claims discretion as to whether land is more valuable for mineral, agricultural, or forestry purposes (this, we would interpolate, is only until evidence to the contrary is produced); that the Land Department circular prevents prospectors and miners from exercising their rights; that cattlemen have requested the Government to make forest reserves out of land purely for grazing purposes for their personal benefit, and that forest reserves are being created that have no forests in them in order to facilitate grazing and grazing privileges to those fortunate enough to get contracts for them. plying to his colleague, Senator Dubois, of Idaho, declared that not one-tenth of one per cent. of the fourteen million acres now or hereafter to be in forest reserves is agricultural land; that there is nothing to prevent a prospector from going anywhere on a forest reserve, for the Land

Department circular applied to miners and not to prospectors; that no reserve has been created out of grazing grounds for the purpose of privately benefiting cattlemen, but that the Idaho graziers, except perhaps a few large sheep-owners, favor the reserves, because by the system the number of permits is held down so that the range is not destroyed by over-grazing but is preserved from one year to another; that one company alone owns half a million acres of the best white pine timber in the world, nearly all located in northern Idaho, and will cut off the timber, destroying the forests which the people of the State would preserve for themselves and posterity; that in southern Idaho the limit of water supply has been reached, for there is not enough water to irrigate the lands where ditches have been built; that forest reserves are absolutely necessary to conserve the water supply; that the design of the forest reserve is to make it easy for the citizens of its region to get timber, to mine, and to do business on the reserve, thus using and at the same time preserving the forest; and that this policy is especially applicable to a State in which during the past half-century one-third of the forest has been burned, destroying four hundred million dollars' worth of lumber. The people of the whole country are interested with those of Idaho in the matter, for the main spur of the Rocky Mountains passes through the State and forms a watershed with evident importance to all our Western country.

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A bill is pending in The Joint Eastern Congress, calling for Forest Reserve Bill an appropriation of three million dollars, to establish two reserves in the East-the White Mountain and the Appalachian Reserves. The appropriation is to be expended in the ratio of two for the Southern to one for the Northern. The advantages to be obtained by creating these two reserves have been often stated in The Outlook. The objections raised by some Congressmen, however, are: 1. That the States themselves should take the necessary action. 2. That the policy on the part

of the Federal Government of appropriations to the several States for this purpose opens a well to which there is no bottom. 3. That the Western reservations were set aside from Government lands, but the Eastern reservations would involve appropriations for their purchase. 4. That the condition of the Treasury does not permit this expenditure at pres-5. That the purchase of land by the Federal Government in the several States involves a new policy, and Constitutional questions of States' rights. We would therefore restate the infinitely preponderating advantages. The objecting Congressmen need to realize: 1. That no effective system can be carried out by seven or eight State Legislatures acting independently, nor can the less wealthy agricultural States, having no large cities, afford to set aside large portions of land to protect the waterflow in other States. 2. That in reserving the watersheds in the White Mountains and the Southern Appalachian Mountains, as proposed, together with the Western reserves already established, the headwaters of the leading rivers in the country flowing into other States are covered. These two reservations meet the case as regards waterflow. 3. That setting aside a reservation in the West withdraws the land and timber from sale, and affects the Treasury as directly as an appropriation. The cost falls upon the country, and there is no difference in principle. 4. That the Treasury is in as good condition now as at any time. There is always the cry of insufficient funds. The measure will pass this session if Congressmen feel that the people want it. 5. That the Federal Government holds, not only the National parks and forest reservations in nearly every one of the Western States a policy that is no longer "new"—but also military and other reservations in the East, like those at West Point and Gettysburg. Each of the Eastern States in which the proposed reservations will be located has passed laws enabling the United States to purchase lands for forest purposes within its borders. The general welfare clause of the Constitution was inserted in order to cover such cases, in which action by the separate State Legislatures cannot be effect-

ive. The need for prompt action is very great, as will be seen by a reference to Mr. Ayres's article on "The Forest Primeval" published in this issue. Through the advance in prices every year of delay will cost a million dollars more in money, besides the increasing destruction from floods and erosion and the inexcusable waste of timber. every one to whom this matter appeals (and why should it not be of universal appeal?) write to his Representative and Senators urging that the reservations in the White Mountains and the Southern Appalachian Mountains be established at this session of Congress.

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The Supreme Court Responsibility for of Kansas has re-Drunkards' Crimes cently announced an interesting decision in an unusual case involving the responsibility of liquorsellers for crimes committed by drunk-The case, which was appealed ards. from the district court of Atchison County, was brought under the provisions of a statute permitting a suit for damages to lie against any person who shall, "by selling, bartering, or giving intoxicating liquors, have caused the intoxication" which resulted in injury to person or property or the loss of means of support. One Sunday in 1900 three men visited a brewery on the outskirts of Atchison and became intoxicated on liquor furnished from it. In a fight that followed one of them killed the other two. He was convicted of murder and was sent to the Kansas penitentiary under sentence of death, which, in accordance with the Kansas custom, means imprisonment for life. His wife brought suit for \$5,000 against the owners of the brewery to reimburse her for the loss of her means of support through her husband's imprisonment. The decision of the district court was in her favor. In upholding the action of the lower court and sustaining the validity of the law the Supreme Court says: "It was known to the Legislature. as it is to all other persons, that the use of intoxicating liquors as a beverage makes drunkards; that an intoxicated person is likely to inflict injury on others at the cost of his liberty, possibly his

life; that he habitually neglects his business and family; that the harm resulting from the excessive use of intoxicating liquors always falls most pitilessly upon the dependents of the user, not infrequently pauperizing himself and family. The idea naturally suggested itself to the Legislature that if the sellers of intoxicants were made liable to those who should sustain injury to person or property or means of support by an intoxicated person, or in consequence of intoxication, the hazard would be so great that fewer persons would engage in the business, and those who would engage in it would exercise more caution. Legislature, therefore, gave a cause of action and created a liability for these injuries where none existed at common law." It will be observed that, although the liquor traffic in Kansas is prohibited by a constitutional provision, the State Legislature nevertheless recognized its existence and sought to impose additional restrictions upon it through the statute just cited.

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College Men and City Government

One of the most promising signs of improvement in public life is

the change which seems to be taking place in the political interest of college students. The character of this change is indicated by the organization last week of the Intercollegiate League of Civic The meeting in New York at Clubs. which this League was organized was attended by delegates representing thirteen colleges. Later the college men visited President Roosevelt, and in a conference of two hours had the benefit of his enthusiasm and experience. movement has had the aid of the President from its inception. The clubs themselves are of recent origin. Until lately political clubs in the colleges were of two categories: those which were devoted to some political propaganda, as, for instance, the promotion of tariff reform; and those, necessarily ephemeral, devoted to the support of the Presidential candidates of various parties. Neither class of organizations has any very intimate relation to the college student's real interest; the one was hardly more than a badge which announced its members' more or less immature economic convictions, the other little more than an opportunity for participating in torchlight processions. These newclubs, on the other hand, are formed for the study of municipal government and for the encouragement of participation in municipal affairs. Groups of college men have already lent their influence to movements on behalf of efficient city government; the last Jerome campaign in New York, for instance, was greatly benefited by the college men who gave their serv-Moreover, the study of sociology and kindred subjects in the colleges is equipping college students for practical participation in municipal affairs. The old tendency of college life to be apart from the world, to be in fact a life in a world of itself, is diminishing, and through college settlements and other mediums college undergraduates are more than ever concerned with the world of men in which the colleges are placed. For generations English university life has been a preparation for participation in English public life, and as Parliamentary government in England penetrates the common life of the people very much more than the legislative forms of government in this country, the political experiments of English undergraduates have been in Parliamentary form. In the United States the situation is different. Here democracy seems to find its most obstinate difficulties in the cities; and yet it is the city government or other forms of local government which affect most intimately the life of the American people. This, therefore, is a most wholesome and promising movement that is taking place in the colleges. It is not unreasonable to hope that by means of it men of intellectual equipment and wide interests, such as college men ought to be, will soon be rendering to municipal democracy in America a service similar in proportion to that which they have rendered in the history of Parliamentary government in England.

Susan B Anthony
The death of Miss Susan B. Anthony, at her home in Rochester on Tuesday of last week, ended a career of extraordinary length and sustained energy. Born in

Adams, Massachusetts, in 1820, of a Quaker family, Miss Anthony began her "schooling" in a little district school in Washington County, New York. Her inability to learn "long division" led her father to set apart a room over his store for a private school, employ his own teachers, and select the pupils. this school Miss Anthony continued until she was fifteen years old, when she herself began teaching, at a salary of \$1.50 a week and her board. She was at that time a Puritan of the Puritans, and in a letter to a friend expressed her indignation that President Van Buren should attend two theaters in New York, "encouraging one of the most heinous crimes or practices with which our country is disgracing herself, and afterward we find him rioting at the wine-table the whole livelong night." The crudity of judgment of early youth and the lack of perspective which prompted some of Miss Anthony's early ethical opinions vielded later to a larger knowledge of men and a broader conception of life. In 1852 she was teaching in Rochester, and had already plunged with heart and soul into the temperance and anti-slavery movements. In 1848 the first Woman's Rights Convention met in Rochester, and Miss Anthony's parents became enthusiastic supporters of the movement. She was in full sympathy with the demand of equal civil rights for women, but not yet convinced of the need of suffrage. On a visit at Seneca Falls in 1852 she made the acquaintance of Mrs. Elizabeth Cady Stanton, who was to be her lifelong friend; later she met Miss Lucy Stone, and her public life dates from that year. In the summer of 1852 she canvassed the State as an advocate of the women's temperance movement, and in the autumn of the same year she attended for the first time the Woman's Rights Convention at Syracuse, and became a convinced advocate of that movement. Her first efforts were in the lines of practical amelioration of the condition of women, and she was largely instrumental in securing the passing of a law through the Legislature of New York providing that married women should be entitled to the wages they earned and to an equal guardian-

ship of their children. During this period she dressed in the "bloomer" fashion, but had the good sense and good taste to discard it later. In 1858 she made a report in a teachers' convention in favor of co-education. She was an earnest anti-slavery speaker in the years before the war, and during its continuance devoted herself chiefly to the Women's Loyal League. In season and out of season, wherever opportunity offered, she agitated in favor of woman's suffrage, and proposed bills and amendments and presented petitions to various legislatures. A small fortune which she received in 1882 was largely spent in the publication of a "History of Woman Suffrage" in four immense volumes, which she placed without charge in twelve hundred public libraries and presented in great numbers to colleges, schools, and influential persons. publication of these books involved not only a great expenditure of money, but an immense amount of labor, to both of which Miss Anthony made unstinted contribution.

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Miss Anthony has been. Her Personality on the whole, the most prominent leader in the woman's suffrage movement, and has been before the public a full half-century. She has spoken in almost all parts of the United States, and until within a very few months retained her vigor of body, and until the end her vigor of mind. For many years she passed through a constant storm of ridicule and sometimes of abuse; and her angular figure and face lent themselves easily to caricature. She looked the typical woman suffragist of the popular imagination of forty years ago; she was, on the contrary, a woman of a great deal of charm of nature. Vivacious, overflowing with humor, kindly, and singularly unselfish, her hand, her means, and her thought were always at the command of the cause she loved and the people in whom she was interested. Her life was a long devotion; and, whatever may be thought of the cause to which she gave the greater part of it, no one can question its entire consecration, its penetration by the highest ethical impulses, its unfailing courage, and its unshaken faith. As an advocate of an unpopular cause she was indefatigably earnest and persuasive, appealing to reason rather than using gifts of eloquence, in which she was easily surpassed by many of her co-workers. She was quick and adroit in statement and always in command of her intellectual resources. She never seemed to harbor any resentment toward those who heaped ridicule upon her; and she had a delightful way of recalling, with touches of humor, experiences which must have been very disagreeable at the time. She was a born individualist, quite willing to stand alone, and perhaps preferring to do so; but she was the servant of her ideas and the trustee of all her gifts. That she was mistaken in the main contention of her later years The Outlook believes: that she was influential in removing many disabilities from women and opening new fields for their activity is beyond question.

The twenty-fifth anniver-For the Family sary of the National and the Home League for the Protection of the Family is a fit occasion for comment on the effectiveness of judicious, quiet perseverance in a good cause, though for a time inadequately seconded. It gives encouragement to all who see that they must begin in a small way, if they begin at all to do good, and must " learn to labor and to wait" while trying to make things grow. The League has called no mass-meetings. By personal communication, by correspondence, by lectures, reviews, and monographs, it has endeavored to cultivate public opinion, and to inspire a reaction against the evils that menace the family and the home. It now has much to show for Many States have bettered their laws of marriage and divorce. Independent movements have sprung up to second its appeal for uniformity of legislation on these subjects throughout the country. At the call of the Governor of Pennsylvania, commissioners from three-fourths of the States met at Washington last February and agreed upon the terms of a uniform law of divorce. The churches also have responded to the

influence of the League by a movement, embodied in a committee representing fourteen Protestant denominations, to promote unity of attitude toward the marriage of divorced persons. Viewing the Family as the social unit, the League has led the way in pressing upon the church and the school the need of attention to the home as the great factor in social problems. The Home Department of the Sunday-school is of its origination. Such work has given the League international reputation as a source of sound knowledge and judicious counsel. Yet its resources thus far have been pitifully meager, supplying little more than an \$1,800 salary for its Secretary, Dr. S. W. Dike, of Auburndale, Massachusetts, the brain of the whole movement, whose record has won him high rank among American and European sociologists. Its quarter-century anniversary deserves to be marked by an endowment that shall make its continuance secure and its activity wider.

The Carnegie Institution The Carnegie is a university in which Institution there are no students and in which all the faculties are investigators. From its Year-Book of 1905, just published, an idea may be gained of the wide scope and great prospective value of the researches which are being conducted in this university of scientific workers. Its grants have been divided into three classes, in aid, first, of larger projects, requiring continuous work, under the direct charge of the Institutionten such are now well under way; secondly, smaller projects, for which thus far some three hundred grants have been made to individual experts; and, thirdly, tentative investigations, a limited number of which have been allowed in the hope of developing exceptional abilities in some investigators. Last year it published twenty volumes of reports of The present policy of the Institution is to provide for large and continuous investigations, which might not otherwise be carried out, rather than to give a great number of individual grants. The reports for the last year show that the work undertaken is of wide range

and along many different lines of scientific promise. It also shows how the purely scientific and theoretical line of investigation runs parallel with the line of utility, and that at almost any moment points of contact may be made between them. Among the larger projects we notice the work planned for the study of plants which are fitted to live in the deserts, together with the aid to be given for five years in furtherance of Mr. Luther Burbank's already fruitful experiments in horticulture. The practical value to be expected from these plans may be judged by the statement in Mr. Burbank's report that already some large groups of cacti have been developed which "produce enormous quantities of nutritious food for all kinds of stock and poultry;" and a great number of new varieties of plants are under cultivation, such as 10,000 new apples, 1,000 new grape-vines, and 10,000 new hybrid seedling potatoes. Researches also relating to the formation and constituents of rocks and metals promise valuable returns. Special interest attaches to the new studies concerning nutrition, to the aid of which this Institution is now contributing, and which are of important psychological value, affecting as they do the economic problem of the support of the population, and also having personal relation to the working power and health of the individual. The Institution is also conducting special inquiries in economics and sociology. Of more immediate theoretical interest is the work initiated in the biological laboratories which the Institution has established, and in its provis ions for studies in physics, as well as in its solar observatory at Mount Wilson, California. It has also equipped a vessel for observations in the North Pacific Ocean on terrestrial magnetism—the beginning of a plan of importance for a magnetic survey of the whole world. Some of the studies which are thus being promoted in different but closely related fields will push further back the boundaries of human knowledge, and will enable us to understand better the factors and laws of evolution and to peer still further into the wonderful mysteries of the beginnings and elements of things.

In providing for this great amount of original research in these and other departments of investigation, the Carnegie Institution, under the broad and farsighted plans of its trustees, already is proving itself to be a great benefaction, not only to science, but to progress in the mastery of nature for man's welfare.

The Pan-American and Hague Conferences

The third Pan-American Congress is to con-

vene next July at Rio de Janeiro, the Brazilian capital. The various committees, composed of diplomats to this country from the different Governments of the Americas, and our own representatives, have about completed the programme and rules for the conference. The list of delegates from this country to Rio has lately been announced. The head of the delegation will be the Hon. William I. Buchanan, formerly Minister to Argentina, and our first Minister to Panama. Mr. Buchanan was Director-General of the Pan-American Exposition at Buffalo, and was also one of the delegates to the second Pan-American Congress (held four years ago in the City of Mexico). He represents much ability and experience in dealing directly with the Spanish and Portuguese nations of South and Central America. The other members of the delegation are President Edmund J. James, of the University of Illinois—formerly Professor of Politics at the University of Pennsylvania, Professor of Public Administration at the University of Chicago, and President of Northwestern University; Dr. Leo S. Rowe, present Professor of Politics at the University of Pennsylvania; James S. Harlan, at one time Attorney-General of Porto Rico; and Señor Larrinaga, resident Commissioner in Congress from Porto Rico to the United States, formerly chief engineer of provincial works, and a member of the Porto Rican House of Delegates. a personnel should be able to do much at Rio in strengthening and cementing the ties between our own and the other Governments south of us. The secretary of the delegation is to be Charles Ray Dean, at present Chief of the Bureau

of Appointments in the State Department. Mr. Dean was secretary to the American counsel in the Venezuela preferential treatment case before the Hague Tribunal. To the forthcoming Conference at The Hague the American delegates are to be Messrs. Choate and Porter, American Ambassadors to London and Paris, respectively; Judge Rose, of Little Rock, Arkansas; Brigadier-General George B. Davis, Judge-Advocate-General of the Army; and Captain Charles S. Sperry, President of the Naval War College.

In 1873 the American Gov-Porto Rican ernment took off the import Coffee tax from coffee. Much of the coffee consumed here comes from Brazil; only a very little from Porto The inhabitants of that island would gladly increase their export of this product. When they hear that their coffee is not as good as the Brazilian, they reply that we do not understand how to grind and roast theirs; that if we did so, we would like it as well. Porto Ricans have largely lost their once thriving European coffee trade because, as they say, they are now subservient to American laws, and, consequently, the American Government should counterbalance this loss by restoring their trade. It is impossible to substitute sugar-cane planting for coffee; the latter is necessarily the island's chief staple and the natural foundation for its prosperity, for it is produced in the mountainous country (where cane cannot be cultivated), and is the main crop of the many small farmers of the interior, as it requires no costly machinery for preparation. soon as it is picked it can be sold green in the berry to neighbors having some kind of machinery more or less perfect. The restoration of the coffee trade can be brought about, declares Señor Larrinaga, the Porto Rican delegate in Congress, by a measure which would also develop coffee production in our Hawaiian and Philippine possessions, where like climatic, agricultural, and industrial conditions exist. The force which, he says, would do all this is, as may be suspected, a negative one—namely, the reimposition of an import duty on Brazilian or other

foreign coffees. This may or may not be a wise course. Like most tariff protection, it would be taxation of the many for the benefit of the few. But if we as a Nation are to continue to be protectionists, here is a chance to be logically consistent and at the same time to offer commercial preference to our insular possessions. Politically, too, the more or less justified grumblings from the Porto Ricans (as to their lack of settled conditions in general and in particular as to the Upper House of their Legislature) would, we think, be considerably lessened by greater attention paid by Congress, under any circumstances, to the island's industrial and commercial problems.

Not even the José María de Pereda modern French school of romancers and essayists is more interesting than is the present Spanish school. Of the latter one of the foremost representatives has lately passed away, at the age of seventy-five—José María de Pereda. He died in his beloved Santander, the city and country which he had immortalized in "La Abeja Montañesa " and in his " Escenas Montañesas," published four decades agothey were forerunners of the best of Flaubert's and Zola's work. A mountaineer by birth and environment. Pereda's profession was at first that of a civil engineer; in politics he was a Carlist and in religion an ultramontane. As a novelist he has been reproached with picturing local types too exclusively, but his critics lose sight of the fact that, while the Pereds types may be individually local, they are universal as types of a broad human nature, essentially the same the world As a stylist he combined in literature something of what has been done in painting by the naturalism of a Teniers together with the more nervous virility of a Sargent. Among Pereda's best-known novels are "Sotileza," "El Buey Suelto," "Los Hombres de pró," and its continuation in "Don Gonzalo;" finally, probably the ripest fruit of his genius, "Pedro Sánchez." All are books of realistic fidelity in the portrayal of his countrymen and women by one who had equal love for them and appreciation of them. In him there was always here a touch of Balzac, there of Dickens, but ever the individual impress of one of the most original interpreters of North Spanish life whom literature has yet known.

A Lenten Meditation

And when he had overcome the temptation to feed himself in a moment of need. instead of making ready, by the dedication of his power, to break bread for the world, the Christ found himself face to face with another of those suggestions which test men like fire: "Thou hast power above that of thy fellows: use it for its own sake; cast thyself down, that angels may appear and bear thee up so that nothing can harm thee." In the vast loneliness the solitary figure was guarded by invisible protectors waiting to do his bidding; the mysterious world of hidden forces was at his command: he had but to speak and heaven would be ringed with servitors, and the unseen rivers of power, pouring silently through the veins of the earth, would sweep toward him to do his bidding. intoxication of that moment no man has ever entered: for while many have striven in later years to do those works of wonder which are called miracles, their achievements, by their own report, have been but faint and far imitations of those mighty works which followed fast upon his way through life and burst into a sudden splendor when the darkness of the grave engulfed him. That mysterious knowledge or command of the secret things of nature which men and women have eagerly sought after was suddenly his possession without thought or effort or putting forth of will. The child born in the manger knew himself king; without visible crown or scepter, far from the pomp of enthronement, he was clothed with a power of which the imperial authority of Cæsar was but a faint and shadowy symbol.

Inthat moment of incredible revelation, when the forces of the world were thrust into his hand, came the impulse to use them for his own pleasure, to play with them in the wilderness that he might please himself with the sense of his divinity.

The temptation which the Christ put aside in that hour of deep and clear vision came again and again to his chosen disciples and to the multitudes that thronged about him, and they fell easy victims to the illusion which he pierced. Children that they were in knowledge of the things of the spirit, they craved the manifestation of his command over material things, the signs and wonders upon which the lesser teachers often lean for authority, the mere magic which delights the curious and bewilders the ignorant and lies wholly outside the realm of spiritual influence. Others have sought eagerly, by meditation, seclusion, fasting, and prayer, for this power to astonish, confuse, and overpower the multitude; the Christ turned away from it in the hour when he became aware of its possession, and shunned the use of it when crowds clamored for its display. The miraculous vitality flowed from him as an effluence of his sinless life; he healed as he passed by, almost without the consciousness that virtue had gone out of him.

The power to do the works which men call miracles will never come to those who seek it or are eager to use it; it can come only to those who have been so purified in the fire of temptation that they are indifferent to every form of influence save the highest, and turn with horror from the curiosity, whether vulgar or ignorant, which craves a sign instead of a truth, and the power to astonish rather than the power to lift and purify. It is not by taking thought, by seeking knowledge, by occult processes in the hands of a few, that men may again work miracles; but by such purity, nobility, unselfishness, and consecration that the love of admiration, the thirst for applause, the care for the awe of those who are bewildered but not regenerated, has been burned out of the nature as by fire. To wish to work miracles is to be unable to work them; to cease to think about them in passionate pursuit of spiritual perfection would be the first step toward the power, by pure effluence of vitality, to open blind eyes, unstop deaf ears, and call the dead back from the graves in which they sleep.

The Christ not only put the tempta-

tion to use this wonderful power for his pleasure behind him, but he lived so constantly in the presence of his Father that he saw on all sides the divine in the human. No rags hid from his eyes the divinity of the men and women who crossed his path. He pierced all disguises, and saw that they were children who had lost their way and were wandering from the Father's house, but were still within reach of his voice, within the circle of his love. To raise the dead was a wonderful manifestation of his authority; but to see the soul of good in the woman who had defiled herself, the power of resurrection into holiness of the man who had buried himself in sins and iniquities, was a wonder the beauty and heavenly fragrance of which had never come within the dreams of men before his voice was heard, saying not only, "Arise, take up thy bed and walk," but, "Thy sins be forgiven thee."

The Situation in China

American relations with China are not yet understood, nor is their importance appreciated, by the great mass of Americans. Many other questions are now uppermost in the public mind which are of far less moment than the feeling of China towards Americans and the future relations of that empire to this country. The situation is still confused, for the empire is vast, has little organic unity, and only a rudimentary race feeling which has been violently disturbed by the events of the last five years, and is coming out of a long sleep with much agitation and many conflicting ideas. Readers of The Outlook will not overlook Dr. Arthur Smith's important contribution on another page; to which a few statements may be added with some confidence.

The present agitation against foreigners is not directed at the missionaries—certainly not at the American and English missionaries. While, in local outbreaks and as the result here and there of local enmity, missionaries may be attacked, and, in the event of any outbreak of violence against foreigners as foreigners which should take on large

dimensions, missionaries would undoubtedly suffer, there is no widespread antagonism to the missionary. On the contrary, there is a growing appreciation of his disinterestedness, capacity, and service. The Chinese are not a dull people. Even the lowest classes, in spite of traditional distrust of and animosity toward foreigners, know when they are treated not only with courtesy but with continued and practical kindness. There have been, it is true, missionaries who have lacked intelligence and tact; for missionaries are quite as human as their critics, though, as a rule, far more dispassionate in their judgments. But the great mass of missionaries in China, representing all Christian bodies, have been devoted, courageous, and effective servants of the Chinese people, eager not only to give them spiritual truth, but to touch their physical and social conditions with a beneficent and healing hand. The Chinese know this. One large city in the Yangtse valley was recently placarded overnight with urgent appeals to boycott all American goods, but with an equally urgent appeal not to interfere in any way with the work of the mission-

There is undoubtedly a widespread feeling of discontent with the Manchu dynasty. Nothing shows more strikingly the essential conservatism of the Chinese and their marvelous power of standing still than the fact that, after four centuries of rule, the present dynasty is still a foreign government, surrounded by the suspicion with which foreigners are traditionally regarded in the Empire, unable to evoke the national sentiment or to draw to itself the strength of racial feeling.

For all practical purposes the present rulers of China are as much foreigners as were the autocratic Russian rulers of Finland. There has rarely been a long period of time which has been free from anti-dynastic outbreaks in some part of the Empire, and beyond doubt the anti-dynastic feeling is wide-spread and enters largely into the agitations of the hour. Whether it is sufficiently definite and cohesive to take on the proportions and the seriousness of a general revolt remains to be seen.

A much more important element in the present situation, however, is the profound stirring of the whole East by the brilliant success of Japan in the war with Russia. It has seemed to the East for many decades as if the West were irresistible. Suddenly an Oriental power stepped into the arena fully armed, used the very latest results of discipline and science with superb effectiveness, struck terrible blows at the Great Power which, more than any other, overshadowed Asia, and has broken the spell which the fear of Russia had laid upon the whole East. News penetrates the Chinese Empire very slowly, but such an event as this has gone to the remotest hamlets, and the humblest Chinese understand what it means. It means, among other things, an entire reversal of the long-existing relations between the East and the West; that the East is to be no longer a foraging-ground of aggressive Western countries; that it is to be no longer the paradise of the concession hunter and the speculator in search of an ignorant and unsuspecting people possessing great natural resources; that its affairs are to be no longer settled around the council boards of Western Powers without so much as a thought of what the Chinese themselves may wish or purpose. The old days are gone. The Yellow Peril, if it be a peril, is here. China is in arms, not against the Western world, but against the short-sighted, narrow-minded, and selfish policy which has dominated most of the Western Powers ever since the Empire was opened to trade.

No Power has asked of itself what it could give to China; every Power, except the United States, has asked itself what it could get out of China. The Chinese propose now to own their own country; to control, if they do not develop, their own resources; to manage their own affairs. There will be no more concessions, no more one-sided bargains, no more surrender of great resources to men who hold the whip-hand both of knowledge and of power. This is the meaning of the present movement in China. It will cost the West something; but if the West recognizes what it means, and reverses its policy, the yellow peril

will become, as some one has wisely said, the yellow opportunity.

This country has made its special contribution to the Chinese situation by an almost incredibly short-sighted treatment of the Chinese. The anti-race feeling which found expression years ago on the sand-lots of San Francisco promises now to limit the development of the Pacific coast at the very hour when the gates of the East are thrown wide open for the first time. We have treated the Chinese not only with brutality, but with a stupidity which is incredible. They do not object to a certain kind of exclusion, to the drawing of the lines against certain classes of the population, or to the importation of laborers under certain conditions. If these lines of exclusion had been drawn intelligently, consistently, and with decent regard for Chinese feeling, there would have been no trouble. The Chinese are a commercial people, but their word for business involves not only the idea of traffic but of courtesy. They are extremely sensitive in the matter of personal dignity. We have treated them to every form of indignity. We have stripped them naked, photographed them as if they were criminals, put them in the hands of stupid inspectors who have acted like men of a superior race dealing with inferiors, and have not known that their own lack of civilization was thrown into the most striking relief by the much more highly civilized men with whom they were dealing. In a word, we have done everything we could in dealing with a very considerable number of influential Chinese to insult and outrage Chinese feeling, and to awaken against ourselves a national indignation. What is called the reaction in China is not fundamentally commercial; it is sentimental, and we are reaping the harvest of the seed sown by short-sighted and stupid blindness during the past decades. These facts cannot be too widely known in this country. It was our great good fortune, in a critical hour in the history of China, to have a Secretary of State large enough to recognize the opportunity for making friends with a great people. If the spirit in which Secretary Hay dealt with China during the Boxer troubles had pervaded our treatment of

the Chinese for the past thirty years, we should have bound the Empire to us with bands of steel. As it is, we have done everything in our power to alienate it, and we are now facing the loss of a great market and the friendship of a people just coming into national consciousness with possibilities of influence, power, and wealth which no Western man can adequately measure. The policy which ought now to be adopted The Outlook will outline in its next issue.

Corporations and the Supreme Court

In the issue between the people and the corporations there are two distinct questions: (1) What are the limits of the powers which have been granted by the people to the corporations? and (2) What is the best way for the people to exercise their control over the corporations which they have created?

The former question is one to be answered by the courts; the latter is one to be answered by the people through legislative enactment. In the nature of the case a court cannot answer the latter question as to the best way of controlling corporations, nor a legislative body the former as to the present powers of corporations. This distinction must be kept in mind if the general problem of governmental control of corporations is not to be obscured.

The four decisions handed down last week by the Supreme Court in the cases) of the so-called tobacco and paper trusts (have to do, therefore, with only the former of these questions. In that respect the decisions are limited in effect. an answer to that one question-What are the present powers of corporations? they are of far-reaching effect. In brief, these decisions establish the principle that, whether in action in court, investigations by a grand jury, or proceedings before an examiner, a corporation has no right to hide behind the personal immunity of its officers from self-incrimination.

The case in which the fundamental principle was established was that result

ing from an action between the United States and the American Tobacco Company and the MacAndrews & Forbes Company. The Secretary of the lastnamed Company, subpænaed to appear before the Grand Jury, declined to testify on two grounds; first, that there was no specific "charge" pending, and, second, that his answers might tend to incriminate him; and he declined to produce certain papers demanded, on three grounds, the third being that they might tend to incriminate him. The Court decided that there need be no specific charge before the Grand Jury. All that was necessary was that it be "made to appear to the Grand Jury that there is reason to believe that a crime has been committed." As to self-incrimination, the Court held that the witness was protected by the act which provides that no one shall be prosecuted on account of anything concerning which he may testify or produce evidence. The defense insisted, however, that "while the immunity statute may protect individual witnesses it would not protect the corporation" of which the witness was a representative: The Court answers that "it was not designed to do so." A witness, it says, "cannot set up the privilege of a corporation." The heart of the decision is in these words: "The individual may stand upon his constitutional rights as a citizen. He is entitled to carry on his private business in his own way. . . . Among his rights are a refusal to incriminate himself, and the immunity of himself and his property from arrest or seizure except under a warrant of the law. . . . Upon the other hand, the corporation is a creature of the State. It is presumed to be incorporated for the benefit of the public. . . . Its rights to act as a corporation are only preserved to it so long as it obeys the laws of its creation. There is a reserved right in the Legislature to investigate its contracts and to find out whether it has exceeded its powers. . . . The defense amounts to this: That an officer of a corporation, which is charged with a criminal violation of the statute, may plead the criminality of such corporation as a refusal to produce its books. To state this proposition is to answer it. While an

individual may lawfully refuse to answer incriminating questions unless protected by an immunity statute, it does not follow that a corporation, vested with special privileges and franchises, may refuse to show its hand when charged with an abuse of such privileges." The Court adds that though in this case the franchise was the creation of one of the States, "such franchises, so far as they involve questions of inter-State commerce, must also be exercised in subordination to the power of Congress to regulate such commerce, and in respect to this the General Government may also assert a sovereign authority to ascertain whether such franchises have been exercised in a lawful manner, with due regard to its own laws. . . . The powers of the General Government in this particular, in vindication of its own laws, are the same as if the corporation had been created by an act of Congress."

The other cases are important simply because in one instance this principle could be applied without qualification, and in the other two instances was applied to cases before a special examiner.

In regard to this decision there are three points it would be well to remember:

I. The decision does not settle the question of publicity for corporations. Those who have hailed it as a complete answer for the popular demand for publicity have either misread the decision or have sadly mistaken the nature of that demand. The Supreme Court makes clear that the law as it stands does not open the books of all corporations to public view; it simply enables the Government to inspect those books when there is reasonable ground for suspecting something amiss. Throughout the decision a definite object to discover an offense is presupposed in justifying inquiry. The Court specifically says: "It is not intended to intimate, however, that it [the General Government] has a general visitatorial power over State corporations." In other words, the decision does not answer the question, How may the people best exercise control over corporations? It has now been established that publicity may be obtained in special cases by special probing; but it is not established that corporations shall normally be open to public inspection, as are now National and State banks.

II. The Supreme Court has in this decision reaffirmed, though in a new direction, the power of the Federal Government over corporations. The Department of Justice may, for example, find that this power may now be applicable in the investigation of the Beef Trust in Chicago. As in the Northern Securities case, and again recently in the case of the Chesapeake and Ohio Railway, the Supreme Court declares that the Government is more powerful than its creatures.)

III. This decision ought to, and we believe will, allay that suspicion of the courts which arises from the feeling that judges are more concerned with the protection of property rights and privileges than of popular rights and powers. It is not inconceivable that the agitation for the control of corporations has had perceptible effect in this and other recent decisions, and that there is here evidence of responsiveness on the part of the Supreme Court to the present tendencies of popular government. At any rate, this decision is rendered, not on the ground of legal tradition, but of human equity, and as such is highly significant.

Wilhelm Gericke

The announcement that Mr. Wilhelm Gericke has resigned his post as conductor of the Boston Symphony Orchestra, and will return in May to Austria to make his home again in Vienna, has been received with universal regret by lovers of music in this country—and that means by a very large body of men and women, for the love of good music and the appreciation of genuine musicians has grown almost by leaps and bounds since Mr. Gericke first came to these shores in 1880, a quarter of a century The cause of orchestral music has been helped forward in America by Mr. Gericke perhaps more than by any other one man, with the possible exception of Theodore Thomas. In saying this we do not forget Karl Bergmann, Dr. Leopold Damrosch, or Anton Seidl, to all of whom New York must be ever grateful for the work which they did in developing and cultivating the musical taste of this community. But Mr. Gericke not only possesses the genius, temperament, and training of a great conductor, but has had the advantage of having a perfectly equipped orchestra put into his hands, with full control to give it the impress of his own artistic mold, and yet has been relieved of the financial at a commercial burdens which so often distract, harass, and obstruct great musicians in their work.

Those who have attended the concerts of the Boston Symphony Orchestra during the last twenty-five years are more or less conversant with Mr. Gericke's history, so far as it is connected with this country. He came to Boston in 1884, when he was thirty-nine years of age, at the invitation of Major Higginson, the founder and generous supporter of the Boston Orchestra. After five years' work he returned to Europe, but again took up the baton in Boston in 1898, and has since remained there.

The Outlook has little sympathy with those who declare that art should be pursued solely for art's sake, that it is to be judged merely by standards of sensuous beauty, that its purpose is solely to give pleasure to the eye, ear, or the mind, that it consists exclusively of color and form in painting, of tone in music, and of style in literature. Of course beauty is the prime and fundamental element in art, but too many artists forget that line in Keats's immortal "Ode on a Grecian Urn" which tells us that beauty is truth, truth beauty. It is this element of truth or character in art that makes it something more than a mere pastime and source of pleasure. The truest art is an educating, civilizing, spiritualizing force, as well as a vehicle of the supremest beauty. The greatest and most perfectly rounded artists as long as art has existed have recognized this, and an artist is to be judged great by the success and balance with which he mingles these two elements. Judged in this way, Mr. Gericke seems to us to be a great artist. His modesty, his freedom from personal vanity and uncharitableness, his sanity

and wholesomeness of taste, his very wide range of musical knowledge, his capacity to understand, deeply enjoy, and sympathetically interpret all kinds of musica Bach fugue, a Beethoven symphony, a Brahms concerto, a Strauss waltz, or a Debussy tone-poem—are manifestations of that personality and character which, after all, is the source of his power. Mr. Gericke himself, at a supper given in his honor after his farewell evening concert in New York last week, gave expression to this view of the artist's moral respon-At the close of two hours of delightful and friendly companionship and merrymaking, he said his words of good-by to the men who had met to do him honor, by telling the following story: "Many years ago in Vienna I heard Heinrich Esser conduct Flotow's opera 'Stradella.' I had at that time the contempt of the young men of my school for this particular school of Italian music. As the opera proceeded I found to my astonishment that Esser was giving the score the same careful interpretation that he would give to one of the great works of music. After the opera was over I met him and expressed my astonishment and asked him to explain how he could treat so trivial a work with so much respect. I have never forgotten his reply: 'My friend,' he said, 'whatever I have to do I try to do with honesty and sincerity.' This," continued Mr. Gericke, "made a deep impression upon me, and I have ever since endeavored to make it my rule of conduct in my professional life."

It is perhaps too soon to form a perfectly just estimate of Mr. Gericke's genius in that field of art in which he has worked, but it is not too soon to express feelings of gratitude and appreciation to him for the sincerity, faithfulness, high purpose, and catholicity of spirit and taste with which he has served this country while he has been one of her adopted—unfortunately temporarily adopted—citizens. This is also a suitable occasion for saying a word in defense of the belief that the highest art and the highest morality have something in common—especially when this belief is so well exemplified in the personality and achievements of one of the great orchestral conductors of modern times.

The Spectator

There is no "trust evil" on the lower East Side in New York. The orthodox Jews who inhabit the quarter are a highly individualized people even in their business relations, and combinations of capital are foreign to their natures. Each man creates and conducts his business alone and fails or succeeds by his own The Spectator has unaided efforts. learned, however, that there is one corporation. It is allowed to exist and even to flourish, because it handles a commodity that the Jewish people cannot get along without. It is called the National Hebrew Publication Society, and, through a chain of some fifty book-stores. it supplies the Jews of the East Side of New York with the Hebrew and Yiddish literature which appears to be an absolute necessity of their daily lives.

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The Spectator has investigated and can say positively that there is not another district of the same restricted area in the whole of Greater New York that supports so many book-stores as the so-called "slum" of the lower East Side. Despite their number and despite the fact that they are all tacitly understood to be in the trust, every one of them is doing an excellent business. The people of the neighborhood are poor, but they are not so poor that they cannot always spare a little for a good book. They have a natural and instinctive hatred of trusts, but they will put up with a trust if they must in order to satisfy their hunger for reading. The four largest of these book-stores are strung along Canal Street from the Bowery east to Allen Street. From the outside they look like shops for the sale of the ritualistic accessories of the Jewish religion. The windows are filled with prayershawls, embossed white and colored pasteboard models of the tabernacle and the scrolls of the Law. brass candlesticks, silver wands tipped with filigree balls hung about with tiny gold bells, phylacteries and the black silk skull-caps worn by the men and boys in the synagogue. The only hint of the real nature of the business is a large and varied

assortment of prayer-books in Hebrew and Yiddish. This is due to the fact that, up to thirty years ago, there was no general Yiddish literature. Except for the scholars who knew Hebrew, the Jews read only their prayer-books. In those days, therefore, the Jewish book-store was practically a ritualistic institution, and its stock consisted solely of ritualistic goods. To-day the ritualistic goods are chiefly in the window, where the exterior marks of piety are strictly maintained, and the inside of the shop is filled with secular literature.

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The opening of the door usually reveals a long, narrow room, musty with the smell of books and soup and dimly lighted with flickering gas, lined with shelf on shelf of books reaching from the floor to the ceiling and retreating into the shadowy recesses in the rear. There are usually from six to a dozen men—all wearing hats and most of them wearing beards—standing about groups discussing, with every appearance of great excitement, philosophy, history, religion, or literature; or rambling about by ones and twos, glancing over titles and occasionally taking a book down from the shelves to read a passage or to clinch an argument. As you enter and engage in conversation with the proprietor, every man in the shop will instantly abandon whatever is holding his attention at the moment, and. without removing his hat, will step briskly forward and settle himself to listen frankly and with undisguised interest to the colloquy. If he finds that he has anything to say, he will break in with it without hesitation or embarrassment. This is no more due to bad manners than the wearing of the hat-a ritualistic survival—but to the most striking of all East Side characteristics, that where a discussion is the issue, all else is forgotten.

(2)

The other day the Spectator strolled into a Canal Street book-store to ask some questions in regard to the literature that is most read on the East Side. The proprietor was of that Biblical type of

Iew—so rare nowadays as to be almost extinct. He was tall and powerfully built, with a vivid, dark skin, black eyes, and black, crisply curling hair and beard sprinkled with gray. In a red and white striped mantle instead of his somewhat greasy black frock coat, he would have looked as if he had just stepped out of a book of Bible stories or a stained-glass window. He heard the Spectator through with quiet politeness and then informed him that he "had no Anglish." Spectator "had no Yiddish," he was about to depart, when half a dozen men who had miraculously gathered during the brief dialogue volunteered in chorus to give the Spectator the information he wanted.

Immediately the proprietor's private desk was unceremoniously rummaged for his catalogue, his books were reached down from his shelves, and he himself was hustled aside and effectually silenced with the magic words, "For der Anglishe paper." A young man of the politically assimilated but religiously orthodox type spread the Yiddish catalogue out on the desk, and, reading from right to left, began telling off the names of the authors whom he considered most popular among the Jews. Abramowitz, he said, was the most popular Yiddish author-S. J. Abramowitz. He was nicknamed "the Bookseller of Odessa." He lived in Russia and wrote satirical novels. there was Bomfeld. He was greatly read-

"That is wrong," flatly broke in another voice. "Bomfeld is not read on the East Side. Perhaps you are a 'book-Well, I will tell you that, seller' too. whether you are or not, you know nothing of books. Bomfeld is a technical writer. Every one knows that he is only read by scholars." The Spectator turned and looked at the speaker. He was a young man of the class on the East Side known as "intellectuals," and oftenest seen at Socialist and Anarchist meetings. He had a high, broad forehead, with the spiritual look as well as the material build of intellectuality, the introspective eye of the learned Jew, a celluloid collar and a dirty white necktie. The youth whose literary information he had impeached betrayed no sign of annoyance, but aggressively defended his statement that Bomfeld was read on the East Side, until, beaten to earth by recurring and more violent attacks from the intellectual in the dirty necktie, he agreed to strike Bomfeld from the list. "We have, then," he went on, again referring to the catalogue, "Jacob Dineson—"

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The unwashed intellectual broke in again with a snort of derision.

"Do you know anything about literature?" he asked scornfully, snatching the catalogue from his adversary's hand. "Do you give authors as their namescome in the alphabet? Do you not know that Peretz is most read on the East Side— Peretz and Schalom Aleichem?"

"No," cried the other young man vehemently, reaching for the catalogue again. "Abramowitz! Those who know anything never leave out Abramowitz."

"Sure, Abramowitz is the one—he is right—everybody reads Abramowitz," burst in chorus from the surrounding group, who, with heads bent forward and hands in pockets, were giving the argument a strained attention.

"Abramowitz? Well, yes," grudgingly assented the unwashed intellectual, giving the champion of Bomfeld and Abramowitz a contemptuous look. "Abramowitz is read. Peretz, the realistic novelist; Schalom Aleichem, the humorist, and Abramowitz—they are the favorites."

"There is Fruz," broke in a voice.

"Yes. Fruz, the nationalist poet. He is read," admitted the self-constituted arbiter.

"And Ahad-ha-Ane," cried another voice.

"Sure," broke in another. "Ahadha-Ane is read."

"And Gordon," came a voice from the confines of the group.

"All those are good," agreed the arbiter. "Ahad-an-Ane, the great modern Hebrew writer whose real name is Gins-

berg, and Gordon, the Jewish Voltaire. They are both popular."

e n writer

"And our own writers here in New York—" began the vanquished champion of Bomfeld, boldly.

"Wait a while," commanded the arbiter, silencing the champion of Bomfeld with a look. "I will give them." Then, turning to the Spectator, he said grandly:

"We have here in New York some few writers of real distinction. There is Morris Rosenfeld, the poet; Jacob Gordin and David Pinski, the playwrights; Abraham Cahan, the novelist, and Eliakum Zunzer, the folk-lore bard. Mr. Cahan can, however, only be called a Jewish writer because he is a Jew and writes of the Jews. His medium is English."

"And are all these books printed here in the United States, too?" asked the Spectator, with a wave of his hand about the book-lined shelves.

He was answered by a chorus:

"Sure not, no, sir—all importeted—from Russia."

"And there are none but Yiddish and Hebrew writers here?"

Again the chorus spoke.

"Sure there are—all writers there are."
Again the unwashed intellectual silenced the group with his imperative
"Wait a while!"

"In all these Jew book-stores," he said, "they have only the Yiddish and Hebrew languages, but they have translations of the best books in all literatures into Yiddish and Hebrew. Here in this shop you may get in Yiddish Shake-speare, Goethe, Schiller, Tolstoy, Gorki, Voltaire, Victor Hugo, Dante, Swinburne, Shelley, and various other great writers in all languages."

This sounds remarkable to the ear of the novice, but it becomes even more extraordinary when it is remembered that up to thirty years ago the Yiddish—or Jew-Deutsch—was despised as a vulgar dialect even by those who spoke it; and also that the few scattered writers who made use of it as a vehicle for literary expression systematically offered their works with the apology that it was only through the "jargon" that the people

could be reached. As there were, accordingly, very few books in the language of the great mass of the people, and as the comparatively few Hebrew scholars were perfectly content with the gigantic literature embraced in the ancient Hebrew expositions of "the Law," the Jewish people, once known as "the bookish nation," were practically without a living literature. But in the last thirty years the Zionist movement and the awakening in Russia, bringing with it the new progressive movement among the lews and the wholesale emigration to America, has raised a horde of new writers—novelists, poets, playwrights, historians, sociologists, philosophers, and scientists. new literature has sprung into being almost within a generation.

To-day all the Jews who are not writing are reading. With a voracious appetite they devour Yiddish, Hebrew, Russian, German, and English in all forms of their literatures, with the notable exception of popular contemporaneous fiction. On the East Side in New York every soda fountain is a circulating The principal East Side branch library. of the Public Library, located at Chatham Square, numbers a membership of fifteen thousand, and it has been in existence only four years. One thousand books are taken out of this library by Jews every day. It ranks first among all the branches of the city in the circulation of works on history, abstract science, and sociology. It ranks last of all in the circulation of light novels. Besides the fifty strictly Jewish book-stores, there are in the Ghetto three shops where general literature is sold which are wholly supported by the Jewish people. The largest of these, which is located in East Broadway, just across from the Educational Alliance, has the reputation of being the headquarters for the Socialistic and Anarchistic literature of the quarter, but this the owner is at great pains to deny. It is true that you will find there all the radical thinkers from Giordano Bruno down to Jack London; but it is correspondingly true that you will also find everything else that is displayed conspicuously on uptown counters except the "best-selling book of the week."

INDUSTRIAL DEMOCRACY

Are we tending toward the feudalism of capital, the despotism of labor, or a fraternal democracy in industry? Is the admitted industrial unrest in the United States the unrest of rebellious dissatisfaction or the unrest of an aspir-

ing and hopeful ambition?

These and other fundamental questions in regard to the labor problem will receive answer or suggestion of answer in a series of articles which has been planned for The Outlook. This series will comprise two groups, the first dealing with a few important and typical individual industries—selected, not with any view of covering the whole ground, but of presenting the facts about representative industries as a basis for the study of questions involved; the second dealing with specific problems and phases of the labor question. The first article in the first of these two groups is presented herewith. Its author, Dr. Frank Julian Warne, is Fellow in Economic Science in the University of Pennsylvania, is the author of two books dealing with the mining industry, and has written more than one article on this topic for The Outlook. The choice of this particular article to be the first in publication naturally arose from the interest and importance of the coal situation at the present time. While it has seemed best for this reason to present Dr. Warne's article now, the other articles in the series will be reserved for publication in the early fall.

The topics proposed for treatment in this series—subject, however, to some possible changes and additions—are, in the first class above mentioned. The Stock-Yards, The Building Trades, The Transport Agencies, and The Garment Workers, in addition to Dr. Warne's article on The Anthracite Miners. Topics which will be treated in the second class of articles are: Public Opinion in Labor Ranks, What the Union has Done, Restrictions in Labor Unions, The Closed Shop and The Open Shop, The Walking Delegate, Women in Trade Unions, and An Industrial War. Editorial discussion of issues and principles involved and dealing with the trend and meaning of the industrial struggle will appear simultaneously with many of the articles.

Among the writers of the articles in this series we may name: Mr. John Graham Brooks, the author of that extremely suggestive and interesting book, " The Social Unrest," who is recognized as one of the foremost American writers on economic and industrial topics; Professor Graham Taylor, the founder of the Chicago Commons Social Settlement, editor of "Chicago Commons," and Lecturer on Sociology in the University of Chicago; Professor John R. Commons, who occupies the Chair of Political Economy in the University of Wisconsin; Mr. S. B. Donnelly, Secretary of the Building Trades General Arbitration Board; Mr. Ethelbert Stewart, who is in close touch with the views of moderate trade unionists, and will present the argument in favor of the Closed (or exclusively union) Shop, while the argument for the Open Shop will be presented by another writer; Mr. William Hard, a newspaper writer of experience and a special student of industrial conditions, who will be remembered as joint author with Mr. Ernest Poole of a graphic article in The Outlook on the great Stock-Yards strike; Mr. Luke Grant, of the Chicago "Record-Herald," a careful observer of practical labor union evolution; and Mrs. Florence Kelley, well known through her connection with Hull House and the Nurses' Settlement.



HARD-COAL MINERS

MINER AND OPERATOR

A STUDY OF LABOR CONDITIONS IN THE ANTHRACITE COAL FIELDS

BY FRANK JULIAN WARNE

ILLUSTRATED WITH PHOTOGRAPHS BY ARTHUR HEWITT

ITHIN an area in northeastern Pennsylvania of 1,700 square miles, having an actual coal area of only 485 square miles, is confined practically the entire anthracite industry of the United States. This great industry represents a capital investment of \$700,000,000, with natural annual profits of from \$85,000,000 to \$100,000,000, and produces each year about 70,000,000 short tons of hard coal, valued at over \$140,000,000. It furnishes a freight traffic worth \$40,000,000 a year to about eight important railway systems, and pays annually approximately \$70,000,000

in wages to about 155,000 mine employ-

A population of nearly one million people within the anthracite region alone is dependent directly and indirectly upon this industry for their means of livelihood. The two largest cities are Scranton, with a population of 102,000, and Wilkesbarre, with 52,000 inhabitants, both in the northern or Wyoming field. Other important cities, with a population of less than 25,000 each, are Hazleton in the Lehigh field, and Pottsville, Shenandoah, Tamaqua, and Shamokin, in the Schuylkill field. Surrounding

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these larger cities are numerous small towns and villages, or "patches," as the mining hamlets or groups of buildings in near proximity to a particular mine are called, extending for many miles throughout the valleys and connected



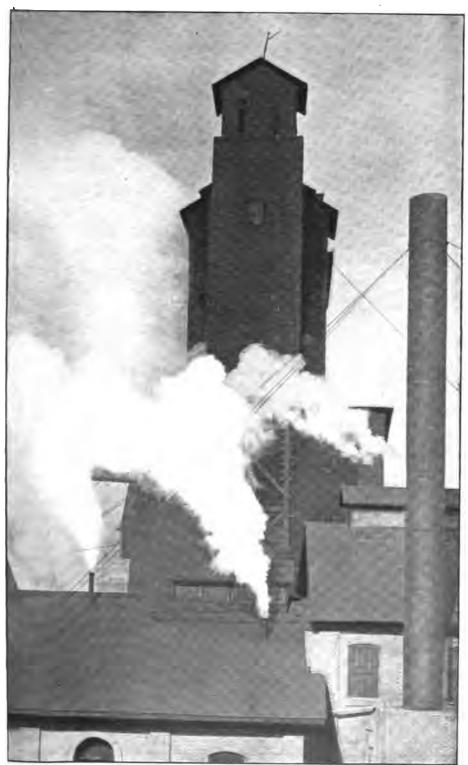
DRILLING A HOLE FOR A BLAST

generally by electric railways. In these cities and towns the occupations and daily callings of many of the inhabitants are not different from the various activities which go to form communal life in other American cities. Some are in the professions, some in the various lines of business, while others are engaged in

different trades identified with the railroads, powder-mills, silk-mills, factories, foundries, and tool and other manufacturing plants. The single dominant group in nearly all these communities, however, consists of the mine workers and their families, and it is their activity that gives the color to communal life. They are conspicuous in the religious, educational, political, and other broad social activities of the three fields, and upon their prosperity rests largely the prosperity of these communities.

These mine workers exceed in number 155,000 men and boys. About 55,000 are engaged in the performance of various tasks outside the mines or above ground, such as superintendents, bookkeepers and clerks, foremen, blacksmiths, carpenters, engineers, firemen, slate-pickers, drivers, watchmen, etc. The tasks of most of these workers are made clear by the designation of their occupations. The foreman or breaker boss looks after that part of the plant above ground, under the direction of the general superintendent, which latter may have supervision over as many as a score of collieries. In not a few cases there is a superintendent for each colliery. foreman oversees the general working of the plant, the distribution of powder and other supplies, the sending of timber into the mine, the coming and going of the cars at the shaft and their arrival and departure at the breaker, and performs other supervising tasks. engineers and firemen care for the machinery that supplies air to the underground workings, or runs the cage or elevator which raises and lowers the cars and men, or pumps the water from the mine, etc. They also have charge of the "lokeys," or yard engines used about the colliery grounds. The slatepickers are at work when the breaker is in operation, assorting slate, bone, and other impurities from the coal as it passes down the screens preparatory to sending it in different sizes to the mar-These latter employees are usually old men and boys.

Among the 100,000 underground workers are foremen or mine bosses, fire bosses, door-boys, drivers, runners, laborers, miners, track-layers, timbermen,



A COAL BREAKER

road-cleaners, car-couplers, stablemen, masons, pumpmen, pipemen, water-bailers, etc. The inside foreman or mine boss, with his assistants, has direction of the entire underground workings, looking after the ventilating apparatus,

Affairs for Pennsylvania, to secure which he must have had at least five years' practical experience as a miner, must have passed an examination by an established board of examiners, and be of "good conduct, capability, and sobri-



A BREAKER BOY

and examining all slopes, shafts, main roads, traveling ways, signaling apparatus, pulleys, and timbering. He also has supervision of the miners, directing them in their work and inspecting their working-places to see that these are safe for the men. The law requires this mine foreman to possess a certificate of qualification from the Secretary of Internal

ety." The fire boss, under the direction of the mine foreman, takes care that the working-places of the miners and all used portions of the underground plant are free from explosive gas, and to guard against this danger the law directs him to make inspections of all used parts of the mine both before the miners begin work and after they leave their places.

He must have had five years' practical experience as a miner. The door-boys, including the fan-boys, guard the heavy wooden doors dividing the gangway, opening and closing them as the cars and men pass in and out. These doors are for the purpose of directing the air currents through the proper openings to the breast where the miners and laborers are at work. In some mines selfacting doors have been provided. Where boys are employed to attend to the doors the law provides that they shall not be under the age of sixteen years, although, as in the case of the breaker boys, the law has not been very rigidly enforced. The drivers employed underground have charge of from one to three or four mules hauling empty and loaded cars from and to the miners' working-places. The stablemen care for the mules in the underground stables. Where mules are not necessary, as in the case of gravity roads in the mine, those in charge of the cars are called runners. Of all the 155,000 outside and inside workers only about 45,000 are miners engaged directly in the mining of coal.

The anthracite mine workers are a part of that vast army of toilers our country over whose daily life is regulated by the blowing of a whistle. Year in and year out, whenever there is work to be done in the mines, the miners, with powder-can, lamp, and dinner-pail, are summoned from their homes at the dawn of day by the first signal of the breaker whistle at six o'clock. Shortly after, they begin to pour out of their houses and swarm over the hills and valleys towards the mines, only to disappear, for the greater part of the day, as suddenly as they came forth. Under the rules of the mining companies no miner is permitted to enter the underground workings after seven o'clock. Before that hour they have been lowered to their workingplaces by means of the elevator-like arrangement in the shaft, or by the cars as they descend the slope. In the greater part of the region the shaft is the most general method adopted for reaching the coal. Where the coal measures are found to "dip" to any extent, as in the Schuylkill field, the slope method is usually employed. Where the stripping method



SURFACE MINING



MAKING A BLASTING CARTRIDGE

of mining is carried on, by which the overlying strata have been removed and the coal measures exposed, the miner does not usually work underground.

The working-place of the miner may be five hundred or one thousand or in cases as many as two thousand feet below the surface, and as far as two or three miles from the main entrance to the mine. While some work with a gang of other miners and laborers in charge of a foreman, as in strippings or in opening a gangway in a thick and wide seam or through solid rock, others are employed mining coal in the chambers or rooms opening from the gangway. These chambers vary in size, depending upon the thickness and width of the seam the miner is working, the seams ranging from two feet to over one hundred feet thick, and extending frequently over large areas. These rooms, called breasts, usually range from twenty to thirty feet wide, generally twenty-four feet, and may have a depth of as many as three hundred feet. In the Schuylkill field two miners as partners or "butties" usually work a chamber together. In this field, and also in the Lehigh field as a general thing, the seams pitch at such an angle as to prevent cars from being run to the working face, and in such cases the coal is worked directly up the pitch. By means of strong timbers across the opening at the bottom the dislodged coal is held in place and gives the miners a support while they mine the solid coal. above them. When the particular deposit has been dislodged, the gate-like arrangement at the bottom is opened and the coal is then run down a chute into the cars, laborers being employed by the company to remove what the miner has mined. In all such cases the two miners, or "butties," work without laborers and are paid so much a yard for the coal they have mined. In the Wyoming field the coal seams are so flat. with few exceptions, that roads can be laid and the mine cars taken to the face of each chamber. This permits the coal to be loaded as it is mined, and in such cases, while the miner dislodges the coal, a laborer employed by him loads it on

When all the coal but what is neces-

sary to support the roof has been dislodged, and a whole section of the mine has been worked out, then the miners remove these supports or pillars, beginning at the inside end and working back towards the shaft as they progress, allowing the roof of the mine, and in cases the surface of the ground, to settle in the excavated places. This is regarded as the most dangerous part of the miners' occupation, and is called "robbing the pillars." Much of the time of the miner underground is spent in drilling holes for his charge of powder which he explodes to dislodge the coal. One discharge may bring down many tons; again it frequently fails completely of its purpose, in which latter case the miner must dig out the coal with his pick and drill. This is called "mining out a shot."

The amount of coal the miner is able to get out depends to a large extent upon the softness or hardness of the seam and the amount of timbering he is compelled to put up. In some cases the character of the coal is such as to allow the miner to take out many yards without putting up any timbers at all, and in other cases he may have to timber every foot of the way for hundreds of yards. In the Wyoming field the seams do not pitch to any great extent, and here the miner is able to wall the refuse alongside his working-place, sending for the greater part only clean coal to the breaker. Where the seams pitch, however, as is the case in the Lehigh and Schuylkill fields, all the coal, slate, rock, etc., dislodged by a charge of powder must be sent out in the cars. To determine the amount of clean or marketable coal in a car, a weighman is employed by the miners to check up the company docking

Generally speaking, the amount of good coal the miner mines determines the wages he receives. To ascertain this three plans are in vogue throughout the region—the car or volume, and the yard or measure systems, which are in use in all three fields, and the ton or weighing plan, which exists only in the Wyoming field. Under these the wages of about ninety per cent. of the miners in the Wyoming and Schuylkill fields, and eighty per cent. of those in the Lehigh



RUNNING A CAR OF COAL INTO THE BREAKER



BRINGING DOWN THE COAL LOOSENED BY A BLAST

field, are determined. The rest of the miners and most of the other employees are paid day wages. As to the wages received by employees in the hard-coal industry, these vary greatly according to the different occupations. The largest number of miners average between \$500 and \$600 a year, there being some, however, who earn as much

as \$1,000 a year, and others less than \$400.

Before the miner is capable of performing his work there are certain things he must have. One of these is a miner's certificate from the State. Under the laws of Pennsylvania "no person whomsoever shall be employed or engaged in the anthracite coal region of this Commonwealth, as a miner in any anthracite coal mine, without having obtained a certificate of competency and qualification so to do from the 'Miners' Examining Board' of the proper district. . . ." This board consists of nine members appointed for a term of two years by the judges of the county courts from among the most skillful miners actually engaged in mining. and who have had at least five years' practical experience. All persons qualified to be employed as a miner in an anthracite mine are required to register before one of these boards. order to obtain a certificate of qualification, the applicant must produce satis-

factory evidence of having had not less than two years' practical experience as a miner or as a mine laborer in the mines of Pennsylvania, and must pass an examination before the Examining Board of his district. "In no case," says the law, "shall an applicant be deemed competent unless he appear in person before the said board and answer intelligently and correctly at least twelve questions in the English language pertaining to the requirements of a practical miner, and be perfectly identified under oath as a mine laborer by at least one practical miner holding miners' certificates." The certificate costs the miner one dollar. There is quite general complaint that these certificates are sold promiscuously throughout the region, and that many



THE FOREMAN OF THE BREAKER BOYS

men who never passed an examination are now working in the mine on these certificates.

The miner must also have tools with which to carry on his work. These include picks, shovels, ax, saw, coal drill, rock drill, needle, scraper, file, blasting barrels (where used), drilling-machine for coal, drilling-machine for rock including bits, and chain and

pulley (where used, as in the Schuylkill field, for holding cars in place while being loaded). Where two miners work a chamber as partners or "butties," the expense of tools is usually divided between them. Very frequently miners

are able to secure the tools of those killed while at work, or who have left the industry, at second-hand prices. Most of the tools of the miner represent an original outlay which answers for a long time. Others, however, must be renewed



A MINER



A CULM BANK

This great bank, overshadowing the homes of the miners, is built up of the refuse from the mines

from month to month. To keep his tools in repair costs the miner about fifty cents a month. Including the cost of wear and tear, the yearly cost to the miner for the tools to aid him in his work averages from \$30 to \$40.

Besides these tools proper the miner must have light to work by, and this he secures from his lamp, which originally cost him from twelve to fifteen cents. The wick, or "cotton," and the oil consumed, form a monthly charge of nearly seventy-five cents, a miner using about five gallons of oil each month, at a cost of about fifteen cents a gallon. He also needs matches, explosive caps, squibs, powder, and dynamite, all of which he is expected to supply for himself. he secures from the mining company at \$1.50 for a keg of twenty-five pounds. On the average a miner consumes one keg of powder in getting out thirteen cars of coal. Six cars are regarded as a fair daily output for each man.

Before the miner is able to use these tools and employ a laborer or laborers—before he can engage in the mining of coal—he must have his own labor or energy. This he secures from the food

he eats, the clothes he wears, and the house that shelters him. These are his first demands. They must be supplied, or he cannot for long produce or maintain his labor. The cost of these necessaries, however, is not the same for all miners. In examining a large number of accounts of miners and their families at company stores, and at a number of stores in different parts of the region which were not conducted by the company, but where many miners carried accounts, I found their monthly bills for food and clothing to range all the way from three dollars to as high as seventy-five dollars. Some of the bills were for goods for one person only; others for a family of seven. So many different elements enter into determining the amounts of these accounts that it is not possible to draw an average of a miner's monthly expense for food and clothing that would prove of any value. Some conclusions, however, are possible. In nearly every case the accounts of English-speaking miners are twice and in many cases three times as high as those of the Slav races. show in detail that the miners of the English-speaking nationalities consume

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a much larger variety and a better quality of goods than those of the Slav races. This is true of the clothes purchased as well as of the food consumed.

The same wide variation in the cost to different mine workers is also found in the rent of houses, which are usually, but not always, owned by the employing company. These range all the way from well-built, neatly painted, and pleasantly located frame houses, with a porch and a large yard, perhaps also a garden, to a one-room hut built of driftwood and roofed with tin from discarded powder-The former have carpets on the floor, bright-colored paper and framed pictures on the wall, and comfortable furnishings in the rooms; the latter may have a dirt floor, bare walls, and store boxes for furnishings, and bunks to sleep Some houses rent for as low as \$1 a month, others for as high as \$8, the average being about \$4 a month. Not a few of the older miners—those of the English-speaking nationalities—own their homes, this being particularly true of the Welsh in the Wyoming field. The Slavs, with very few exceptions, rent their houses, and these usually not of the best or even of the average. These nationalities crowd together in large numbers, not only in the same house, but in the same section of the town, and this usually in the poorest district, where rents are low. The cost of food and shelter to many Slavs is also lessened by the fact of their "boarding" (they being usually unmarried) with members of their own particular nationality, at a cost of from \$5 to \$12 a month. All this indicates how impossible it is to measure in money the cost to the average miner of his food, clothing, and shelter. In any particular case or for any particular group, however, this can be done.

Anthracite mining is regarded as a hazardous occupation. In the entire region there are only seventy-six nongaseous mines, while the gaseous mines number as many as 270. From the latter comes about eighty-four per cent. of the total production of hard coal. At least eighty-five per cent. of the total number of men employed in the mines work in places generating explosive gas.

In the production of hard coal an average of about five hundred lives are lost each year, and approximately fifteen hundred workers are injured. To guard against this risk of his calling—to support himself in case he is disabled or to care for his wife and children if he is killed—the miner pays on the average about fifty cents a month to a beneficial fund, either conducted by the company or by some society which has insurance benefits.

With accidents of almost daily occurrence in nearly every mine that tear the muscles, break the bones, bend the frame, and even take life itself, and with the prevalence of diseases, particularly the much-dreaded "miners' asthma," peculiar to a mining community, the mine worker has frequent and almost constant need of the physician. The possibility of these accidents occurring at almost any time and at unexpected moments makes necessary the near presence of the physician at all times. The injured employees at any one colliery are few compared with the total number of mine workers at that place, and, with their limited resources, they are not able to pay the charges the physician would have to make in attending each accident if he were not assured of other sources of income. The small mining village in particular, situated some distance from the more thickly populated city, has not the continual demand for the services of the physician sufficient to induce one to locate there. The problem has been solved in not a few of the anthracite communities by the company doctor system. By this plan the mine employees support the physician, whether all have need of his services or not, the married men paying one dollar and the single men fifty cents a month. The physician is thus assured of a livelihood, and is at call at almost any time without extra charge to an employee needing his services. In nearly every case where it is in existence this plan is justified by the conditions, despite the fact that it may be an imposition on those having little or no need for the doctor. Unfortunately, the system, in certain localities, is subject to abuses.

Already in the large towns the system

is a thing of the past, the mine worker having the choice of a physician and paying for his services only when he has need of them. This is particularly true in the greater part of the Wyoming field. This change has also been aided by the establishing of State hospitals for the miners in the anthracite fields. All these, however, while they have brought about improved conditions, have not lessened the mine workers' need of the services of the physician; they have only changed the conditions under which he secures those services.

There is another institution in the hard-coal fields of particular interest in any discussion of the labor and living conditions of the mine workers, and this is the company store. The effect this system has on the real wages of the mine workers is not the same in all cases, and for this reason no general statement can be made that would be applicable alike to all company stores. Some are of distinct and undoubted advantage to the mine workers; stores where the general public even finds it an advantage to deal. There are also company stores where it is as distinctly to the disadvantage of the mine employees dealing there, and where no mine worker would deal but for some form of compul-Some company stores are conducted in open and fair competition with the general stores of the mining town for the trade of the community, without the least form of pressure upon the mine worker to purchase his goods there. Other company stores sell only to men employed at their colliery; that is, no one is employed at the mine who does not deal at the store, and no one deals at this store who has the choice of purchasing elsewhere. A majority of company stores charge on the average twelve per cent. more for goods than other stores in the same community. There are, of course, exceptions to this state-

As a system the company store has for years been a source of complaint and irritation on the part of the mine employees, and this agitation in recent years has had the effect not only of remedying its most glaring abuses but of abolishing to a considerable extent the

system itself. The company store to-day is generally but not always conducted by the individual or "independent" operator, and these are growing fewer in number each year. Such large mining companies as the Delaware and Hudson, the Lehigh and Wilkesbarre, the Philadelphia and Reading Coal and Iron Company, the Lehigh Valley, and the Delaware, Lackawanna, and Western, do not carry on company stores, nor do they collect for any of them. They pay their men in cash semi-monthly. Only about one-third of the total number of anthracite mine workers—about 50,000—are employed at collieries having company stores attached. The number of employees affected differs in the separate fields, the largest number being in the Lehigh and the southern part of the Wyoming field. The principal complaint against the company store in the strike of 1900 came from the Wyoming and Lehigh fields.

At the present time about twenty-six different nationalities are employed in and about the hard-coal mines. can conveniently be grouped into two general classes—the English-speaking and the Slav and Italian. The first workers in the hard-coal mines were the English, Welsh, Scotch, Irish, Germans, Canadians, etc., who, with the native Americans, formed the mining population down to the decade following the close of the Civil War. Beginning about 1870 the Slav and Italian invasion swept into the coal fields. It brought with it a group of races wholly different from those already dominant there, not only ethnically but in habits and customs and language and institutions. The Slovak, the Pole, the Hungarian, the Magyar, the Croatian, the Lithuanian, and the Italian, crowded into the mining settlements, precipitating new factors into the then already complicated problem of race assimilation. They came with a lower standard of living, were able to and did sell their labor for a less price—worked for a lower wage—than the Englishspeaking mine workers could afford to sell and at the same time maintain their standard of living. Briefly, down to 1900 the effect of this Slav and Italian invasion was the migration of members

of the English-speaking nationalities not only from the industry but from that section of Pennsylvania. The immigrants in the hard-coal fields from Poland, Austria, Russia, Hungary, and Italy increased from 1,925 in 1880 to 43,007 in 1890, and to 89,328 in 1900. At the present time it is estimated that more than 110,000 representatives of these races are in the anthracite region, the largest number being in the Schuylkill and Lehigh fields. Along with this increase in the Slav races has gone a decrease in the foreign-born from Ireland. Germany, Scotland, England, and Wales, from 123,636 in 1890 to 100,269 in The tendency of the Slav races to increase and of the English-speaking nationalities to decrease in the anthracite industry is clearly shown in statistics of employees of the coal-mining companies. More than this, the movement is distinctly traceable according to the coal fields, the inroads of the Slavs first being marked in the Schuylkill field, next in the Lehigh, and lastly and conspicuously at the present time in the Wyoming field. An interesting and natural phase of this race phenomenon is the increase in the number of Catholic churches in the region and a decrease in those of the Protestant denominations, the Slav being of the former and the Englishspeaking races mostly of the latter. This is explained in the fact that the

Slavs are bringing their own institutions with them, and the English-speaking races are taking theirs away with them.

For the twenty-five years down to 1900 the racial forces in opposition to assimilation between the Slav and English speaking nationalities engaged in the anthracite industry were dominant. But the strikes of the mine workers in 1900 and 1902 put into operation new and different forces, or rather they directed the social and industrial forces along a different channel. On the broad ground of industrial self-interest, racial ties are now being broken down through the instrumentality of the United Mine Workers of America. Through this organization the English-speaking races in the hard-coal industry have been able to control the Slav competition by establishing what is practically a minimum wage in most of the occupations about the collieries. In consequence of the forces which this organization has been instrumental in putting in operation in the anthracite coal fields, we now find industrial and social assimilation between the English-speaking and Slav and Italian races not to be such a remote possibility as formerly. There are indications that since 1900 these newer immigrant races have been responding more readily to the influences of American ideals and institutions.



JOHN MITCHELL THE MAN THE MINERS TRUST

BY WALTER E. WEYL

HE first time Lmet John Mitchell, President of the United Mine Workers of America, was the evening after the declaration of the strike of 1902.

The dining-room in the small hotel was filled with mine workers and union officials about to leave for their respective homes. There was an air of suppressed excitement, and at times men broke out into loud conversation. There was only one man in the room who seemed to feel complete'y the sense of seriousness and responsibility. That man was Mitchell. When he spoke, it was with a quiet and gravity which made me feel with him the greatness of the hazard which the one hundred and fifty thousand men in his union were about to take.

What I felt then, and what I now always feel with him, is a sense of the man's gentleness. There is a mildness in his eyes—the eyes of a dreamer or poet rather than of a man of action—that gives little indication of the great power and the strength of will that lie behind.

I have also seen evidences of this power of will. I have roomed with him for weeks at a time, and have seen him at work from early in the morning until deep in the night, when he was suffering pain that would have sent an ordinary man to bed. The only time I have known him to interrupt his work for any bodily ailment was one Sunday afternoon, just after the close of the strike, when it seemed to me the man would surely die. I left him with forebodings of evil, and was not reassured until I learned the same evening that a few hours of sleep had brought him back to his normal health and to his usual capacity for work.

There are few men who realize what the work of a labor leader like Mitchell really is. I know only one other union official in the United States who works as hard, and I know of none who works harder. Mitchell has a genius for application. He takes his work steadily, as a matter of course, staying at his desk hour after hour as though the passage of time had no meaning for him.

This work of Mitchell's is manifold. The United Mine Workers of America. like other modern trade unions, is well organized, and to a large extent the work is subdivided among many men; but in the final instance the responsibility rests upon one man. Mitchell is able to delegate work, and when he does so he reposes absolute confidence in his lieutenant. Still he finds it utterly impossible to shake off a sense of responsibility. I have seen him worry, and he has told me how he has worried and kept awake thinking about work which he had delegated to others, but which he was not sure would be done in time.

In respect to his own work Mitchell is painfully scrupulous. If he has promised a thing for a certain day, it must be done on that day, and no excuses avail for its non-completion. He is equally scrupulous about trifles. Every letter written to him, even though it be from a crank, receives an answer; and every visitor whom he can possibly receive he sees, if only for a few moments.

Perhaps he is so punctilious because he himself has risen from the ranks, or, as the trade unionist would say, in the ranks. A country lad, born in Illinois, Mitchell naturally drifted into the mines. Here he worked like any other boy, in no wise distinguishable from the other lads of his age. As soon as he could, he began to travel, working in the mines of one State until he had saved enough money to get to another. He saw a great part of the country and learned much that he could not have learned at home.

From the beginning he was a unionist. The boy was appealed to by the

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FROM STEHEOGRAFH, CLEEHIGHT, 1908, BY UNDERWOOD & UNDERWOOD, NEW YORK JOHN MITCHELL

same sentiments that touch him as a man. A strike in Spring Valley in his youth made a vivid impression upon him and confirmed him in his union principles. He was enthusiastic about trade unionism long before he understood it; he became a unionist because the men whom he liked and whom he respected as good miners were unionists.

The trade union appeals to great masses by its social features and by the multitude of little duties and petty offices The first union office that it involves. held by the young John Mitchell was that of doorkeeper. He stood just outside to announce a newcomer, or to exclude an intruder from the deliberations which the boy himself might not hear. Since then he has moved from the outside to the inside, and from the inside to the very innermost room of the structure. His promotion was at first slow, and the union itself was small and of little outward significance. Afterwards the man advanced rapidly. A record of good work promoted him to the vice-presidency, an accident (the resignation of the president) made him the chief executive of the union, and a half-dozen years of hard work and a series of sensational victories put him in the forefront of the labor movement of the country.

After the close of the strike of 1902, I expected to see Mitchell in an ecstasy of elation. Instead, he was calm, serious, and all but depressed. "I am almost afraid of this victory," he told me, late that evening. "I can never be what the people will now expect of me."

And yet he does not lack and never has lacked self-confidence. When the young man became president, friends came to him and advised him to resign in favor of some older man. But, although under thirty, and boyish-looking for his age, he determined to carry out the work which had fallen to him. true that, in deference to those who considered youth a crime or at best a slowly remediable misfortune, he did for a time wear a long coat to appear older, but in a few months his quiet dignity and effective work had won the esteem of the miners, so that he held his position more firmly than any of his predecessors.

Perhaps this dignity is the strongest

point about Mitchell. There is something about this quiet, reserved man that commands respect and saves him from what might otherwise prove embarrassing situations. I can conceive of nothing so wounding to a man's self-esteem as to be forced to listen to exaggerated laudations by well-meaning but tactless admirers; and I have often seen Mitchell quail before this form of torture. he never loses his poise, and he never wounds the man who is unwittingly hurting him. To newspaper reporters also he is dignified, though at the same time The older reporters know that Mitchell will treat them with equal fairness, and they all soon discover that it is absolutely impossible to surprise an answer from him, or to make him say anything when he has decided to remain silent.

It was this dignity and self-control of Mitchell that excited President Roosevelt's admiration at the conference held between the miners' leaders and the railway presidents in the temporary White House. In this interview every one lost his temper except Mitchell, who was the most bitterly assailed and the quietest and most dignified man in the room. After the conference President Roosevelt said: "There was only one man in the room who behaved like a gentleman, and that man was not I."

So accustomed is Mitchell to continuous work that he finds it difficult to relax. For a number of years he had been planning for the time when he could lay aside for a while the duties of union leadership and take a trip to Europe, and finally, in the summer of 1904, after the affairs of the union had been settled, he decided to go abroad. It was absolutely impossible for him, however, even amid the diversions of such a trip, to leave his work or to drop it from his mind. He had not been in Europe many days before letters came from America and before he was exchanging cablegrams with his home office. I have no doubt that he was thinking of the West Virginia situation or the agreement in the anthracite field while he was examining the treasures of the Louvre or traveling in the lowlands of Scotland. Europe his mind gravitated to the labor and cognate problems, and he was far more interested in housing conditions in London or in the government insurance of workingmen in Germany than in any of the things for which most people cross the ocean.

Few people credit Mr. Mitchell with the really fine intelligence which he possesses. He is intelligent but not intellectual, and his knowledge is real and extended but not bookish. His schooling was defective, but even while he was working as a miner he made every effort to remedy its defects. Down in the mines, by the light of his miner's lamp, he used to study arithmetic between cars. He came out of the earth a wiser and a better instructed man than he entered it.

Mr. Mitchell is a man who learns from all manner of men, and who retains tenaciously whatever he hears of value. He is a voracious and keenly intelligent reader of newspapers, but he has read but few books. Of late years he has started to read works on economics, more particularly on the labor problem, and to extend his reading in other directions, but the life which he leads is too intense and his work too absorbing and nerveracking to permit him to read as widely as he otherwise would. His taste in fiction is simple. I have always thought it typical that the book he seemed to like best was "David Harum." homely wisdom and practical common sense of the old country banker appealed to him far more strongly than a psychological novel or a historical romance.

All of Mr. Mitchell's mental powers appear to be constantly at the immediate service of the man. What he cannot do he does not attempt, and what he does, he does surpassingly well. Whether he is making a public speech or presiding over an open meeting, whether he is granting an interview or writing or dictating a letter, or engaged in negotiations involving delicacy and judgment, he appears always at his very best, and seems to have specialized all his life on the particular task at which he is engaged.

While an orator of no mean ability, he is especially successful in presiding over meetings and in allaying antagonism and distrust. I remember seeing him as

chairman of a meeting of the Anthracite Mine Workers convened for the purpose of calling off the strike of 1902. There was a time during the meeting when Mitchell and his friends who advocated peace might have carried their point against a disgruntled minority by a snap The previous question was asked for, but Mr. Mitchell persuaded his side to postpone this vote until every one who had anything to say had been heard. As a consequence of these tactics, which appealed by their fairness to the minority, the vote was delayed for one day, but the result of it, when taken at last, was absolutely unanimous.

The most remarkable feat which I have ever seen Mr. Mitchell perform occurred during his three days' crossexamination before the Anthracite Coal Strike Commission. There seemed to be a conspiracy to bait the president of the Mine Workers, and the placing of Mitchell upon the stand was the signal for the firing off of volleys of accusations against the miners' organization and its chief with the view of entangling him in contradictions and misstatements. was not easy to justify or even to explain all the actions of an organization and its various members during the five months of the struggle. The situation called for a most active and alert intellect; but Mitchell rose to the occasion in a manner surprising even to those who had the highest opinion of his ability. cross-examining lawyers were met by answers perplexing in their directness and apparent simplicity; and in many cases questions which were to have embarrassed the witness acted as boomerangs, and confounded the lawyers who propounded them. In fact, one of the attorneys who had been most intemperate in his cross-examination found himself before many minutes in the undignified position of attempting to justify the actions of his own client, and, in an apologetic and exculpatory frame of mind, finally brought his futile crossexamination to an end.

The most noticeable of John Mitchell's intellectual gifts are a keenness of perception and a saneness of judgment. He seems to possess the remarkable gift of arousing enthusiasm in others without

being blinded by enthusiasm himself. He seems with an instinctive precision to divine the motives of men, and to see the distant results of an action as clearly as its proximate consequences. perhaps many of his successes have been due less to a calculation of results than to the workings of an innate good taste. When, during the strike of 1902, one of the opposed railway presidents was being attacked all over the country for an unfortunate letter which he had written, there was at least one man who let pass the opportunity of taunting him. In fact, I could never discover in Mitchell any sense of animosity or embitterment toward the men to whom he was opposed. While willing to take any fair advantage which opportunity offered, he did not desire to make his attacks personal or in any way to wound the men who antagonized him. His philosophy in that respect is like that of the trained prize-fighter who feels no hatred against his antagonist even though he is endeavoring to disable him temporarily.

The secret of John Mitchell's success lies in part in his comprehension of the other man's philosophy. He realizes perfectly clearly that the actions of men are determined by their training and by the economic conditions under which they live, and he is no more disposed to hate people for disagreeing with him than to quarrel with the laws of gravitation. He is naturally conciliatory in his speech and seeks to meet men on a common ground, tending rather to emphasize their articles of agreement than their points of difference. It is for this reason among others that so many men opposed to trade unionism somehow feel after arguing with Mitchell that there is something to be said for these doctrines, and conclude that Mr. Mitchell, at least, is a reasonable representative of these ideas.

There is no "give" to Mitchell's trade union doctrines. He is first and last and all the time a trade unionist. With him trade unionism is more than a policy. It is almost a religion. It is in vain to bring arguments against trade unionism to him. He invariably attributes any defects to individual mistakes,

and still maintains that the trade union as such is in no wise to blame.

Mr. Mitchell once described himself to me as an opportunist, but I should rather say that he is an opportunist with fixed principles. His fundamental ideal is the elevation of the working class. His conception of the manner in which this may be accomplished is for the time being the building up and improvement of the trade union. Mr. Mitchell does not look far into the future. He consciously limits his vision to the present generation, or even to the next decade. Beyond that he does not understand, and does not much want to understand; he does not seek to guide his present policy by any possible or probable effect that it may have upon the welfare of any future generation. It is perhaps this intentional short-sightedness, as much as anything else, which makes for the power and strength of the trade union leaders. Mitchell does not know whether or not trade unionism will be a thing to be striven for fifty years from now, but for the present he is content to do everything in his power to work along the lines now laid down.

In many ways Mitchell gives indications of his devotion to the trade union movement. One of these signs, which, however, would not appeal to a unionist, is his continuance in office as President of the United Mine Workers, a position which pays only \$3,000 a year, and which requires an intensity and an amount of work sufficient to kill an ordinary man. Mitchell has never sought political preferment, and he has steadily repelled advances by which he might have secured remunerative positions by giving up his interest in the trade union movement. Part of this steadfastness may be due to mere inertia, and to the glamour and the great sense of power which the position confers; but, this notwithstanding, there can be no doubt that in maintaining his present position he is making considerable material sacrifices for a moral end.

While spending a month in Chicago a few years ago, Mitchell was living in a place where he found it difficult to obtain union cigars. I remember one morning our devoting almost an hour to looking for a place where such cigars

could be obtained, and thereafter he regularly took his morning walk of twelve blocks to get his cigars with the coveted union label. There must have been a pleasure in this sacrifice, since I never could persuade him to purchase these union cigars in sufficient quantities to avoid the daily inconvenience.

With all his keenness, Mitchell is, I believe, a pre-eminently simple, straightforward man. He is interested in simple things, and likes people who are naïve and not subtle. He has no taste and little understanding for personal luxuries. and is not vain enough to enjoy the acclaims and laudations which he re-With scores of friends and thousands of admirers, he is, I believe, really lonely; and with a record of great achievements and startling successes, he does not seem to feel much the happier for them. Some men deserve happiness without achieving it, as some achieve it without deserving it. Mitchell feels the sufferings of the class to which he belongs. He is too close to the toiler to consider his calamities statistically. I have seen him moved almost to tears by the news of a mine accident in which two or three unknown foreign miners were killed, at the very moment when he himself was leading a hundred thousand men into hunger and privation in their struggle for a great cause.

Mitchell is scrupulously honest in a position in which even a slight ambiguity of conduct would be extremely lucrative. Mark Twain once boasted that he was superior to George Washington, because George Washington could not tell a lie, whereas he, Twain, could, but would not. I think that Mr. Mitchell's honesty is of the instinctive Washington kind, and not of the reflect ive or Twain variety. He is absolutely and thoroughly devoted to the men and to his union simply because no other course ever suggested itself as a possibility.

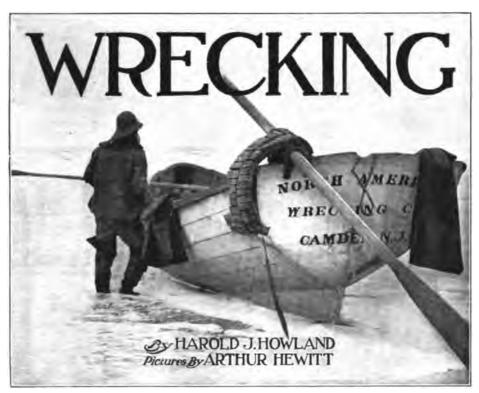
It is characteristic of Mitchell that he believes that no direct attempt was ever made to bribe him. I have a story, at second hand, from a man who himself went to Wilkesbarre with the determination to buy Mitchell, whatever the price. The man was bold, facile, plausible, with

a record which might have been envied by the most enterprising of scoundrels. He arrived at Wilkesbarre late at night, and went straight to Mitchell's room, carrying with him a valise with the goods in it. He came resolved to settle the matter out of hand. He left the room after less than fifteen minutes, without having talked on any subject more exciting than the prospects of the strike or the state of the weather, and without having mustered up courage to propose his dishonorable scheme to the man who gravely and innocently conversed with him.

And yet a man in the position of Mitchell must fear not only attempts at bribery, but cajolery, intimidation, the treachery of secret enemies, and the officiousness and foolish zeal of friends. He is liable to be attacked with the mere idea of drawing him into an unprofitable and dangerous controversy, and he must be able to hold his peace under all manner of provocation. It is difficult to realize how lonely a man like Mitchell may be in his exalted position, with the enormous responsibilities upon him, and it is absolutely impossible to tell how slight a missile may wound him most deeply.

I was once told by Mitchell that the thing which pained him most during the strike of 1902 was a letter received from a man in Chicago telling him that during the strike his wife had been run over by a train while picking up coal along the railroad. "If you ever come to Chicago," the man wrote, "I will surely kill you, though I will give you a chance for your life." It was simply one of a hundred letters of intimidation, but the single note in it of the wife dying as a result of this strike clouded for months the horizon of Mitchell, so that he constantly dreamed of it.

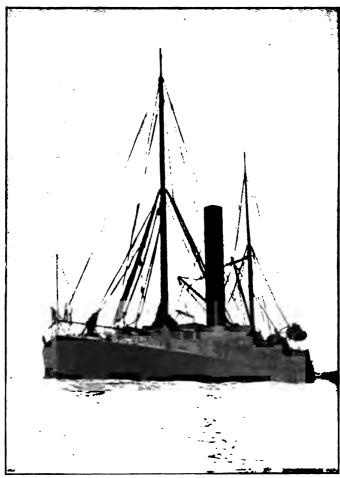
It is by reason of his qualities and their defects, by virtue of his powers and his limitations, that John Mitchell is so mighty and beneficent an influence in the labor world. He is the ideal trade union leader because he is singly and always for the union; because he limits his efforts to the immediately attainable, and because, without compromise, he reconciles opposing factions.



N the outer edge of the famous Board Walk at Atlantic City, just where it makes a bend toward the Inlet, stands a square watch-tower. It belongs to the Atlantic City Life-Saving Station, and beneath it swings the big surf-boat, ready at need to be lowered into the waves that wash about the tower's feet. It was a raw Sunday morning with a brisk wind from the northeast dashing the fine rain into our faces as we tramped along. We clambered up the iron ladder and knocked at the trapdoor in the floor of the tower. door was lifted, and a helping hand pulled us up into a little square room, well filled The life-saver is never a with men. demonstrative fellow, and we did not expect an enthusiastic welcome. every one in the room was too preoccupied even to notice our arrival, and we dropped into a corner with no desire to interrupt the proceedings. At the front window crouched burly Captain Parker, his eye to a telescope, and his whole attitude expressing concentration. his elbow stood a young surfman, with the

black-bound International Signal Code in his hand. Following with our eyes the direction indicated by the telescope, we saw out at sea a steamer, with two masts and a curiously tall funnel, lying quietly as though at anchor. It was the Cherokee, from San Domingo for New York, with a general cargo and a dozen passengers. She had run into fog, lasting for four days, and in the midst of it she found herself fast aground on Brigantine Shoals. To one unfamiliar with that shore and the treacherous nature of those ill-famed sands, there was nothing to indicate the desperate situation of the vessel. In front of the tower, to be sure, and to the east where the Inlet separates the city from Brigantine Island, the foaming breakers showed the presence of shoal water extending far from the beach. But the steamer was too far out for the eye to distinguish the waves which were doubtless breaking over her decks.

"She's just hoisted her ensign and the code flag, to show she wants to talk to us," whispered the life-saver who had opened the trap-door for us. "We've



THE CHEROKEE FAST ON THE BRIGANTINE SHOALS

run up our answering pennant, and the Captain's looking for their signal."

In the silence that followed we could hear the slat of the halliards on the flagstaff above our heads, where our pennant was hoisted at the dip, telling the steamer that we were all eyes for her message.

"They're slow enough about getting that signal up," growled the Captain; and a young life-saver remarked, "Don't suppose they feel any too brisk out there this morning, after last night. Wonder if they had any fire! Say, that wind did blow some, didn't it?"

A muttered exclamation from the Captain forestalled any reply, and we strained our eyes again anxiously through the gloom. There was plenty of cause

for anxiety. The Cherokee had been for forty hours in the sands, and the northeast storm which had been blowing throughout the night must have driven her faster into their grip. There were half a score of passengers on board, forty-odd of her crew, a dozen men of the wrecking crew of the tug North America, and two life saving crews who had gone aboard her soon after she struck.

"There she is," cried the Captain at last. "D;" a pause, then he muttered, "Square flag, yellow and blue diagonal stripes. What's that? Oh, yes: Y." Another pause, while he screwed the glass into a little better focus. "E—D, Y, E. Look her up, Jim."

Jim, with hands stiffened by much

handling of the oar, slowly turned the pages of the Code Book, followed down a column with a thick finger, and announced: "DYE. All well."

A subdued shuffling of feet as each man shifted his position a little, and a hoarse clearing of the throat by one or two, were the only signs of the relief the message had brought to us all.

"Hoist the pennant, Ed," directed the Captain, and in a moment our code flag was flying clear up, telling the steamer's people that their signal was understood.

Captain Parker took up his glass again, and with much less delay this time was able to announce the next signal, "Code flag under U K," which Jim interpreted as "Ten." "Ten what?" asked one of the landlubbers, innocently, to be met with the brief reply, "Don't know. That's coming."

Again our pennant was hoisted clear up and dropped to the dip, and quickly a third string of flags completed the message—"feet of water in the hold."

"Ten feet of water in her hold! That's bad!"

"She must have opened up after that pounding she got last night. She'll

never get off now. No use trying to pump her out with the hole she must have in her."

"Don't believe it. She took it in through her hatchings. The seas were breaking right over her all night."

"Why, man, they wouldn't dare to stir her hatches yet. I'll bet her engines are right through her."

The discussion grew heated and complicated, with frequent references to wrecks of bygone years and strenuous citations of the long and varied experience of the debater in all matters connected with the sea.

But we were more interested in the practical side of the wreck than in any-body's theories about it. We wanted to get on board the Cherokee, and we turned from the discussion to ask the Captain how it could be done.

"Want somebody to take you out to the steamer? Well, you might get some of those fishermen up at the Inlet. Say, Cap," he continued, turning to address an old man in a pilot jacket who was quietly smoking in a corner, "do you know of any boat that might take these boys out to the Cherokee to-day?



WAITING FOR THE SURF TO GO DOWN A LITTLE

There's a powerful sea running out there," and he indicated with a sweep of his arm the waste of breakers which lay between us and the ship.

"Cap" rose stiffly from his chair, gazed for a moment out over the waters, his eyes shaded by his hand, and replied, "Waal, guess none of those fellers would want to go out there to-day 'thout they had some almighty good reason for it. There's the Alberta, now. She might do it if you pa'd enough for it. She's the best boa. sailin' out of the Inlet."

"I heard this morning," broke in the young lifesaver called Ed, "that Casto refused an offer of a hundred dollars

to go out to the ship yesterday."

"Waal, he might go to-day, if ye paid him right. But if Mark Casto won't go, nobody else would dare to."

Discouraged by this statement of the case, we determined to go over to the South Brigantine Life-Saving Station, the nearest station to the shoals where the steamer lay. A few hours later we embarked at the Inlet in a Bank skiff fitted with a gasoline engine, navigated by a genial fisherman of uncertain age, with spectacles resting far down on his nose, and a spark of dry humor in his eye. We had just learned that Mark Casto and the Alberta had gone out to the Cherokee at eleven o'clock. But it was no promise of pay that had made



Foreman of the North America's wrecking crew.

him drive his little schooner through those foaming breakers to the side of the stranded vessel. It was the message we had seen signaled the morning, "Ten feet of water in the hold," that had made him resolve help that to stranded company if he could. As we circled round the serpentine curves of the channel that leads through salt meadows to Brigantine's back door we could see, now dead ahead, now abeam, now astern, as the vagaries of the channel whirled us about, the Alberta lying to not far from the Cherokee. Her mainsail, sheeted in, was shaking in the wind, and her mastheads performed

tesque dance as she rolled and pitched with the waves. What they were doing out there we didn't know; but soon her foresail was hoisted, then her jib, and she filled away toward Atlantic City.

The South Brigantine Life-Saving Station is an old and incommodious building, hardly a credit to our Government's sense of generosity in providing for its faithful servants. But you can get as warm a welcome there as in the finest station in the service, and the appearance of the building is no criterion of the spirit which it houses. Captain Smith and most of his crew were still on the Cherokee, but two surfmen had come off with the crew of the Brigantine station, their neighbors to the north. After

dozen supper a members of a wrecking crew, who were waiting for an opportunity to get aboard the steamer and assist their comrades already there in doing all that was possible to save the vesseland her cargo, dropped in, one by one, from the neighboring hotel.

" Well, George, how's it been out on the steamer these two days? Been hard?" working asked the captain of the wreckers, as he pulled up a chair and extended his luxuriously legs under the stove. George, thus addressed, was Surf-



man George Blackman, the Number One of the South Brigantine crew. He had just been promoted to the position of Keeper of the Forked River Station up the coast, whither he would betake himself in a few days. He shivered and drew closer to the fire.

"There's one thing I'm sure of," said he; "the water's blamed cold out there."

"How do you know? Been in it?' queried the wrecker.

"You bet I have. I was thrown out of that lifeboat as clean as anything you ever saw."





A TRIO OF WRECKERS

He hugged himself a little tighter as he recalled his icy bath, and then continued, "But we got every one of those passengers and the crew aboard the Alberta without hurting anybody, and that was pretty good luck with that sea running. Mine was the only accident there was, and I guess it didn't hurt me any. I've been twenty years in the service, and if I was to stay twenty years more I wouldn't expect to do a harder day's work than we did out there to-day."

In response to a little urging, he told us, simply and quietly, the story of the

pasttwodays. The crew of this station had gone out to the steamer soon after she struck, and not many hours later the North America. the wrecking company's big seagoing tug, appeared and sent a big hawser aboard the stranded ship and set herself doggedly to the task of pulling her off. The sea was quiet, and the captain of the Cherokee expected that at any moment she would be freed from the sands. So the life-savers' offer to land the passengers in their surf-boats was courteously de-

clined. The North America kept at her work all day Saturday, but the steamer had run far on the shoals, and the Brigantine quicksands have a tenacious grip. Saturday evening it began to blow hard from the northeast, and the tug had to slip her hawser and run to sea for safety. that night the wind blew merrily and the seas broke spitefully over the deck of the captive vessel, throwing the spray It was an almost to her mastheads. anxious night for all on board, and crew and passengers were glad of the presence of the life-savers with their stanch surf-Sunday morning found steamer a mile nearer the shore and settled more securely in the sands, the "ten feet of water in the hold" forcing her gradually deeper and deeper. It was useless to think of taking the people from the ship in the surf-boats with so heavy a sea running, except as a desperate last resort. The time hadn't yet come for that, and there was nothing to do but to wait.

It was about noon that the Alberta came out, driving straight across the bar, where a record high tide gave her all the water she needed. Working the schooner round to windward, Captain

Casto dropped anchor three hundred and fifty fathoms away, and paid out his cable slowly until the Alberta was within a hundred fathoms of steamer. With two of his crew he launched a dory and boarded the Cherokee with the dry query, "Anybody want to go ashore?" There were plenty who did, and the lifesaving crews, aided by Casto and his men and by the wreckers. undertook the work of transferring passengers and crew. One of the steam-



CAPTAIN MARK CASTO

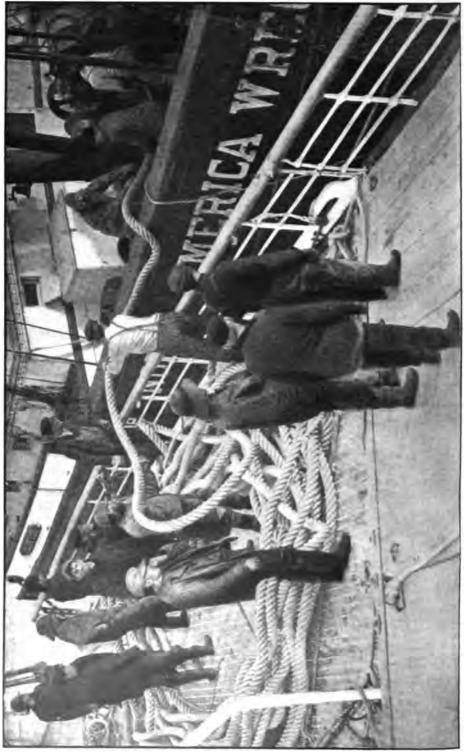
er's lifeboats, with lines from her bow to each of the two vessels, was ferried back and forth till all the ship's company except the captain, the first officer, and the carpenter were crowded in the Alberta's tiny cabin and on her deck. The waves rolled level with the steamer's deck, and at times the watchers could hardly see the Alberta as a sea broke over her, smothering her with the spray. Four boats were lost before the rescue was complete. One of the Alberta's dories was stove in as she crossed the bar; the other was swept away by a sea which snapped the line by which it was being slacked away from the steamer's side a



THE BOAT THAT DID THE RESCUING
The dent in its side shows where it struck the Alberta



THE ALBERTA LANDING A LOAD OF CARGO FROM THE CHEROKEE



moment after Casto and his companions had left it; one of the ship's boats, used to carry a line to the Alberta, was overturned and swept away, again just after its occupants had quitted it; another was snatched from the davits where it hung above the steamer's rail.

Many journeys had been safely made by the little boat when, as she started away from the Alberta's side, a sudden sea swept her back with a vicious slap against the schooner's rail. Almost before he knew what had happened. George was thrown, as he explained it, "clip an' clean" into the water ten feet from the boat. His cork jacket buoved him up. and a few strokes brought him within reach of the line thrown him by his companions. He wasn't in the water many minutes, but it doesn't take a long swim in January to chill the blood even of a seasoned life-saver.

After a climb to the cupola of the station for a look at the lights out at sea, showing where the tug and lighter lay ready for the morning's work, we turned in for a good sleep, broken only by a call to the telephone to tell some newspaper man that there was nothing new from the wreck.

The next day we went out to the stranded steamer with the life-savers. A first trip from the beach in a surf-boat with a good sea running is an experience to be remembered, and to be avoided if your nerve is not quite steady. is, first of all, something a little ominous in the businesslike way in which they strap you into a cumbrous cork jacket. The rollers breaking on the beach have a savage look as the Captain waits for the right moment to give the word; and when you are well into them, the ease with which they shoulder the boat high in the air and drop it with a slap into the succeeding trough is impressive. But the seven sturdy surfmen handle their fourteen-foot oars as easily as you would a canoe paddle, and the Captain standing above you, as you crouch in the stern, guides the big boat with the long steering-oar, with a finesse that is even more impressive than the blustering forcefulness of the waves.

On the steamer's deck we found her Captain, plainly worn by the strain and

anxiety of the past few days, but with an expression of eye and mouth that told of courage and nerve unbroken even by this first disaster in his many years of service. Decks, cabins, staterooms, and gallery showed a sad con The ten-inch hawser of the wrecking tug in a huge coil on the forward deck was a witness to her prompt but unavailing effort to foil the greed of the sands. A hoist of signal flags trailed on the deck from its slack halyard; miscellaneous ropes, usually coiled away, shipshape, on handspikes or in lockers, lay scattered promiscuously; a barrel of hardtack stood open in the saloon; on the bridge a china plate bore fragments of icing from a Christmas cake; in the staterooms the little accompaniments of travel, a tooth-brush, a comb, a bunch of magazines, a razor, had been dropped or forgotten in the hurry of departure. Confusion had even penetrated to the pilot-house, the inner sanctuary of seamanship and orderliness, where the mute engine-room telegraph, its pointer at the words "full speed astern," told of the moment when the touch of the shoal was felt. On the lee rail the hand lead, which for some mysterious reason had failed to warn the mariners, bewildered by the fog, of the dangerous shallows so near at hand, hung in its useless coils of line.

A trip down the after-companionway ended abruptly in an expanse of water covered with floating débris, and with table-tops rising above in the dim light like shadowy islands. The "ten feet of water in the hold" had doubled, and the water without and within was at the same level, rising and falling with the tide. Until that water could be got out, the good ship Cherokee would stay where she was, nestling slowly but inevitably into the coaxing, cruel sands.

Whether the water could be got out was for the North America's big pump to say, as soon as the sea was calm enough for it to be put aboard. Meanwhile there was plenty for the wreckers to do. All the ship's fittings that could be carried away must be collected and transferred to the Alberta and some of her companion smacks, to be taken to Atlantic City, with as much of her cargo as could be reached at ebb tide. As we



TAKING A HAWSER OFF TO THE LOTTIE

left the steamer that afternoon they were busily ripping up carpets, unscrewing lamps, candle-holders, mirrors, and washbasins, coiling up ropes, stripping the pilot-house and bridge of chronometer, compass, binnacle lamps, and charts.

A wrecker has need of an ample stock of patience, as we found out during the next two days. A blow from the northeast, hardly half a gale, but enough to make approach to the stranded steamer difficult, kept us all on shore, kicking our heels and listening to stories of former wrecks from the old-timers of the company. Every one had left the ship soon after we did, for they could do no good by spending the night there, and a sudden storm might add danger to the discomforts of life on the cheerless deck. Only a quartet of watchmen, armed with Winchesters, garrisoned the vessel; for there are other "wreckers," descendants of those rough men of olden days to whom a wreck on their shore was treasure-trove brought to them by Providence, and not always an unassisted Providence.

At last the wind swung to the west, smoothing out the sea. In the gray morning chill, at an hour so early that the too-civilized processes of an Atlantic City hotel could not compass

even the thought of breakfast, we groped our way across the wharf to the deck of the Alberta. A hail down the companionway to our friend the cook brought up cups of coffee, huge sandwiches of fried eggs, and a handful of cookies. By twos and threes the wreckers appeared from various directions, and we were well across the bar before the sun began to drive away the morning mists. Once on the ship the hustle began. The tide was at the ebb, and in the next few hours they must get out as much cargo as they could. A fishing-smack was laid alongside amidships, and through an open port a miscellaneous collection of merchandise was poured into her. Bags of raw sugar, soaked in salt water till half their contents was dissolved, and they became slimy, slippery masses of stickiness; great square logs of satinwood; misshapen chunks of fustic or yellow-wood, the raw material of dyestuffs of many colors: round logs of lignum vitæ destined to become bowlingballs, ship's blocks, rulers, and pestles; bales of sisal hemp, a product of a kind of century plant, and the best fiber for making cordage, next to manila hemp. Not only cargo but a dozen handtrucks, used for loading and unloading when in port, great coils of hawsers and

mooring-lines, heavy chains for hoisting cargo from the hold, were dragged out and stowed away on the smack.

Overhead, at the ship's rail, stood the jovial little custom-house officer, carefully noting every bag of sugar, every log of wood, every bale that left the ship, for nothing must pass Uncle Sam's protective wall, even in case of disaster, without his knowledge and consent. Beside him a young member of the wrecking crew kept equal tally of the cargo, and, besides, a list of everything belonging to the ship that went ashore; for the insurers, who in this case controlled the wrecking company as well, must keep good track of everything that is landed, for what they can save will

help them out on the insurance that they must pay.

Below in the 'tween-decks a gang of wreckers, rubber-booted to the hips, and armed with iron hooks, waded through the dirty flood and dragged the cargo to the open port. The pale wintry light from without mingled with the smoky gleam of a couple of ship's lanterns, and half revealed a scene weird and unnat-The incongruity of this expanse of water inside the ship, the tide rising and falling, the swells sweeping regularly through her in unison with those without, emphasized the pathos of her plight. On deck the work of dismantling was going on; all the metal fittings, stateroom and cabin furnishings, everything,



FITTING UP THE BOILER

in fact, that was movable and detachable, went over the side into the rapidly filling smack.

The North America, with her big attendant lighter, the Lottie, lay out at sea, as near as the depth of water would permit. Toward noon a surf-boat put

over toward us. It was lowered lightly into position on our deck, to be followed by the centrifugal pump, looking like a great snail-shell mounted on a pedestal for exhibition purposes. The engineer and his assistants followed—not, however, by the derrick route—and began, with



ONE OF THE ALBERTA'S CREW

out from the steamer bearing the free end of a hawser from a coil on deck. The end was taken to the Lottie, made fast to her steam-winch, and the broadbeamed craft began to pull herself in, hand over hand, to the motionless steamer. She came alongside, and made fast bow and stern; one of her big derricks picked up from her deck, like a toy, a twenty-foot boiler and swung it workmanlike despatch, to fit up pump and boiler with their proper steam-pipes and valves. They cut a hole in the deck and dropped a six-inch inlet pipe far down into the water in the hold.

With them came Captain Gibbons, the company's wrecking-master, and for over a score of years in command of the North America. If his face was shriveled as if by the force of the ocean winds,

and the watery blue of his eye seemed to reflect a little the element whose work he had so many times striven to undo, there was no lack of force and decision in his character. Things began to move a little more rapidly and to better purpose as he took command in person. He was a quaint figure in his little overcoat of pious black and his hat that aroused at once the enthusiasm of the artist, who cannot quite forget his English origin, and who whispered, "By Jove, that's a real 'bowler' hat; it's a beastly long time since I've seen the real thing."

The Captain looked over the vessel with the eye of experience, and pointed out how the deck in the smoking-room was bulging and how the woodwork in the corners of the room was racked. "That shows it," he said; "it wouldn't hump up that way unless her bottom was broken. I'm afraid it won't be much good to start the pump going, but the owners want it tried, so we're going to try it. If this wind shifts, though, we're likely to lose our pump and boiler It wouldn't take many seas breaking over her the way they did the other night to pick them clean off the deck. Well, let 'em go; they don't owe us anything. They've done some good bits of work in their time."

We asked him about the night the North America had to slip her hawser and run for it.

"Well, sir, I held on as long as I could. But it didn't look as though they were having a good time on the steamer

The seas weren't breaking over her house; they were breaking over her mastheads. I tell you, it did blow. I was sure then that her bottom was broke. She couldn't have stood that pounding and not opened up some. I knew that even if we did get her off that night and out into deep water, she'd just as likely as not go straight to the bottom. didn't want to risk it, you can be sure. Men are worth a lot more to me than ships—especially when they're women." Leaving final directions for the pumping at the next flood tide, the Captain went aboard the Lottie. With a hawser to the North America this time, she walked herself out to her berth again, and soon started off behind the tug to the Delaware Breakwater after coal.

As we left the steamer that afternoon the pump was all ready to begin its task in the morning—a task that seemed to promise about as little practical result as the proverbial operation of trying "to spit to windward."

Back in the city a few days later, an item tucked away in the corner of the morning paper provoked moralizations on the uncertainties of prophecy and the particularly hazardous nature of the business of making predictions in the case of ships and other feminines. It read:

Atlantic City, N. J., Jan. 27.—The stranded steamer Cherokee was entirely cleared of water by the pump last night, and was promptly freed from the shoal by the wrecking tug North America. She proceeded to New York in tow of the tug this morning.





PHOTOGRAFIE BY FACH DESTREES NEW YORK

JAMES R. GARFIELD

THE FIRST COMMISSIONER OF CORPORATIONS

BY GAILLARD HUNT

HERE is no severer test of character than that which comes to the children of men of great Flattery and indulgence surround them and combine for their undoing; and this is especially the case when the father occupies such an eminence as the Presidency of the United States. In attaining this supreme position there are no preparatory gradations, but he and his family are suddenly lifted up to an altitude in which they have been wholly unaccustomed to live; for the distance between any other public position in our country, however high, and the Presidency is not measurable, it is so great.

When James A. Garfield was the leader of the House of Representatives. he lived a retired family life, surrounded by a family of five young children, who attracted no more attention than the children of a hundred other men in Washington. Every summer they spent upon the farm at Mentor, Ohio, surrounded by neighbors who lived as simply as they did. They had, however, an advantage over other children, for the father was a gentle and persistent teacher. He had at one time been a school-teacher and a preacher, too, and the home was a place in which the children learned while they played, and heard sermons without knowing they were being preached to. This father was a great scholar, who knew his Horace as well as he knew the Republican platform, and could discourse with equal facility upon the Books of Moses or the tariff, and he talked to his children about the subject in which he was interested. In nature he was himself a boy, and a very lovable boy, and his own boys had a romantic love and admiration for him and patterned after him. The mode of life and bringing up of this family were idyllic, and there was nothing to indicate that it would change until the children

should go out in the world to start homes of their own.

In June, 1880, the two eldest boys were at St. Paul's School, waiting for the school term to close, when they would join the rest of the family at the farm. The father was attending a convention to nominate a candidate for the Presidency; but the family would soon be united at the farm, and plans were already being made for the summer; when, without a word of warning, a thunderbolt fell and shattered all the plans. father was nominated for the Presidency, and for the next six months the farm was a place of turmoil and confusion. the centering point for millions of pairs of eyes and the resort of thousands of visitors. They looked first upon the candidate, and then upon his farm and cattle, and then upon his wife and children, and pictures and descriptions of them all were sent far and wide. The pretty lawns around the wooden house were flattened by myriads of feet; the fences were broken by the crowds; brass bands came every day and rent the air with blaring music, and orators shouted out speeches to a gentleman who stood upon his own porch and realized that it was his own no more—that he had accepted service of a new master who would permit him to have no private life, and that the simplicity and charm of the home circle were gone.

From Mentor the Garfields moved into the White House at Washington. Any week-day the people can walk into the house from the street and satisfy their curiosity by wandering through its corridors and testing the chairs in the great East Room; for it is their house and the occupants are merely tenants at will. When General Garfield was President, the house was also the public executive office, and a thin partition was all that kept office-seekers from intruding into the bedrooms. Assuredly, the

surroundings were not those in which an intelligent father would wish to rear a boy.

When James Rudolph Garfield, the President's second son, went to live in the White House, he was sixteen years of age, probably the most critical age of He was a harum-scarum, ubiquitous boy, and Washington soon came to know him well. He rode horseback a great deal and often rode fast; he had a choice group of associates who were no more civilized than himself, and their pranks were interesting and various. Young Jim was seen driving a four-mule team before a farm wagon one day, and there was a rumor that he had taken a swim in the White House fountain late one night. The serious throng that frequented his father's office was often startled by loud whoops coming from other parts of the house, where Jim and his companions were engaged in frivolous pursuits. If he had not had an elder brother more staid and sober-minded than himself to guard over him, there is no telling what extravagance of conduct he might not have committed.

The White House life lasted only a few months, and closed in gloom. The adored father was stricken down, and before death had claimed him his two elder sons were at Williams College. After the father's death the world forgot James went through college quietly and creditably. The early training had laid a foundation which the dangerous surroundings during the Presidential period had not shaken, and upon this foundation he began to build. graduation he tested his leaning for a doctor's life and studied medicine, but, finding that he preferred the law, he went to New York and entered a law office and the Columbia law school. He took his degree and went back to Ohio, and soon the firm of Garfield and Garfield, lawyers, was doing business, the senior partner being that elder brother who had been James's monitor when they lived in the White House.

Mentor is an attractive place. The old house which President Garfield owned has been much enlarged since his death, and near it is the handsome house which James built for himself as

soon as he had the necessary money. The village itself is a model village. There is a good free library, which was established before Mr. Carnegie began giving libraries away; a neat town hall; a well-kept street which is lighted at night; and a sturdy little lock-up, which is seldom occupied. The village is well governed, and a part of this government James Garfield was from the time he became a lawyer until he accepted a Federal office, and he worked hard to give his village as good a government as any other village in the land. He believed that his first duty lay in this village, and Mentor admits that it owes him a great deal.

While he was still helping to govern Mentor he was elected to the State Senate, and his service there was especially notable for two measures with which he was identified—a Corrupt Practices Act, which he carried through triumphantly, and one of the best-drawn civil service bills ever offered in a State legislature, which failed of passage. The Corrupt Practices Act was a thorn in the sides of the bad politicians of both parties for several years, and one day, after he had left the Senate and was absent from the State in California, they repealed it. He had by this time acquired a goodly number of enemies among a certain class of men, who realized that he would become a power in the State and that he was an inflexible man.

In the State Senate a tough old member who wished to brand him as a "purist" once blunderingly called him a "Puritan," but in reality he is both, for he comes of that Puritan stock which lost nothing of its strength by being transplanted from New England to the Western Reserve. James Garfield's father was a member of the Christian Church and his mother a Presbyterian, and he himself joined the Presbyterian Church early in life, although he often attends the Episcopal. He belongs naturally to a northern religion, and although he has been known to go to a Catholic church, there is no probability of his ever asking to be received into that fold. While the formative part of his life was most liberal in its mental surroundings, it was in its routine and conduct a strict and

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simple life regulated upon New England traditions, and these have clung to him and formed him. As for his being a purist, he belongs to the band of young reformers who have entered public life with the avowed purpose of fighting the old politicians and bringing in a new and higher order of things, based neither upon machines nor spoils.

After two terms of service in the State Senate, James Garfield was announced as a candidate for the nomination for Congress. Most of the people in his district wanted him, but there were certain men who were determined not to have him, and, seeing no other way to prevent his nomination, they cheerfully cheated him out of it. A few years afterwards Theodore Roosevelt sent for him and asked him to be a Civil Service Commissioner. The place is not a difficult one for an honest and strong man to fill, but it is one which tests a man's honesty and strength. A Commissioner's friends, not realizing the impropriety of their doing so, constantly appeal to him for assistance in obtaining Government positions. He can, if he chooses, tell them where there are vacancies, and might, if he were a scoundrel, indicate what lines a Civil Service examination will follow. It is astonishing how often honest people ask him to do this very thing. James Garfield's first experience in Federal office was thus in a place where he could not only learn a great deal about the executive machinery of the Government, but where he could see some of the most disagreeable features of place-hunting.

When he came to serve on the Commission, he was himself seen for the first time by that world in Washington which runs the Federal Government and has a great deal of power. It saw a young man, thirty six years old, six feet tall and straight as an arrow, with a broad chest and no superfluous flesh on his bones, with a wide face and a sweet mouth like his father's, and big eyebrows already growing bushy over his gray eyes. found him with polished manners, on occasion courtly, on occasion genial, and on rare occasions cold. In intimate social life it was charmed by his frank boyishness. It found him in disposition

an optimist, looking at the bright side of things, and always ready to make the best of situations even when they became disagreeable. It found that he said Yes or No with equal readiness and meant what he said; that he had, indeed, the poise of an older man, and did not have

to unsay things.

Now, this Washington world knows what it is about, and those who constitute it look to their interests and gauge new men more or less accurately. They are all after something or other, and a man is of importance to them according to his power. They saw a coming man in James Garfield and lionized him accordingly. They saw, as a chief circumstance to justify the lionizing, that the head of the State had received him into such friendship and confidence as he has given to few others. No one was surprised when he was selected to be the first Commissioner of Corporations, although from the President's point of view there was no office under the Government of greater importance than this In a few years' time the question must be decided of how far the National Government will go in supervising the conduct of corporations engaged in business of National extent, and the question is a mighty one, with Socialism lurking at one end and organized robbery at the other. When Garfield entered upon his new office, no one knew what he would do. He might hale the trusts before him and shake their bones; and, if he did so, he would be applauded by a large crowd of onlookers. A man might even ride into a nomination for the Presidency by that road. Or he might stand for a comfortable and inactive conservatism, which would please men who know the way and have the means to make those who oblige them prosperous and happy. It soon became evident, however, that the Commissioner of Corporations was not studying to please either the crowd or the conservatives, but that he was following a policy of his own and keeping his counsel concerning it. When his first annual report appeared, it showed that he was in favor of effective Government supervision of big corporations and not opposed to the existence or formation of big corporations, and that he was preparing to present a plan for accomplishing his purpose. The report is an able and conclusive argument in favor of Government supervision—the best, in fact, that has thus far appeared—and it put the author's reputation upon solid ground. It is written with perfect fairness, and is a good example of close logical reasoning and scientific treatment of a subject which is usually treated. from a sentimental standpoint. There is an entire absence of striving for popularity; and when the Commissioner began to investigate the trusts, there was the same indifference to attracting public notice. For example, when he made his report on the Beef Trust, the public was disappointed because he did not say to what amount it was being oppressed. The average householder was looking for a report which would give good reason for his being enraged at the price he was paying for his beefsteaks, and did not, of course, notice the opening page of the report, which warned him that it was only partial, and that, as another Department was investigating a certain phase of the subject, the Commissioner of Corporations could not discuss it. The packers took the report with elation; and afterwards, when they were

on trial on a criminal charge, endeavored to show that the Commissioner had been guilty of bad faith towards them, else they would not have been tried at

When the friends of James Garfield read this shocking charge, there was not one among them who did not feel certain that it was false. The Attorney-General promptly said that the prosecutions he was conducting were not based upon information furnished by Garfield, and that disposed of the charge, so far as the public's opinion was concerned; but to those who know the Commissioner of Corporations, the Attorney-General's statement was unnecessary, for to them it was an impossible supposition that James Garfield could break faith with any man.

When the matured scheme for corporation supervision shall have been presented—a scheme which will offer a means of preventing the evils for which there are now occasional prosecutions after the evils have been committed—the public will know that the credit for the outcome belongs largely to James Garfield, and that there are few other men in public life who could do what he is doing towards the solution of the most difficult problem of the day.

AFTER

BY FLORENCE EARLE COATES

After the darkness, dawning, And stir of the rested wing; Fresh fragrance from the meadow, Fresh hope in everything!

After the winter, springtime
And dreams, that, flower-like, throng;
After the tempest, silence;
After the silence, song.

After the heat of anger, Love, that all life enwraps; After the stress of battle, The trumpet sounding "taps."

After regret and doubting,
A faith without alloy,
God here and over yonder,—
The end of all things—joy!

THE FOREST PRIMEVAL

BY PHILIP W. AYRES

Forester of the Society for the Protection of New Hampshire Forests

ILLUSTRATED WITH PHOTOGRAPHS BY THE AUTHOR AND OTHERS



THE LAST OF NEW ENGLAND'S WHITE PINE

BIG Tom Wilson was a famous guide in the high mountains of North Carolina. Looking for his house, forty miles from a railroad, I came upon him in his corn-field, unmistakably Big Tom, tall, gaunt, and deep-chested. His long, somber face, with keen eyes, lighted up eagerly to meet a stranger, for visitors were few in that distant valley. Immediately he agreed to go with me to the top of Mount Mitchell, the highest point in all the Appalachian Mountains. It was my good fortune to have to wait a day at his house before he could make the trip. This was a typical mountain home of

the region. Its main feature was the wide, sunny "porch," as wide and long as the house itself. A spinning-wheel wound with fresh yarn stood near the door, and a home-made armchair and a long bench at one end were offset by some boxes of "setting" hens at the other. A couple of dogs lay lazily in the sun, and there was an assortment of articles hanging on pegs—firearms and fishing-poles, harness and farm tools. Back of the porch was the main room of the house, clean, with a wide fireplace, and several feather beds covered with blue counterpanes. The lamps were simple tallow dips, for it was "unconvenient"



THE PRIMEVAL FOREST AT THE BASE OF MOUNT JEFFERSON, NEW HAMPSHIRE
This forest has now been removed leaving an expanse of devastation like that shown on the opposite page

to carry kerosene and chimneys in saddle-bags over the mountains. There were no books or papers of any kind, except a copy of the Bible, which Big Tom said he could read, "because the words are easier to spell out than in books and papers." Scattered through the valley in clearings above the home farm were the log houses and plain frame houses of the married sons and daughters of the family. Big Tom had the distinction of having the only two appletrees in all the region. At the lower end of the valley the nearest neighbor's daughter, a barefooted girl of twenty, was hoeing cabbages in a garden. She had never been out of the valley, and, never before having heard of New York, allowed that it must be very "fur off."

On a glorious summer morning we started up the mountain, carrying an ax and an old pistol that Big Tom always took into the woods, our blankets and provisions strapped to the back of a mule. By a roundabout way he took me to a "moonshine" whisky still whose whereabouts he knew—for there were rattlesnakes on the mountain. He was a temperate man, although he said that

the way to take whisky for rattlesnakes is "to have it in ye, jest before ye're bit." We soon got beyond the timber that had heard the sound of an ax into the prime-val woods.

We stepped up through ferns and rich moss, kept green by the great number of little streams that ran down the mountain. There was little undergrowth because of the dense shade above, save here and there large clumps of evergreen shade-loving laurel. The magnificent boles of the tulip poplar trees measured sometimes five feet in diameter, and the rings of one that had been felled for the honey of wild bees showed four hundred years of growth. There were many species of trees—white oak, red and black oak, hickory, beech, and the birches. On a gravelly ridge were groups of ancient chestnut-trees whose bark was plowed in deep ridges; and in a fertile cove higher up the hard maple and the familiar Pennsylvania maple, for in these mountains the Northern flora meets the Southern. On the lower slopes occur rich forms like rhododendron and the flowering dogwood; higher, the white pine and laurel of New England; and higher still the

spruces and firs of northern Canada. Professor Gray is said to have found no region in this country richer botanically.

Not infrequently the way led through the edges of windfalls, the constant waste of an uncared-for forest, where between the fallen logs thickets of young trees were competing one another out of life, only a few of the sturdiest surviving to renew the old growth. In a primeval forest there is always nature's perfect balance of growth and decay.

After climbing for more than two hours through this hardwood forest, one realized not only its richness, but also its vast extent. Hundreds of thousands of acres stretched away through the mountains, unbroken except the clearings in the valleys—the last hardwood forest in the country as yet comparatively untouched by the lumbermen. As the slopes grew steeper the deep-rooted hardwoods gradually gave way to the shallow-rooted

spruces that find sustenance in the thin soil of swamps and high mountain slopes. We came into the great black belt of spruces that Big Tom said spread out for thirty miles unbroken, crowning these mountain tops. From them the range takes its name—the Black Mountains and Mount Mitchell is called the Great Black Dome. Going up through a tangle of low blueberry-bushes, we killed a rattlesnake that struck at the hind feet of the mule but fortunately missed them. The noise of a rattlesnake is strikingly like that of a baby's rattle, but never commonplace. Higher up, near the timber line, where the trees became scrubby from their struggle with the storms, fresh scratches of bears were seen on the bark of beech-trees. Still higher the trees became mere bushes, and the green cone of the mountain drew us on towards the summit.

At the top we looked out over the



The primeval forest when the lumberman gets through with it



WESTERN WHITE PINE
Trees three hundred and thirty years old on the Priest River Forest Reserve, Idaho



Sold by the Government under the Timber and Stone Act to a lumber company at an average price of thirteen cents per thousand feet. Its real value is about \$10 per thousand



TULIP POPLARS IN NORTH CAROLINA

Trees four and five feet in diameter and one hundred and thirty feet tall

wonderful succession of purple mountains stretching far into the dim evening light, or on the nearer red and green tops of Mount Clingman and the Seven Sisters, with the last rays of sunlight upon them-each, Tom said, as high as Mount Washington or higher, and he was right. The top of Mount Mitchell is the highest point between the Rocky Mountains, the Alps, and the Andes nearly a mile and a half straight up above the level of the sea. We found there the grave of Professor Mitchell, with its metal headstone, placed by his students many years ago, blown over by A few paces below this grave the wind. is a shelving rock that forms a cave. Here we spread our blankets on the dry rocky floor, with a fire at our feet, made from dry limbs that we carried up a few hundred feet.

Sleep was difficult. In that rare atmosphere the stars twinkled with twice or thrice their usual brilliance. Presently the moon, half-rimmed, spread a halo

over the neighboring peaks. Big Tom told the story of Professor Mitchell, teacher of chemistry at the University of North Carolina, whom he had found fifty-three years before, after eleven days' Mr. Mitchell had found and loved this mountain, and having a difference with Mr. Clingman, a lawyer of Raleigh, as to which was the higher. Mount Clingman or the Black Dome, he came over the mountain on his way to Big Tom's house, and, crossing a log over a chasm, slipped. Later Tom helped the students carry up the body and the headstone and place them on the very top—there, above our heads. Big Tom told of his having been drafted against his will into the Confederate Army and taken "into Kaintuck, where there warn't no water fit to drink." He said he had "jest cried for these here springs in these here mountings," and finally deserted and came home.

Then we talked about the clearings made in the mountains and the washing



SPRUCE AND RHODODENDRON

Near the summit of Grandfather Mountain, North Carolina



away of the clay soils, so that a farm became useless in one generation; of the steady rains for days together, the swollen streams and piles of rock spread over the fields below. He told of a mill and farm-house in another valley that had been washed away, and of another farm covered with rocks and débris so that it could not be used. This, he said, was the result of clearing. I learned afterwards that the annual rainfall in



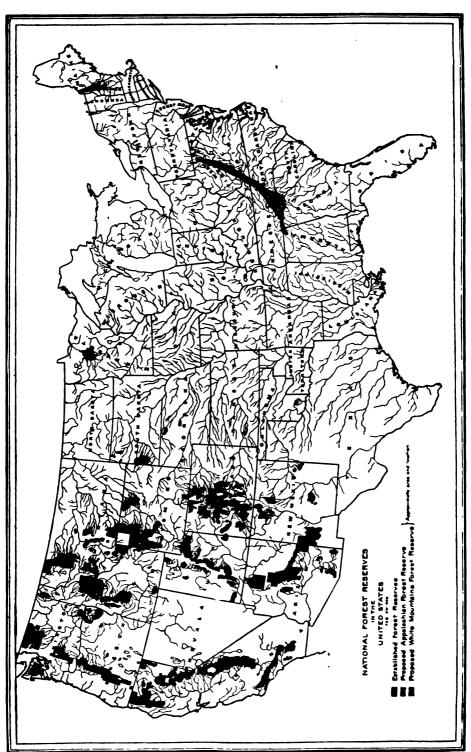
SPRUCE TREE TWO HUNDRED YEARS OLD KILLED BY FIRE

this region is seventy-three inches, the greatest in the United States except on the northern Pacific coast; that the clay soil quickly dissolves and washes away, and that in one year some seventeen million dollars' worth of property had been destroyed by the rivers that flow from these and neighboring mountains in Georgia, Tennessee, and Virginia, through nine important Southern States to the sea. Through the Kanawha, the Tennessee, and the Cumberland Rivers, clearings in this mountain region affect the flood waters in the Ohio and Mississippi. became convinced that these mountains. lying in parts of seven States, the Virginias, the Carolinas, Georgia, Tennessee, and Kentucky, can be controlled by none of them, nor is any adequate cooperative action possible in seven separate legislative bodies. The need of saving the timber and protecting the flow of streams can be met only by the Federal Government, and that promptly; for in this last great hardwood forest the lumbermen are operating every year on With the gradual exa larger scale. haustion of the forests in other parts of the country and the unprecedented rise in the price of timber, larger capital

brings in new methods to overcome the steep mountains swift. treacherous streams. The Federal Government alone has power to prevent the enormous expenditures that must come later in slowly reforesting these mountains if the present forests are once swept off.

The problems are the same in the White Mountain region, but further advanced. With the rapid growth of papermaking from spruce, thirty mill-

The fire burned away two feet and eight inches of soil ion dollars have been invested in mills and machinery in New Hampshire alone during the last fifteen years. Trees old and young, large and small, down to six inches in diameter, are used. On the high slopes where spruce grows unmixed with other species, and all of the trees are small, everything is cut, and those under six inches diameter (sometimes two-thirds of the standing forest) are left to rot upon the ground. the most wasteful and destructive method of lumbering that it is possible to imagine, practiced on the high slopes by all of the operating companies without exception. Fire follows almost invariably in the débris. As the soil on the mountains is largely vegetable mold, it also is consumed, so that the possibility of any forest growth of value is postponed from one to three centuries, and sometimes only the naked rocks remain. Eighty-four thousand acres in the White Mountain region were burned over in the single year 1903. About five thousand acres have been rendered completely and permanently barren. The great rivers of New England—the Androscoggin, the Saco, the Merrimack, and the Connecticut—rise in the White



Mountains and their immediate vicinity. They affect all of the New England States except Rhode Island, furnishing means of navigation, manufacturing power, and drinking-water to many cities.

But it is not the waterflow alone that makes these forests important. the young timber as well as the old is cut off, the resources of the future are wasted. When the forest disappears, the mills and wood-working factories disappear. A large population goes elsewhere, villages dwindle, and farms are abandoned. The middle and southern parts of New England have already suffered the loss of literally hundreds of millions of dollars in the complete exhaustion of the primeval white pine forests that were lumbered in the past without reference to the present, and northern New England is plunging forward on the same track.

One of my first experiences on coming into the White Mountains was an examination of the Randolph forest on the north slope of the Presidential Range. From the valley the whole sweep of this magnificent forest appealed to the eyetwelve miles long and four miles wide, stretching up to the snow-clad peaks, the interlocking spruces enfolding the mountains in a rich dark mass, broken only by the sharp, conical tops of the balsam firs, and at the lower edge by the intermingling gray tops of the hardwoods. At the distant upper edges the forest appeared to be patches of moss near the bold, rocky summits.

One cloudy Sunday afternoon in mid-November, at the invitation of Professor Edmands, who has constructed paths of even grade from Randolph to the tops of each high mountain, Madison, Adams, Jefferson, and Washington, I went with him to see some of the recent clearings. Entering the forests by one of the paths, we found spruce-trees two hundred and fifty years old and ninety feet tall. Mingled with the reddish scales of their tall shafts were the lighter gray trunks of the firs, covered with bubbles of resin-"the blister tree" was the Indian name-and the deeper furrowed bark of ancient hemlocks. Maples and curly-barked yellow birches were prominent, the whole making a close-ranked phalanx, ever

opening before us and closing in behind us, stretching silently upward, mysterious and full of life. Under foot the path was slippery with the brown new-fallen needles. Now and then we scurried through the dry leaves of the hardwoods. For an hour and a half we followed the path skirting the foot of Mount Adams. Here and there the forest varied, and we passed through a stand of beeches or a thick clump of firs. Whenever the wind had torn open the forest crown and felled the trees, thickets of hardwoods and young evergreens flourished in the unaccustomed light. Not one glimpse of the outside world came to us, so unbroken was the succession of tall stems.

We came at length upon the log camps, where fifty of the four hundred wood-choppers were sheltered. The cook was just taking from the "bean-hole" two smoking kettles, each holding a fragrant half-bushel that had been buried for a day and a half in the hot coals. The crew of French-Canadians were standing about, our presence offering the day's diversion.

We followed a lumber road for a little way in an effort to trace what had been the Israel Ridge path, but in vain. The path had been obliterated. For a mile and a half the search led through almost impenetrable tree-tops and débris, ending at length at the Cascade Brook, near the foot of the castellated ridge of Mount Jefferson. In this narrow ravine, where the sun shines but a few hours in the day, the trees were moss-covered and standing close. We mounted through them by a steep, rugged path, passing two of the seven waterfalls in this stream, climbing over rocks and many fallen tree-trunks. Nature fells trees also, but by the selective method, usually removing the mature and defective trees, keeping intact the productive power of the forest and the protective forest cover. Had we the wisdom to follow Nature's way, we should cease to slash young trees and old, thereby preventing any useful return from the forest for generations.

After a sharp climb of nearly two thousand feet, we came upon the Lookout, a birch-bark camp built around an out-of-doors fireplace in the side of the

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FALLS ON THE PRESIDENTIAL RANGE, WHITE MOUNTAINS If the forest were removed, this would become alternately a torrent and dry, bare rocks

mountain. We found ourselves immediately under the edge of the clouds. Far out we saw the wide valley of the Ammonoosuc, dotted with houses and villages, surrounded by mountains, the steam of a distant train threading in and out among the settlements.

Pushing upward into the cloud, the character of the forest changed. Save the occasional white stem of a canoe birch dripping in the mist, there were only spruces and firs, as old as the trees below but much smaller, for on the high slopes there is but a brief growing season in the short, cold summer. A sharp climb of another thousand feet brought us beyond the line of commercial growth. Here the trees, most of them below six inches diameter, were ragged warriors that had fought the storms. Presently. at four thousand five hundred feet above the sea, the tree-stems, though as old as the giants at the base of the mountains, were no larger nor taller than a walkingstick, and massed so closely together that one can sit or lie down upon the top of this miniature forest without sinking to the ground.

A little higher the mist was freezing on the scrubby firs, and soon a pink glow gave promise of sunlight above. We hastened, and emerged at length The whole world was above the clouds. a mass of rolling white mist, save in the direction of the sun that made a wide path of gold. The rocky peaks of Jefferson and Madison rose on either side, with the steel-blue outline of Washington rising a thousand feet above. We climbed a path that led over the crest of Adams, to find shelter, if need be, in the stone hut of the Appalachian Mountain Club. The sun went down. Mount Washington deepened into sharper outline against the sky. The white clouds turned gray. Half a mile above us little fleecy cirrus clouds, like those of summer, floated in the sunlight. With much difficulty we made our way in the growing darkness over the frost-covered rocks, finding the low cairns that marked the way only by calling from one to the other.



A SPARSE FOREST GROWTH IN CALIFORNIA Such growth is good for protecting waterflow, but not for timber supply

Once over the crest we sat down to await the rising of the moon. It rose slowly, almost full, directly behind the conical peak of Mount Madison. Before us lay the Knife Edge—a high, narrow ridge of land dividing two deep ravines. We determined to follow a rocky trail along the top of it, leading to a wellmade path down the mountain. On the trail the little brook, far below, was sometimes heard. It flows through the Israel River and the Ammonoosuc into the Connecticut, turning many millwheels in New Hampshire, Vermont, and Massachusetts, and from Hartford bearing the steamers onward to Long Island Sound. The stream that was on the other side of us flows into the Peabody River and the Androscoggin, through the factory towns of Maine.

At the end of the long promontory we plunged down into the cloud and the gloom of the forest. Down in the darkness the tree-trunks disappeared from sight, and toward the base of the mountain so dense were the cloud and the

thick overhanging boughs of the evergreens that not one ray of light guided us; but we were able to make our way in the even path by feeling with our feet, reaching the settlement five hours after dark in the valley. The entire region of four square miles, where that path lay, is now an impenetrable mass of débris, having become a part of the clearing.

The unprecedented rise in the price of timber during the past few years, from twenty to one hundred per cent. according to species, is accounted for by the fact that, while the population of the country has increased three times, the total amount of timber consumed annually has increased ten times. We are using up the source of most of our houses, most of our paper, much of our fuel, and all of our furniture and wooden tools at a far more rapid rate than it grows. Conservative students of the problem admit that the end is in sight. Already fearful inroads have been made upon the hitherto primeval forests of the far West, which are truly magnificent in extent,

but yield quickly to modern methods of attack. By the terms of the iniquitous Timber and Stone Act the Government is obliged to se!l at the uniform price of two dollars and fifty cents per acre, though the value is often one hundred dollars per acre or more. Year after year an effort has been made to repeal this law, but so far a powerful lobby at Washington, backed by Western lumber companies, has prevented. A bill to repeal it is pending as I write, and should pass immediately in order that the remainder of the Nation's great heritage may be saved to the Nation and not given away. Much of the most valuable timber has been acquired already by large corporations.

On the other hand, a large portion of the Western land, like that in the State of Nevada, has a sparse growth, more suitable for the protection of rivers and their use in irrigation than for a permanent source of timber supply. Such forests and those of the high slopes of mountains should be cut only in the most conservative manner possible—and in private hands they never receive this treatment.

Under the wise policy followed by four Presidents, and fully approved by the country, large tracts of forest land in the West owned by the Federal Government have been set aside as forest reserves. These now include over one hundred million acres—a territory larger than New England. All of these reserves are west of the Mississippi River.

There should be reservations in the East, where the population is dense, where the sawmills and wood-working factories already established need material, and where the rivers, if not protected at their head-waters, will less effectively serve the tremendous interests dependent upon them. Particularly, reservations should be established, by Federal purchase, in the Southern Appalachian Mountains and in the White Mountains.

THE GOOD EARTH

BY CHARLES G. D. ROBERTS

The smell of burning weeds
Upon the twilight air;
The poignant call of frogs
From meadows wet and bare;

A presence in the wood And in my blood a stir, In all the ardent earth No failure or demur.

O Spring wind, sweet with love And tender with desire, Pour into veins of mine Your pure impassioned fire!

O waters, running free
With full, exultant song,
Give me, for outworn dream,
Life that is clean and strong!

O good earth, warm with youth, My childhood heart renew; Make me elate, sincere, Simple and glad, as you!

O springing things of green,
O winging things of bloom,
O winging things of air,
Your lordship now resume!

A COUNTRY THAT HAS USED UP ITS TREES

BY ELIOT BLACKWELDER

N one of his recent letters in The Outlook Mr. Kennan has described the desolate appearance of the coast of southern Manchuria—hills upon which neither tree nor shrub has been left, and where even the grass is all but destroyed each autumn. Other travelers have shown us that this condition is prevalent over a large part of eastern and northern China, and that it extends in varying degree over most of the Empire. In the western provinces, however, forests of considerable size may still be found in the recesses of the higher mountains. China, therefore, stands out pre-eminently as the land in which the process of forest destruction may be seen in all its stages, and where its natural effects may be observed. Here in the United States our forests are rapidly disappearing before the joint attacks of fires and the iumberman's ax. To Americans who realize this, and who have a desire to know what results are to be expected from a continuation of the process, China's experience will be interesting and significant.

The explanation of the dearth of forests in eastern China is to be sought in the mountainous region in the western part of the Empire. While crossing the broad Tsinling Range in the province of Shensi, we found remnants of once large forests of pine and spruce high up in the remoter gulches near the main divide. After months spent in crossing bare mountains and plains, it was a pleasure to walk once more on a carpet of pineneedles and hear the sound of the wind in the boughs. One thing became plain to us at that time—there is no inherent reason, except the human reason, why forests should not grow in northern China. Even in this remote region we were passed each day by lines of coolies, headed for the populous plains below, each carrying on his back a load of heavy boards. It may be well to explain that the mountain trails are too narrow and rough for carts or even for pack-animals. Most of the lumber is used in making coffins, and for this purpose it commands an enormous price; in the cities of the Weiho plain a single board retails at two or three dollars. It is not surprising that the constant drain upon the forests through all the centuries during which a dense population has inhabited that fertile plain has left only small remnants in these remote valleys. We can only wonder that all have not been destroyed. It is safe to say that with modern machinery and easy transportation an American or European company would in a few years cut off all of the trees that now remain in this district

The destruction of the trees is, however, only the first step in the process of total deforestation which was accomplished long ago in many parts of China, on a greater scale than in any other country. In our own land the forest is deemed of little value after all of the marketable trees have been cut off. The lumberman discards it and moves on to fresh fields of operation. Not so in China. When the trees are gone, they still have the saplings, shrubs, and lesser herbage; and no one knows better how to utilize every bit of the material than does the Chinese mountaineer. Poles for the support of roofs and for various other constructional purposes are made out of the larger shrubs, and the remainder is either sold for fuel directly. or is reduced to charcoal in the mountains and is thence carried down to the market towns, where it commands a good price. This reduction to charcoal has the great advantage of condensing values into small weight and space—a consideration of the greatest importance in

¹The illustrations in this article are from photographs by Mr. Bailey Willis, and used through the courtesy of the Carnegle Institution, Washington, D. C.

The mountains are bare and rickly ; their lower alones have been terraced to prevent further removal of soil. In the foreground lies a stream bed along which abrets of gravel are swept to time of floods. The abace to to has a period from this desoluting waste by low walls DEFORESTATION LONG COMPLETED

a region where all of the transportation is done by coolies, and where the original value of the product is duplicated about every five miles by the traffic charge. In the course of time the mountain slopes are thus divested not only of their trees, but also of the remaining undergrowth. For the forest there is substituted a grassy slope upon which thorny bushes are the only perennial herbage.

In a rugged region like the Tsinling mountains the difficulties in the way of complete deforestation are, however, too great to be overcome. To see the later stages of the process at their worst we must go to the lower mountains of northeastern China, especially those adjacent to the great plains upon which are crowded so many millions of the Chinese In other countries one's natural expectation to see the mountains more or less covered with forests is fulfilled; but as China is proverbially the antithesis of Western lands in many respects, so it is in this. In these eastern provinces one may travel hundreds of miles without seeing even a small grove of trees upon the hillsides; and I have never seen in that region anything deserving the name of a forest. Yet it must not be understood from this that the entire landscape is devoid of trees, for I am speaking only of the natural forest growths. their homes and villages the Chinese plant poplars and fruit-trees. Gravevards and temple courts contain twisted cedars which not infrequently are centuries old; but these trees are preserved through the force of public opinion, and he would be a bold man indeed who would dare cut a cedar from even a remote and untended graveyard. poplars belong to individual villagers, and are therefore protected as private property immediately under the eye of the owner. In hundreds of Chinese communities these poplars are the principal source of the timber which is used by the peasants; but the supply is so small that it hardly suffices for the barest necessities. Aside from such village groves the forest verdure, both great and small, has almost utterly disappeared. The process by which they were destroyed was completed at a time historically so remote that in some localities we found no traditions of its occurrence preserved among the inhabitants, while in other regions we were told that the trees had been cut off centuries ago.

Shantung is one of the provinces in which deforestation is practically complete, and here we see a sequel which is particularly interesting because it shows the length to which the thoughtless war on all vegetation can be carried in the absence of governmental regulation or of popular foresight and co-operation. refer to the annual forage after grass which takes place each autumn and winter. At this season all the boys of the village who are big enough to walk and carry a basket are sent out over the neighboring hillsides to collect grass, twigs, and, in short, any kind of herbage that can be used as fodder for the village cattle or as fuel. Each boy carries a basket and an iron grubbinghook fastened to a short wooden handle. Thus equipped, he clambers up the slopes, working away at his task with cheerful energy. The stronger boys reach even the highest summits, and so through the industry of this army of human locusts the mountains are almost denuded of the dry annual herbage.

These foragers do not quite complete the devastation; they are usually followed by shepherds, whose flocks of sheep and goats search each ledge and crevice and crop the remaining grass down to its very roots. Any one who has crossed the path of a band of sheep in our own Western mountains knows that the final result of their depredations is a surface almost as barren as if it had been swept by fire.

Some of the effects of this complex process of deforestation will be apparent to the reader at first glance. As timber becomes scarce, prices rise and the use of it must be correspondingly curtailed. Houses can no longer be built of wood, but as a substitute bricks and mud are necessarily adopted by the common people. The prices of the better grades of lumber for all purposes become almost prohibitive, so that in making carts, furniture, implements, and, in short, almost everything in his trade, the village carpenter must be content with the softer



MOUNTAINS OF SOUTHERN SHENSI

An example of partial deforestation. Slopes partly denuded
of trees and shrubs, but still covered with a thick soil

and cheaper woods, such as those of the poplar and willow. With the passing of the forests comes the extermination also of the useful herbs and game which in other countries enhance the value of the timbered regions.

But, important as these considerations may seem, they sink into insignificance beside the indirect and less obvious results which have followed the deforestation of northern China. These results may be grouped together as those which relate to the water supply of the country and those which affect the soils.

In any country most of the water which falls upon the land is disposed of in three ways, viz., by evaporation from the surface, by running off into the streams, or by percolating into the earth. The ratio between these portions is a matter of great moment to any community, and especially to one which depends for its support largely upon agriculture. In the ordinary climates of the temperate zone evaporation (including transpiration through plants) is a matter of secondary consequence, and in this brief sketch we may neglect it. It must be noted, how-



A STREAM BED IN THE DEFORESTED REGION

Entirely dry except in time of rain. The breadth of the channel has been determined by occasional violent floods, descending from the mountains in the distance

ever, that the run-off and the percolation are vital.

In the mountains of western China, where the destruction of the forests is still in its earlier stages, the rains are caught by the spongy mass of grass, mosses, and leaf-mold which forms the thick carpet of every woodland. The stems and roots hinder the flow of water which gathers upon the surface in time of rain and allow the greater part of it to sink into the earth. This water saturates the soil and the underlying rocks, and moves slowly but surely toward

some exit at a lower level, meanwhile keeping the ground moist even within a few inches of the surface. The advantage of this to all forms of plant life is obvious. Furthermore, springs are numerous in such a region, and since the upper limit of this body of subterranean water is relatively near the surface, plenty of water may be obtained from shallow wells. In such a region there are many streams which flow steadily throughout the year.

Among the devastated hills of eastern China conditions are very different.



TERRACED FIELDS IN SHENSI
The lone tree on the left guards a wayside shrine, and is therefore not molested. All other vegetation has been cut off

There are neither trees, shrubs, nor even thick grass to restrain the water which falls in time of rain. The water descends upon a comparatively bare surface, and as it runs quickly off over the slopes only a small proportion of it sinks into crevices or porous places in the soil, while a much greater part becomes concentrated in the numerous gullies and rushes down to the valleys below. The inevitable result is a flood, corresponding in its severity to the magnitude of the storm. It may tear out the flimsy bridges which the Chinese build, spoil the low-lying fields, and even devastate towns and villages. Within a few hours after the flood has passed the main stream dwindles to its normal size again, or perhaps disappears entirely, but the damage has been done and is sure to be repeated. The water which percolated into the soil is insufficient to maintain the level of underground water near the surface; it has in fact sunk so low that springs are rare and the smaller valleys are merely dry arroyos except in time of On account of this lowering of the underground water level there is not sufficient moisture in the soil to supply any plants except those which are adapted to dry conditions. Where possible, the farmers resort to irrigation, obtaining the water from wells and canals largely by means of rude pumps; but much of the land is not suitably located for such treatment, and a large area of the uplands must therefore be planted with crops such as wheat and millet, which require but little water. By thus disturbing the natural ratio between the water which runs off into the streams and that which sinks into the ground, the Chinese have unwittingly brought on two great misfortunes, viz., frequent disastrous floods and a reduction of the available water supply.

The second group of results—those relating to the changes in the soil itself and in its distribution—bring with them evils no less important. Soil which is covered with vegetation is held securely in place by the interlacing roots, and is protected from the beating rain by the leaves and branches overhead. Even in the severest storms the water which runs off over the surface is so retarded by the

matted growth of plants that its power to wear away the soil thus bound down is reduced to a minimum. On this account the downward movement of the soil on forest-clad slopes, even if the latter are steep, is exceedingly slowprobably not more rapid than the renewal of the soil by the decay of the underlying rock. Where this protective covering has been removed, however, as in the mountains of eastern China, the wash of the soil from all sloping surfaces is relatively rapid. Ramifying systems of gullies develop at the edges of the slopes, and each succeeding shower causes them to eat their way, as it were, back into the loose material; their advance is so speedy that it can be readily observed even in the brief space of a human lifetime. Each rain washes down from the higher points the dust and sand which have been loosened by the plants, frost, and other agencies, so that as time goes on less and less soil remains on the slopes, while more and more is spread out upon the flats which border the streams. An enormous quantity is annually carried out to sea as mud by the Yellow River and its equally turbid neighbors. Recognizing this tendency of the soil to wash down into the valleys. the natives have developed ingenious systems of terraces to check the process and take advantage of it so far as it has benefits. A low stone wall is first built parallel to the base of the slope, and all the available soil is scraped down into the reservoir thus formed; the thin earth, for a distance of some yards up the hillside, is then thoroughly loosened with a stout hoe, so that the next few rains may wash it down, and deposit it just above the stone wall. By this means a narrow, flat field or terrace is soon formed. Other walls are then placed in succession above the first, and the same process is repeated in each case. This device of terracing the slopes has two advantages. It not only retards the wash of the soil, but, more important still from the Chinese point of view, it renders a much larger area of the hillsides available for cultivation. And yet the practice is applicable only to the lower and gentler slopes. The summits and steep sides of the mountains are soon divested

of the soil which formerly supported their forests, and now they remain bare and rocky. In such a country the reforestation of the mountain heights would be a very difficult undertaking, and would require scores of years. A new soil would have to be formed by the slow processes of decay before any considerable growth of trees could be expected.

As the rain descends over unprotected slopes it not only carries off the soil and produces floods, but it has a permanently deleterious effect upon the broad flats which form the floors of the valleys. In most countries the so-called "river bottoms" are among the richest agricultural lands. This is true also in China, but the statement can be applied only to the lower reaches of the rivers which meander sluggishly through broad plains. Among the hills the valleys which were once fertile have been partially ruined since the forests were A stream which is capable, destroyed. at its normal stage, of handling nothing coarser than mud and silt, may in floodtime sweep along sheets of sand, gravel, and often small boulders. As the river rises and overflows its banks, this rough material is strewn over the adjacent bottom-lands and renders them worthless for farming purposes; from that time on they remain a barren, gravelly waste. Damage of this kind is of course practically irreparable.

Every one who goes to China, or who reads much about it, is early impressed with the severity of the dust storms which are so annoying in winter throughout the northern provinces. Some of the foreign residents have a theory that such storms descend upon them from the deserts of Mongolia; but as a matter of fact it is not necessary to go outside one's immediate vicinity to find ample explanation for them. Every strong wind stirs up the dust and soon fills the air with an impalpable brown powder which makes its way through all cracks and crevices, into eyes and throats, and dims the sunlight on a cloudless day.

So fine are the particles that they remain suspended in the air for hours, so that it often requires a day or two for the dust to settle out of the atmosphere and leave it fit to breathe again. This is only another of the effects of destroying all herbage, both perennial and annual. In our own country the grass holds down the dry soil, and the trees tend to act as sieves to remove the suspended particles from each passing wind. We, therefore, have little to complain of from dust except along highways and in our cities. But in China the mountain slopes are bare and after the harvest is gathered the fields are completely denuded. entire land surface then becomes a source of dust. With these facts in mind, the explanation of the dust storm is not far to seek. Could the trees be restored to the hillsides, the grass to the plains, and the stubble to the fields, the phenomenon would largely disappear.

There is nothing peculiar or exceptional in China's experience, except that the process has gone further there than in most countries. It will be repeated in any land where adequate precautions are not taken to preserve the forests. In America we still have extensive forests, and by judicious use we may save them and even increase the area which they cover. In a recent issue of the "National Geographic Magazine" Mr. Gifford Pinchot points out that in colonial and pioneer days the forest was a foe and an obstacle to the settler. had to be cleared away to make room for fields and villages, and it harbored hostile Indians and wild beasts with which the early American had to contend. That condition has now largely passed away, but as a nation we have not yet come to have a proper respect for the forest and to regard it as an indispensable part of our resources—one which is easily destroyed but difficult to replace; one which confers great benefits while it endures, but whose disappearance is accompanied by a train of evil consequences not readily foreseen and positively irreparable.

A FOOLS' PARADISE

BY ARTHUR H. SMITH

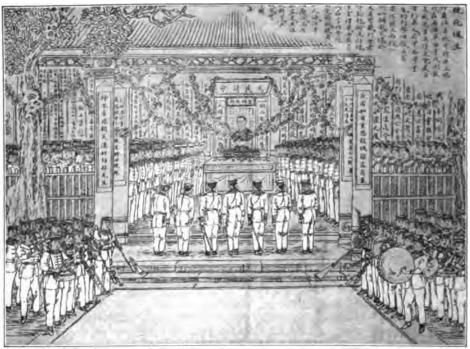
Author of "Chinese Characteristics," "Village Life in China," "China in Convulsion," etc.

T is a mere commonplace that since the universal adoption of steam and electricity commerce is king. There is no nation, no people, which does not own his sway. Philanthropists are not without hope that, despite all apparent facts to the contrary, the time is not remote when war, as we now know it, will be, if not impossible, at least rare and exceptional. But just in proportion as this millennium of peace dawns upon us, we may expect that commercial war, the struggle to supply the world's demands, will become keener, more relentless, and more general until it is universal. In this competition the United States of America holds a strong position. We have the larger part of a continent to ourselves, almost unvexed by the presence of troublesome neighbors; we are not obliged to keep a large standing army; we do not fear invasion; and with a strong navy we may possess our souls in peace and tranquillity. Our territories stretch from ocean to ocean. We have every variety of soil, climate, and production; as has often been pointed out, we have long since established an uncontested agricultural supremacy. "With five per cent. of the world's population we produce thirty-two per cent. of the world's food supply." We furnish three-fourths of the world's cotton. We provide more mineral oil than any other land. We are the largest producers of iron and steel in the world. We have a population which is gifted with a restless productive activity elsewhere unequaled. "Mulhall estimates the energy of the United States at 129,-360,000,000 foot-tons a day—nearly as much as that of Britain, Germany, and France combined "—and he says: " If we take a survey of mankind in ancient and modern times as regards the physical, mechanical, and intellectual force of nations, we find nothing to compare with the United States." Professor von

Schierbrand, from whose informing work entitled "America, Asia, and the Pacific " some of the foregoing remarks are quoted, enumerates as the foundations on which American manufacturing supremacy rests, the following particulars: (1) An abundance of cheap coal of good quality. (2) Cheap and abundant iron of good quality. (3) Low labor cost, so that in spite of an average weekly wage of \$15 for an American operator as against \$4 for the German, the American employer is still ahead because, on account of better climate, surroundings, diet, and quicker brain execution, the American output is much larger. (4) American machinery is better. (5) American ingenuity and inventiveness are unequaled. "The best available statistics show that the productive energy of each inhabitant of the United States is 1,940 foot-tons daily, while in Europe it is only 990 foot-tons. This means that 75,000,000 Americans are achieving as much in useful labor as 150,000,000 Europeans. In some branches of labor the difference is even greater. The American farm laborer produces four times as much foodstuff as does the average European farm laborer." (6) A practically inexhaustible supply of cheap raw material. (7) Easy access to markets. We are between Europe and Africa on the east, and Asia and Australia on the west. Of these advantages it is pointed out that all but the fourth are permanent and unalienable. Add to these the wonderful expansion which is as certain to follow the opening of the Panama Canal as night to succeed day. This waterway will effect a saving for ships passing through it from five thousand to eight thousand miles. London will be brought nearer to San Francisco by more than seven thousand miles. The shortening of distance between New York, our great eastern port, and San Francisco, our greatest western

port, will be more than ten thousand miles. The Mississippi Valley—the most important valley in the world—will have a new outlet. Existing commerce will be greatly expanded; new commerce will be created; the Hawaiian Islands will then become in fact what a few have always perceived them potentially to be, at once the key and the crossroads of the Pacific. By the multiplication of the means of communication

earliest history the world has contended. For convenience we may refer to an address by the Hon. O. P. Austin, Chief of the Bureau of Statistics, to the National Geographic Society (of which he is Secretary), which is published in the September (1905) number of the "National Geographic Magazine." The ever-expanding West has struggled for the control of the commerce of the East, threading difficult mountain passes, crossing



WORSHIPING THE SPIRIT OF THE ORIGINATOR OF THE BOYCOTT

This young man was unknown a year ago. His suicide was intended to embroil America and China. Students worship his manes, with girl students near by (a new feature in Chinese life) abetting. He bids fair to evolve into a god of Patriotism. This illustration and the others on following pages are from cartoons published in Chinese papers.

America is now brought near to every other country.

"The world is all our neighbor; The stars are foreign lands."

The Far East, which but lately was ten thousand miles distant, is now close at hand. If we include under that term the Indian, the Chinese, and the Japanese Empires, we have practically one-half the population of the globe who are in process of transition and even transformation to a degree very little apprehended by Americans. It has often been pointed out that the commerce of the Orient is a prize for which from its

desert wastes, and later braving unknown oceans to get access to the Orient. Beginning with caravans from the Nile valley to the valley of the Euphrates, to India, and to China almost in prehistoric times, we come to the modern period when great sea routes were first discovered and then declared the common property of mankind under the growing law of nations.

Without pausing to trace the history of this development, it is important to note that within the past generation, owing to improvement in the means of communication and of transit, it has



entered upon an entirely new stage. A hundred years ago "the world had not a single steamer upon the ocean, a single mile of railway on land, a single span of telegraph upon the continent, or a foot of cable beneath the ocean. In 1905 it had over eighteen thousand steam vessels, five hundred thousand miles of railway, and more than a million miles of land telegraph; while the very continents are bound together and give instantaneous

hundred and fifty millions, as against seven hundred and fifty millions for all the rest of the globe, with a land area of but little more than one-third of the globe (eighteen million square miles against thirty-four million square miles for the remainder). Yet Oriental commerce totals less than three billion dollars, while that of the rest of the world is nineteen billions—an average commerce in the Orient of about three dollars per



BOYCOTTING A SHOP THAT SELLS AMERICAN FLOUR

American flour is whiter, cleaner, and cheaper than that made in South China. Its sale has been enormous. Now the mills in Washington are shutting down for lack of a market. He who uses American flour is unpatriotic and will be boycotted.

communication by more than two hundred thousand miles of ocean cable." By this enormous increase in the power of production, transportation, and communication, commerce in all parts of the world has multiplied, is multiplying, and will multiply many fold.

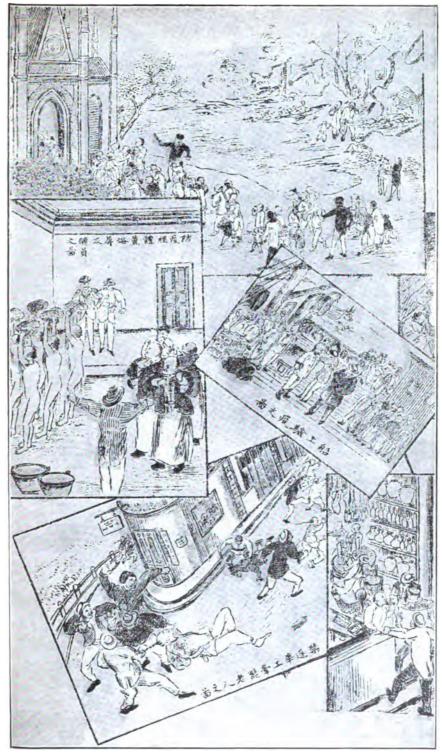
"The world's international commerce, which a single century ago was less than two billions of dollars, is now twenty-two billions; and the commerce of the Orient, which was less than two hundred millions, is now nearly three thousand millions." The population of Asia and Oceania is estimated at eight

capita against twenty-seven dollars for the remainder of the world. The growth of Oriental trade for a century has been but two billions of dollars, as against eighteen billions in other parts of the world. But this period of comparative stagnation is passing away. During the past half-century India has built about twenty-eight thousand miles of railway, and has a trade of about \$2.25 per capita, while little Japan, with about four thousand five hundred miles of railway, has a trade of \$5.86 per head. The industrial revolution in the latter country is one of the marvels of our

In China, on the other hand, with a population ten times that of Japan, commercial and industrial changes are but beginning. With only about two thousand miles of Chinese railway, experience since 1900 has shown the most conservative Chinese that here is an Aladdin's lamp which they have but to rub to produce a wealth beyond the dreams of even Oriental avarice. The line from Peking to Newchwang is supposed, during the past year, to have netted the Chinese Government between three and four hundred thousand dollars (silver) per month. Is it strange that Chinese geomancy (fengshui) practically disappears as an inhibitory force, and that the dreaded Earth Dragon crawls down a little deeper to be out of the way of the rumble of trains and the piercing of mining shafts? The new industrial China will involve one of the mightiest transformations in the history of mankind-hundreds of millions of sturdy agriculturists metamorphosed into manufacturers. The great plain of China produces unlimited cotton. Its teeming population are all potential agents by which steam and electricity will revolutionize the empire of the East. of Hankow, on the mighty Yangtzu River, is probably destined to become one of the greatest manufacturing centers of the world. To control this unprecedented development, and to have a share in its potentialities, is the ambition of every trading country. As we have already reminded ourselves, on the ground of capacity, proximity, energy, we are the people who ought to enter into the new conditions with the greatest advantages. Since 1898 the balance of trade is in our favor. China has a long list of commodities—tea, silk, hemp, jute, etc.—that we must have. We have cotton goods, lumber, kerosene, flour, etc., which the Chinese have come to like, upon which, however, they are not dependent. We are reminded by the great and growing emigration of some of our best agriculturists to Canada that our arable land is practically exhausted. Hitherto the world has gone westward; but now the limits have been reached, and we must go technically West to get to our goal, which must be the Far East. Mr. Carroll

D. Wright has repeatedly pointed out that our unceasing production always tends to become over-production. We are perpetually snowed under by our own products, which must be exported somewhere, but for which, practically, we must find a market in the Far East. "To raise the standard of the Chinese people one hundred per cent.," says Dr. Josiah Strong, "is equivalent to the discovery of five new Americas at a time when there are no more lands to be discovered."

Now, what are we Americans doing in the face of possibilities and necessities like these? We need a large American mercantile marine. At present the "flowery flag" has almost disappeared from Chinese seas, while every other country, Great Britain, France, Germany, Russia, and Japan, is represented by great steam lines traversing the globe. The Japanese "Nippon Kaisha" is said to be second only to the Peninsular and Oriental Company in the number of its steamers and their tonnage. They run to Vancouver, Seattle, San Francisco, Australia, Shanghai, Hongkong, the Straits Settlements, London. What have we worthy to be mentioned in the same generation with this growth of yesterday? Where are our American banks in the Far East to match the gigantic aggregations of capital of the countries named, which are really commercial arteries and veins through which strong financial currents steadily ebb and flow? When shall we have our Consular Service so reformed that we may not, as now, stumble upon many admirable men (with some flagrant exceptions), all greatly underpaid, but may be sure of the best men that the country affords in positions of delicacy, difficulty, and of high importance? When shall we have a class of American business men who go, as Germans do, to Eastern lands to learn the language, to cultivate the people, to develop trade and friendship with the Orient, and to take a practical part in the greatest movement of modern times to their own advantage and to that of America and the East? At present what we witness is: (1) "A vast and varied ignorance" on the part of even shrewd and theoretically well-informed business



ILL-TREATMENT OF CHINESE AT SAN FRANCISCO

American insolence in the indiscriminate confounding of scholars, merchants, travelers, and coolies, by treating them as alialize actual or potential criminals, has sunk deep into the awakening national consciousness. Nothing could be better adapted to inflame hatred than these pictures. They show Chinese being driven into the detention sheds, compelled to bathe, measured by the Bertillon system, and subjected to violence and indignities in the street.

men of America as to existing conditions and an indifference to them which makes a handsome match for the like feeling on the part of the Chinese. (2) A race prejudice against those of other training and different skins from our own which is amusing, amazing, inexcusable, and idiotic. Nothing like it, so far as we know, is met with in any of the commercial nations of Europe. In the keen competition for trade it is a heavy weight and an almost fatal handicap. (3) A brainless optimism which, like the traditional midnight cat on the wall, felicitates itself that "things seem to be coming my way" when the facts, rationally considered, are to be interpreted quite other-There is a series of contemporaneous phenomena to which we are singularly indifferent called "the Germanization of the world," which will affect us most seriously both at home and abroad; and there is another process going on which is rightly termed "the Japanization of the Far East," of which we know nothing and for which we care nothing; and yet these allied and yet totally distinct forces harmonize in their endeavor to shut us out of Asia. are doing what we can to assist them by our selfish and indeed brutal treatment of the Chinese, extending through many decades, which we have conveniently forgotten, but which now, since four hundred millions are coming to worldconsciousness, they inconveniently remember. We have invited them to our shores, hunted them as criminals for their accursed sobriety, industry, and economy, have refused justice for wholesale murders committed in "a Territory," because that is a loosely organized region over which the Government control is slight, and for like murders committed in "a State," because that is a tract highly organized, over which the Government has no control at all! Is it any wonder that when a Secretary of State referred the Chinese Minister to the Governor of Colorado, the Oriental blandly replied that he had " no treaty with the Governor of Colorado"?

The nidus of the boycott is in the accumulation of the wrongs of many years, of our mistreatment of an ancient, a proud, a sensitive, and a learned people by a Nation that once professed to believe that "all mankind are created free and equal." This is aggravated by the shameful betrayal of American interests in the Hankow-Canton Railway by an American syndicate. The Chinese are now united against us as never before. Those who know tell us that our trade is becoming a vanishing quantity. The lives of all Americans in China are in more or less danger; yet most of us continue, in the language of a German proverb, to "hold our mouths open, expecting roasted pigeons to fly inside." Is it too much to say that the American people as a whole are living in a fools' paradise?



THE ODOR OF THE OINTMENT

BY ZONA GALE

SCENSION' lilies were everywhere in our shabby drawingroom. They crowded two tables and filled a corner, and rose, slim and white, atop an old Sheraton cabinet. Every one had sent Peleas and me a sheaf of the white blooms—the Cleatams and the Chartres, Miss Willie Lillieblade and Enid and Lisa and Hobart Eddy, had all remembered us on Easter eve, and we entered our drawing-room after breakfast on Easter morning to be almost greeted with a winding of the silver trumpets. The sun smote gloriously across them, and some were like a heavenly kind of candle, their light secretly diffused, premonitory of spring, of some far-off resurrection of light itself into a newer, sweeter element. It was a wonderful Easter day, and, in spite of our absurd white hair, Peleas and I were never in fairer health; and yet, for the first time in our forty-eight years together, Easter found us close prisoners. Easter morning, and we were forbidden to leave the house!

Peleas walked to the window, and lifted and touched among the blossoms, and shook his head sadly.

"Ettare," he said, with some show of firmness, "there is no reason in the world why we should not go."

"Ah, well now," said I, with a sigh, "prove that to Nichola. Do I not know it perfectly already?"

It is one sign of our advancing years, we must suppose, that we are prone to blame each other for the trifles that heaven sends. The sterner things we long ago learned to accept with our hands clasped in each other's; but when the postman is late, or the hot water is cold, or the gas is poor, we have a way of looking solemnly sidewise, with our souls tried.

Yet the night before we had gone upstairs in the best of humors, Peleas carrying an Ascension lily to stand in the moonlight of our window—for it always seems to me the saddest injustice to set

the sullen extinguisher of lowered lights upon the brief life of a flower. And we had looked forward happily to the hallowed hour of the morning when the service is, as it should always be, inseparable from a festival of spring.

Then, lo! when we were awakened there was the treacherous world one glittering coat of ice. Branches sparkled against the sparkling blue, the wall of the park was a long rampart of silver, and the faithless sidewalks were mockeries of slipperiness. But the sad significance of this did not come to me until Nichola entered the dining-room with the griddle-cakes and found me dressed in my gray silk and Peleas in broadcloth.

"Is it," said our old serving-woman, who ruled us as if she had brought us from Italy, and we had not, forty-odd years ago, tempted her from her native Capri, "is it that you are mad, with this ice everywhere, everywhere?"

"It is Easter morning, Nichola," said I, with the mildness of one who supports a perfect cause.

"Our Lady knows it is so," said Nichola, setting down her smoking burden; "but the streets are so thick with ice that one breaks one's head a thousand times. You must not think of so much as stepping in the ar-y."

She left the room, and the honey-gold cakes cooled while Peleas and I looked at each other, aghast. Miss our Easter service for the first time in our life together! The thought was hardly to be borne. We argued it out with Nichola when she came back, and Peleas even stamped his foot under the table; but she only brought more cakes and shook her head—the impertinent old woman who has conceived that she must take care of us.

"One breaks one's head a thousand times," she repeated, obstinately. "Our Lady would not wish it. Danger is not holy."

To tell the truth, as Peleas and I

looked sorrowfully out the window over the Ascension lilies, we knew that there was reason in the situation, for the streets were perilous even to look at the less we bitterly resented it, for it is bad enough to have a disagreeable matter occur without having reason on its As for our carriage, that went side too. long ago, together with the days when Peleas could model and I could write so that a few were deceived; and as for a cab to our far downtown church and back, that was not to be considered. For several years now we have stepped, as Nichola would say, softly, softly from one security to the next, so that we need not give up our house; and even now we are seldom sure that one month's comfort will keep its troth with the next. Since it was too icy to walk to the car, we must needs remain where we were.

"I suppose," said I, as if it were a matter of opinion, "that it is really Easter uptown too. But some way—"

"I know," said Peleas. Really, of all the pleasures of this world, I think that the "I know" of Peleas in answer to something I have left unsaid is the last to be foregone. I hope that there is no one who does not have this delight.

"Peleas—" I began tremblingly to

"Ah, well now," cried Peleas, resolutely, "let us go anyway. We can walk beside the curb slowly. And, after all, we do not belong to Nichola." Really, of all the pleasures of this world, I think that the daring of Peleas at moments when I am cowardly is quite the last to be renounced. I hope that there is no one who has not the delight of living near some one a bit braver than one is one's self.

With one accord we guiltily slipped from the drawing-room and toiled up the stairs. I think, although we would not for the world have said so, that there may have been in both our minds the fear that this might be our last Easter together, and if it were, to run away to Easter service would be a fitting memory, a little delicious human thing to remember among austerer glories. Out of its box in a twinkling came my violet bonnet, and I hardly so much as looked in a mirror as I put it on. I fastened

my cloak wrong from top to bottom and seized two right-hand gloves and thrust them in my muff. And then we opened the door and listened. There was not a sound in the house. We ventured into the passage and down the stairs, and I think we did not breathe until the outer door closed softly upon us. For Nichola, we have come to believe, is a mystic, and thinks other people's thoughts. At all events, she finds us out so often that we prefer to theorize that it is her penetration and not our clumsiness that betrays us.

Nichola had already cleaned the steps with hot water and salt and ashes and sawdust combined—Nichola is so thorough that I am astonished that she has not corrupted me with the quality. Yet no sooner was I beyond the pale of her friendly care than I overestimated thoroughness, like the weak character that I am, and wished that the whole street had practiced it. I took three steps on that icy surface and stood still, desperately.

"Peleas," I said, weakly, "I feel—I feel like a little nut on top of a big, frosted, indigestible cake."

I laughed a bit hysterically, and Peleas slipped my arm more firmly in his, and we crept forward, like the hands of a clock, Peleas a little the faster, as became the tall minute hand. We turned the corner safely, and had only one interminable block to traverse before we reached the haven of the car. I looked down that long expanse of slippery gray, unbroken save where a divine janitor or two had interposed, and my courage failed me. And Peleas rashly ventured on advice.

"You walk too stiffly, Ettare," he explained. "Relax, relax! Step along slowly but easily, as I do. Then, if you fall, you fall like a child—no jar, no shock, no broken bones. Now relax—"

And Peleas did. Before I could shape my answer Peleas had relaxed. He lay in a limp little heap on the ice beside me, and I shall never forget my moment of despair.

I do not know where she came from, but while I stood there hopelessly reiterating, "Peleas—why, Peleas!" on the verge of tears, she stepped from some door of the air to my assistance. She wore a little crimson hat and a crimson collar, but her poor coat, I afterward noted, was sadly worn. A the moment of her coming it was her clear, pale face that fixed itself in my grateful memory. She darted forward, stepped down from the curb, and held out two hands to Peleas.

"Oh, sir," she said, "I can help you. I have on rubber boots."

Surely, no interfering goddess ever arrived in a more practical frame of mind.

When Peleas was upon his feet, looking about him in a dazed and somewhat unforgiving fashion, the little maid caught off her crimson muffler and brushed his coat. And Peleas, with bared head, made her as courtly a bow as his foothold permitted as she was standing somewhat shyly before us with the prettiest anxiety on her face, shaking the snow from the crimson muffler.

"You are not hurt, sir?" she asked, and seemed so vastly relieved at his reassurance that she quite won our hearts. "Now," she said, "won't you let me walk with you? My rubber boots will do for all three."

We each accepted her arm without the smallest protest. I will hazard that no shipwrecked sailor ever inquired of the rescuing sail whether he were inconveniencing it. Once safely aboard, however, and well under way, he may have symbolized his breeding to the extent of offering a faint, polite resistance.

As "Shall we not be putting you out?" inquired Peleas, never offering to release her arm.

And "I'm afraid we are," I'ventured, pressing to her all the closer. She was frail as I, too, and it was not the rubber boots to which I pinned my faith; she was young, and you can hardly know what safety that bespeaks until you are seventy, on ice.

"It's just around the corner," informed Peleas, apologetically, and for the first time I perceived that, by common consent, we had turned back toward home. But neither of us mentioned that.

Then, while we stepped forward with beautiful nicety, rounding the corner to come upon the avenue, suddenly, without a moment's warning, our blackest fears were fulfilled. We ran full upon Nichola.

"Ah, I told you, Peleas!" I murmured; which I had not, but one has to take some comfort in crises.

Without a word Nichola wheeled solemnly, grasped my other arm, and made herself fourth in our singular party. Her gray head was unprotected, and her hair stood out all about it. She had thrown her apron about her shoulders, and great patches in her print gown were visible to all the world. When Nichola's sleeves wear out, she always cuts a piece from the front breadth of her skirt to refurbish them, trusting to her aprons to conceal the deficit. She was a sorry old figure, indeed, out there on the avenue in the Easter sunshine, and I inclined bitterly to resent her interference.

"Nichola," said I, haughtily, "one would think that we were obliged to be wheeled about on casters."

Nichola made but brief reply.

"Our Lady knows you'd be better so," she said.

So that was how, on Easter morning, with the bells pealing like a softer silver across the silver of the glittering city, Peleas and I found ourselves back in our lonely drawing-room considerably shaken and hovering before the fire which Nichola stirred into a leaping And with us, since we had so insisted upon her coming, was our new little friend, fluttering about us with the prettiest concern, taking away my cloak, untying my bonnet, and wheeling an armchair for Peleas, quite as if she were the responsible little hostess and we her upset guests. And presently, the bright hat and worn coat laid aside, she sat on a hassock before the blaze and looked up at us in her delicious shyness, like a little finch that had alighted at our casement and had been coaxed within. I think that I love best these little birdwomen whom one expects at any moment to hear thrilling with a lilt of unreason-

"My dear," said I, upon a sudden, "how selfish of us! I dare say you will have been going to church?"

She hesitated briefly.

"I might 'a' gone to the mission," she

explained, unaccountably coloring, "but I don't know if I would. On Easter."

"But I would have thought," I cried, "that this is the day of days to go."

"It would be," she assented, "it would be—" she went on, hesitating, "but, ma'am, I can't bear to go," she burst out, "because they don't have no flowers. We go to the mission," she added, "and not to the grand churches. And it seems—it seems—don't you think God must be where the most flowers are? An' last Easter we only had one geranium."

Bless the child! I dare say I must be a kind of pagan, for I understood.

"Your flowers are beau-tiful," she said, shyly, with a little breath of content. "Are they real? I've been wantin' to ask you. I never saw so many without the glass in front. But they don't smell much," she added, wistfully; "I wonder why that is?"

Peleas and I had been wondering that very morning. They looked so sweet-scented and yet were barren of fragrance; and we had told ourselves that they were, perhaps, lilies of symbol, without mission or message beyond the symbol, without hue or passion, or, so to say, experience.

"Perhaps if one were to make some one happy with them, or to put them in a bride's bouquet, they would no longer be scentless," Peleas quaintly said.

But now my mind was busy with other problems than those of such fragrance.

"Where do you go to church, my dear?" I asked, gravely, not daring to glance at Peleas.

"To the mission," she said, "over—" and she named one of the poorest and most struggling of the East Side chapels. "It's just started," she explained, "an' the lady that give most, she died, and the money don't come. And poor Mr. Lovelow, he's the minister, and he's sick—but he preaches, anyhow. And pretty near nobody comes to hear him," she added, with a curious, half-defiant emotion, her cheeks still glowing. It was strange that I, who am such a busybody of romance, was so slow in comprehending that betraying color.

Peleas and I knew where the mission was. We had even peeped into it one

Sunday when, though it was not quite finished, they were trying to hold service from the unpainted pulpit. I remembered the ugly walls, covered with the lead-pencil calculations of the builders, the forlorn reed organ, the pushing feet upon the floor. And now "the lady who give most" had died.

"Last Easter," our little friend was reiterating, "we had one geranium that the minister brought. But now his mother is dead, and I guess he won't be keeping plants. Men always lets 'em freeze. Mis' Sledge, she's got a cactus, but it hasn't bloomed yet. Maybe she'll take And they said they was going to hang up the letters left from last Christmas, for the green. They don't say nothing but 'Welcome' and 'Star of Bethlehem,' but I s'pose the 'Welcome' is always nice for a church, and I s'pose the star shines all year round, for that matter. But they don't much of anybody come. Mr. Lovelow, he's too sick to visit round much. Last Sunday they was only 'leven in the whole room.'

"Only 'leven in the whole room." hardly seemed credible in New York. Yet I knew the poverty of some of the smaller missions, especially in a case where "the lady that give most" has died. And this poor young minister, this young Mr. Lovelow whose mother had died, and who was too sick to "visit round much," and doubtless had an indifferent, poverty-ridden parish which no other minister wanted-I knew the whole story of the struggle in an instant. I looked over at our great banks of Ascension lilies and I found myself most unreasonably angry with the dear Cleatams and Chartres and the rest for the selfindulgence of having given them to us !

At that moment my eyes met those of Peleas. He was leaning forward looking at me with his adorable expression of both daring and fear of my disapproval, and I saw his eyes go swiftly to the lilies. What was he contriving, I wondered, my heart beating. He was surely not thinking of sending our lilies over to the mission, for we could never get them all there in time, and Nichola—

"Ettare!" said Peleas—and showed me in a moment heights of resourcefulness to which I can never attain"Ettare! It is only half after ten. We can't go out to service—and the mission is not four blocks from us. Why not have our little friend run over there, and if there are only two dozen or so in the church, have that young Mr. Lovelow bring them all over here, and let it be Easter in this room?"

He waved his hand to the lilies waiting there all about the walls and doing no one any good but a selfish old man and woman. He looked at me, almost abashed at his own impulse, certain that I would believe him mad. Was ever such a practical Mahomet, proposing to bring to himself some Mountain Delectable?

"Do you mean," I asked breathlessly, "to let them have church in this—"

"Here with us, in the drawing-room," Peleas explained. "Why not? There were fifty in the room for that morning Lenten musicale. There's the piano for the music. And the lilies—the lilies—"

"Of course we will," I cried. "But, oh! will they come? Do you think they will come?"

I turned to our little friend, and she had risen and was waiting with shining eyes.

"Oh, ma'am," she said, trembling, "why, ma'am! Oh, yes'm, they'll come. I'll get 'em here myself. Oh, Mr. Lovelow, he'll be so glad . . ."

She flew to her bright hat and worn coat and crimson muffler.

"Mr. Lovelow says," she cried, "that a mission church is just as much a holy temple as the ark of the government—but he was so glad when we dyed the spread for the orgin—oh, ma'am," she broke off, knotting the crimson scarf about her throat, "do you really want 'em? They ain't—you know they don't look—"

"Hurry, child," said Peleas, "and mind you don't let one of them escape!"

When she was gone we looked at each other in a frightful panic.

"Peleas," I cried, trembling, "think of all there is to be done in ten minutes."

Peleas brushed this aside as a mere straw in the wind.

"Think of Nichola," he portentously amended.

In all our flurry we could not help laughing at the frenzy of our old servant

when we told her. Old Nichola was born upon the other side of every argument. In her we can see the history of all the world working out in a miniature of wrinkles. For Nichola would have cut off her gray hair with Sparta, hurled herself fanatically abroad on St. Bartholomew's Day, borne a pike before the Bastile, broken and burned the first threshing-machine in England, stoned Luther, and helped sew the stars upon striped cloth in the kitchen of Betsy Ross.

Peleas once said that old Nichola proved to him that Liberals and Conservatives, galley-slaves and Pharaohs, are but a kind of geometrical progression in nerves from a fixed base of our common consciousness.

"For the love of heaven," cried Nichola, "church in the best room! It is not holy. Whoever heard o' church in a private house, like a spiritualist see-once, or whatever they are. An' me with a sponge-cake in the oven," she concluded, fervently. "Heaven be helpful, ma'am, I wish't you'd 'a' went to church yourselves."

By means of chairs drawn from the library and dining-room and frantically dusted with Nichola's apron, we were quickly ready, with the lilies turned from the windows to look inward upon the room, and a little table laid with a white cloth and set with a vase of lilies, for the Bible. And, in spite of Nichola, who every moment scolded and prophesied and nodded her head in the certainty that all the thunders of the church would descend upon us, we were ready when the door-bell rang. I peeped from the drawing-room window and saw that our steps were filled!

"Nichola," said I, trembling, "you will come up to the service, will you not?"
Nichola shook her old gray head.

"It's a nonsense," she shrilly proclaimed. "It will not be civilized. It will not be religious. I'll open the door on 'em, but I won't do nothink elst, ma'am."

The sun was slanting madly across our shabby drawing-room, and the lilies were a glory in the light, when we heard their garments in the hall and the voice of Little Friend. Then Peleas threw open

the door, and there was our Easter, come to us upon the threshold.

I shall not soon forget the fragile, gentle figure who led them. The Reverend Stephen Lovelow, with his soul aflame in his luminous face and deep eyes, came in with outstretched hand, and I have forgotten what he said, or, indeed, whether he spoke at all. But he took our hands in his hot, thin hand, and greeted us as the disciple must have greeted the host of that House of the Upper Room. We led the way to the white table where he laid his worn Bible. and then stood in silence while the others found their places, marshaled briskly by Little Friend, who made as efficient a captain as she had a deliverer. There were plenty of chairs and to spare, and when every one was seated, in perfect quiet, the young clergyman bowed his head:

"Lord, thou hast made thy face to shine upon us—" he prayed, and it seemed to me that our shabby drawingroom, with its windows of sun and white bloom, was suddenly glorified and quick with a presence more intimate than the lilies.

When the hymn was given out and there was a fluttering of leaves of the hymn-books they had brought, five of our guests, at a nod from Mr. Lovelow, made their way forward. One was a young woman with a face ruddy, but ruddy with that strange, wrinkled ruddiness of age rather than of youth, and she wore a huge felt hat laden with flaming roses evidently added expressly for Easter day. She had on a thin waist of flimsy pink, with a collar of beads and silver braid, and there were stones of all colors in a half-dozen rings upon her hands. She took her place at the piano . with an ease almost defiant, and she played the hymn not badly, I must admit, and sang in a full riotous soprano. Meanwhile, at her side was ranged the choir. There were four—a great watch-dog of a bass, with swelling veins upon his forehead, and erect reddish hair; a little round contralto in a plush cap, and a dress trimmed with the appliqued flowers cut from a lace curtain; a tall, shy soprano who looked from one to another through the hymn as if she were in personal exhortation; and a pleasant-faced tenor who sang with a will that was good to hear, and was evidently the choir leader, for he beat time with a stumpy, cracked hand set with a huge black ring on its middle finger. The little woman next me offered me her book, and I had a glimpse of a pinched side-face, with a displaced strand of gray hair and a loose linen collar with no cravat, but I have seldom heard a sweeter voice than that which up-trembled beside me-although, poor little woman! she was sadly ill at ease because the thumb which rested upon the book next me was thrust in a glove fully an inch too long. Peleas, he was sharing a book with a youngish man, stooped, long-armed, with a mane of loose black hair, whom Mr. Lovelow afterward told me had lost his position in a sweat-shop through drawing some excellent cartoons on the box of his machine. Mr. Lovelow himself was looking over with a mother and daughter who were afterward presented to us, and who embarrassed any listener by persistently talking in concert, each repeating a few words of what the other had just said, quite in the fashion of the most gently bred talkers bent upon assuring each other of their spontaneous sympathy and response.

And what a hymn it was! After the first stanza they gained in confidence, and a volume of sound filled the low room—ay, and a world of spirit, too. "Christ the Lord is risen to-day, Hallelu-jah! . . . " they caroled, and Peleas, who never can sing a tune aloud, although he declares indignantly that in his head he keeps it perfectly, and I, who do not sing at all, both joined perforce in the triumphant chorus. Ah, I dare say that farther down the avenue were sweetvoiced choirs that sang music long rehearsed, golden, flowing, all compact of spirit and sweet sound, and yet I think there was no more fervent Easter music than that in which we joined. It was as if the other music were the censersmoke, and we were its shadow upon the ground, but a proof of the sun, for all

I cannot now remember all that simple service, perhaps because I so well remember the very glory of the hour. I

sat where I could glimpse the sunny park stretching away, black upon silver and silver upon black, over the tops of sheaves of Ascension lilies. The face of the young minister was illumined as he read and talked to his people. I think that I have never known such gentleness, never such yearning and tenderness, as were in him for that handful of crude and careless and devout. And though he spoke passionately and convincingly, I could not but think that he was like some dumb thing striving for the utterance of the secret fire withinstriving to "burn aloud," as a violin beseeches understanding. Perhaps there is no other way to tell the story of that first day of the week—"early, when it was yet dark."

"They had brought sweet spices," he said, "with which to anoint Him. Where are the spices that we have brought to-day? Have we aught of sacrifice, of charity, of zeal, of adoration let us lay them at His feet, an offering acceptable unto the Lord, a token of our presence at the door of the sepulcher from which the stone was rolled away. Where are the sweet spices of our hands, where the pound of ointment of spikenard wherewith we shall anoint the feet of our Lord? For if we bring of our spiritual possession, the Christ will suffer us, even as he suffered Mary; and the house shall be filled with the odor of the ointment."

"And the house shall be filled with the odor of the ointment," I said over to myself. Is it not strange how a phrase, a vista, a bar of song, the thought of God beneath the open stars, will almost pierce the veil?

"And the house shall be filled with the odor of the ointment," I said silently all through the last prayer and the last hymn and the benediction of "The Lord make his face to shine upon you, the Lord give you peace." And some way, with the rustle of their rising, the abashment which is an integral part of all such gatherings as we had convoked was not to be reckoned with, and straightway the presentations and the words of gratitude, and even the pretty anxiety of Little Friend fluttering among us, were spontaneous and unconstrained.

It was quite as if, Peleas said afterward, we had some way magically been reduced to a common denominator! Indeed, it seems to me, remembering the day, as if half the principles of Christian sociology were illustrated there in our shabby drawing-room; but, for that matter, I would like to ask what complexities of political science, what profound bases of solidarité, are not on the way to be solved in the presence of Easter lilies? I am in all these matters most stupid and simple, but at all events I am not blameful enough to believe that they are exhausted by the theories.

Every one lingered for a little, in proof of the success of our venture. Peleas and I talked with the choir and the pianiste, and this lady informed us that our old rosewood piano, which we apologetically explained to be fifty years old, was every bit as good and every bit as loud as a new golden-oak instrument belonging to her sister. The tall, shy soprano told us, haltingly, how much she had enjoyed the hour, and her words carried with them all sincerity in spite of her strange system of over-emphasis of everything she said, and a carrying down the corners of her mouth, as if in deprecation. The plump little contralto thanked us, too, with a most winning smile—such round open eyes she had, immovably fixed on the object of her attention, and, as Peleas said, such evident eves.

"Her eyes looked so amazingly like eyes," he afterward commented, whimsically.

We talked, too, with the little woman of the long-thumbed gloves, who had the extraordinary habit of smiling faintly and turning away her head whenever she detected any one looking at her. And the sweat-shop cartoonist proved to be an engaging young giant with the figure of a Greek god, classic features, a manner of gravity amounting almost to hauteur, and the most pronounced East Side dialect that I have ever heard.

"Will you not let us," said I to him, after Mr. Lovelow's word about his talent, "let us see your drawings some time? It would give us great pleasure."

Whereupon, "Sure. Me, I'll toin the whol' of 'em over to youse," said the

Greek god, thumbs out and shoulders flickering!

But back of these glimpses of reality among them there was something still more real; and though I dare say there will be some who will smile at the whole affair, and seek to "rationalize" upon it, and call that interest curiosity and those awkward thanks mere aping of convention, yet Peleas and I, who have a modest degree of intelligence and had the advantage of being present, do affirm that, on that Easter morning, countless little doors were opened in the air to admit a throng of sweet presences. We cannot tell what it may have been, and we are helpless before all argument and incredulity, but we know that a certain stone was rolled away from the door of * the hearts of us all, and there were with us those in shining garments.

In the midst of all I turned to ask our Little Friend some trivial thing, and I saw that which made my old heart leap. Little Friend stood before a table of the lilies, and with her was young Mr. Lovelow. And something—I cannot tell what it may have been, but in these matters I am rarely mistaken; and somethingas she looked up and he looked down made me know, past all doubting, how it was with them. And this open secret of their love was akin to the mysteries of the day itself. The gentle, sad young clergyman and our Little Friend of the crimson muffler had suddenly opened to us another door and admitted another joyous presence. I cannot tell how it may be with every one else, but for Peleas and me one such glimpse—a glimpse of two faces alight with happiness on the street, in a car, or wherever they may be—is enough to make glad a whole gray week. Though, to be sure, no week is ever wholly gray.

I was still busy with the sweet surprise of this, and longing for opportunity to tell Peleas, when they all moved toward the door, and, with good-bys, filed into the hall. And there in the anteroom stood Nichola, our old servant, who brushed my elbow and said in my ear.

"Mem, every one of 'em looks starvin'. I've a kettle of hot coffee ready an' there's fresh sponge-cake in plenty. I've

put cups on the dinin'-room table, an' I thought—"

"Nichola!" said I, in a low and, I must believe, positively ecstatic tone.

"An' no end o' work it's made me, too," added our old servant, sourly, and not to be thought in the least gracious.

It was a very practical ending to that radiant Easter morning, but, indeed, I dare say we could have devised none better. Moreover, Nichola had ready sandwiches and a fresh cheese of her own making, and a great bowl of some simple salad dressed as only Nichola's Italian hands can dress it. I wondered, as I sat in the circle of our guests, a vase of Easter lilies on the table, whether Nichola, that grim old woman, who scorned to come to our service, had yet not brought her pound of ointment of spikenard, very precious.

"You and Mr. Lovelow are to spend the afternoon and have tea with us," I whispered Little Friend, and had the joy of seeing the tell-tale color leap gloriously to her cheek and a tell-tale happiness kindle in his eyes. I am never free from amazement that a mere word, or so humble a plan for another's pleasure, can give so much joy. Verily, one would suppose that we would all be so busy at this pastime that we would almost neglect our duties!

So when the others were gone these two lingered. All through the long, spring-gold afternoon they sat with us beside our crackling fire of bavin-sticks. telling us of this and that homely interest, of some one's timid hope and another's sacrifice, in the life of the little mission. Ah, I dare say that Carlyle and Hugo have the master's hand for touching open a casement here and there and letting one look in upon an isolated life, and, sympathizing for one passionate moment, turn away before the space is closed again with darkness; but these two were destined that day to give us glimpses hardly less poignant, to open to us so many unknown hearts that we would be justified in never again being occupied with our own concerns. And when, after tea, they stood in the dusk of the hallway trying to say good-by, I think that their secret must have shone in our faces too, and, as the children say, "we all knew that we all knew," and life was a thing of heavenly blessedness.

Young Mr. Lovelow took the hand of Peleas, and mine he kissed.

"The Lord bless you, the Lord make his face to shine upon you, the Lord give you peace," was in his eyes as he went away.

"And, oh, sir," Little Friend said shyly to Peleas as she stood at the top of the steps, knotting her crimson muffler, "ain't it good, after all, that Easter was all over ice?"

That night Peleas carried upstairs a great armful of the Ascension lilies to stand in the moonlight of our window. We took lilies to the mantel, and set great stalks of bloom upon the table, with their white trumpets turned within upon the room. And when the doors had been made fast and the lower lights extinguished, and Nichola had bade us her grumbling good-night, we opened the door of that upper room where the moon was silvering the lilies; and, on a sudden, in the dimness we stood still, smitten by a common surprise.

"Peleas," I said, uncertainly, "oh, Peleas! I thought--"

"So did I," said Peleas, with a deep breath.

We bent above the lilies that looked so sweet-scented and yet had been barren of fragrance because, we had told ourselves, they were, perhaps, flowers of symbol, without mission or message beyond the symbol, without hue or passion, or, so to say, experience. ("Perhaps if one were to make some one happy with them, or to put them in a bride's bouquet, they would no longer be scentless," Peleas had quaintly said.) And now Peleas and I were certain, as we stood hushed beside them, that our Easter lilies were giving out a faint, delicious fragrance.

I looked up at him almost fearfully in the flood of spring moonlight. The radiance was full upon his white hair and tranquil face, and he met my eyes with the knowledge that we were suddenly become the custodians of a strange, exquisite secret. The words of the young servant of God came to me understandingly.

"'And the house shall be filled with the odor of the ointment,' I said over, softly. "Oh, Peleas," I added, tremulously, "do you think . . ."

Peleas lifted his face, and I thought that it shone in the dimness.

"Ah, well," he answered, "we must believe all the beautiful things we can."

Comment on Current Books

Among the books of special New Books interest just published, and on of Importance which comment will be made later on in The Outlook, may be mentioned: Mr. Horace Traubel's "With Walt Whitman in Camden" (Small, Maynard & Co.), a volume of personal reminiscences by one whom some reviewer has termed Whitman's Boswell; Professor John C. Van Dyke's "The Opal Sea" (Scribners), which, like Professor Van Dyke's "The Desert," is a study in impressions and appearances; "The Memoirs of Archbishop Temple," by "Seven Friends" (Macmillan); Mr. Stephen Phillips's "Nero," a drama in blank verse: and a new volume in the standard reference-book, "Grove's Dictionary of Music and Musicians" (Macmillan).

The Art of Keeping Well A sensible book of advice out of a half-century of experience. The cheerful, spiritual tone of the writer is more fully

accounted for in the biography filling half of the book, and in the tributes paid to her high character and great usefulness from men and women who came within her influence during her long and busy life. Her usefulness and her charities are perpetuated in the lives of her many friends, though she has entered the "upper room." (The Art of Keeping Well. By Cordelia A. Greene, M.D. Dodd, Mead & Co., New York. \$1.25, net.)

Bruges and West Flanders of illustrated descriptions of picturesque lands. The fascination of the "dead cities" of Flanders has been felt by many travelers, who will be eager to read these bits of history and comment by Mr. Osmond, and enjoy at the same time the admirable colored plates done by Amedée Forestier. Each one of these quaint, often despoiled towns has remaining some romantic relics and picturesque buildings—belfry, market-place, Hôtel de Ville—old

gateways, or churches enriched with paintings. In Bruges the Belfry "old and brown, thriced consumed and thrice rebuilded," or the Hospital of St. John, with its priceless Memlincs, or the quiet and quaint Béguinage, or the glimpses of silent canals which Bruges shares in common with many cities in the Low Countries, all return to the memory, and impel one to revisit the town. West Flanders is still less influenced by change, and the country lying back from the coast, between the borders of France and Holland, retains the Flemish speech and the Flemish independence of manner. It is strange that among so many pictures the Belfry of Bruges does not appear in this volume, though the Market-place, more picturesque than in reality, has a place. While the text of the book is not remarkable in any way, it is written in clear, simple style, and rehearses the main historical points desirable for a reader to know. Among the towns of West Flanders are Ypres, Furnes, with its mediæval annual procession of penitents, Nieuport, and Coxyde. The amazing and decidedly disturbing contrast between the dreamy quiet of the "dead cities" and the blatant, dazzling glare of the terribly new wateringplaces on the coast, overrun by tourists and the unspeakable English variety known as "trippers," is not too strongly shown, and makes the conservative traveler wish there were not so many people in the world, or that a less number could afford to journey abroad. (Bruges and West Flanders. By G. W. T. Osmond. The Macmillan Company, New York: \$3.)

The two books whose titles are Concerning given below approach the sub-Immortality ject of immortality from different points of view. Professor Ostwald, Professor of Chemistry at the University of Leipzig, treats the question as a purely scientific problem. His conclusion is that "the only lasting kind of life that I can discover in the realm of our experience" is the immortality of influence. This is not a very satisfactory conclusion to one whose friend has disappeared into the unknown future Nor is the process of investigation any more satisfactory. Immortality, at least as Professor Ostwald regards it, is a hope of the future. Hope is not seen, "for what a man seeth why doth he yet hope for?" but natural science deals only with what is seen. Whatever in the unseen it deduces from the seen is at the best but a working hypothesis, and immortality as a working hypothesis is not of any great vital value. Dr. Crothers approaches the problem as a philosopher, or rather as a prophet. His volume is an interpretation of life by a seer. To him immortality is a present experience, a kind of life rather than a mere duration: it is qualitative, not merely quantitative. Dr. Crothers's conclusion is summed up in these two sentences: "'Beloved, now are we the sons of God, and it doth not yet appear what we shall be.' Conscious of the divine quality of the present life, one can afford to wait for the things which do not yet appear." It can hardly be necessary for The Outlook to add that of these two the second appears to us to be the saner and more rational point of view. (The Endless Life. By S. M. Crothers. Houghton, Mifflin & Co., Boston. 75c. Individuality and Immortality. By Wilhelm Ostwald. Houghton, Mifflin & Co., Boston. 75c.)

Mrs. Burnett has followed The Dawn some other writers into of a To-Morrow the London slums, and gives us a dramatic, perhaps a melodramatic, view of the dreadful conditions there. A rich, titled man, without hope in the world, decides to end his life in the obscurity of a shabby London lodging-house. Reversing the plot of Lord Fauntleroy, in this case the weary man is shown the better way by an ugly, untaught child, and learns, among his squalid surroundings and poverty-stricken companions, that life is worth living, and worth too much to be thrown away. There is a decidedly tense air about the short story, which detracts from its intended effect. (The Dawn of a To-Morrow. By Frances Hodgson Burnett. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. \$1.)

Dr. Bliss here tells The Development of the story of his prede-Palestine Exploration cessors in the field in which he has won distinction. It is a long line, in which the typical modern explorer first appears in Felix Fabri, four centuries ago. The moderns most prominent in this narrative, originally given as the Ely Lectures at Union Seminary in 1903, are our countryman, Professor Edward Robinson, Renan, his contemporaries, and the workers sustained by the Palestine Exploration Fund, organized in 1865. What Dr. Bliss gives us is for the most part a bird's-eye view of a large field, with some details of the sites with which he has been personally concerned, as at Tell-el-Hesy (the ancient Lachish) and Jerusalem. While only twenty of many hundreds of sites have been excavated, there still is much to expect, for the realizing of which some practical suggestions are given. (The Development of Palestine Exploration. By Frederick Jones Bliss, Ph.D. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. \$1.50, net.)

The Girls of Gardenville

attractions of innocence and youthful faults.

"The Sweet Sixteen" Club made fudge, and went on picnics, and behaved just as jolly, nice maidens should. (The Girls of Gardenville. By Carroll Watson Rankin. Henry Holt & Co., New York. \$1.50.)

The romance of a little French A Lady countess in the court of Marie in Waiting Antoinette is interesting, though not novel either in plot or style. Escaping "paying the debt" that all her family paid with their lives, the lady fled to America, where she won the republican court of Washington as she had the aristocratic court of France. We are gratified to know that her sweetness and beauty were rewarded by happy love and a home in her own country at last. The miniature portrait shows "Julia de Chesnil" to be a charming figure. (A Lady in Waiting. By Charles Woodcock Savage. D. Appleton & Co., New York. \$1.50.)

The provincial life of a little A Lame Dog's English village is reflected in this clever diary kept by an invalid officer who returned crippled from the Boer War. The suggestion of the diary came from a winning, tantalizing young widow, who cheered the invalid by her amusing, paradoxical talk. The diarist and his sister Palestrina are true English types—quiet gentlefolk. The romance glowing beneath the light tone of the diary is delightful and novel enough to insure the reader's attention to the end. The author has a good sense of humor. (A Lame Dog's Diary. By S. McNaughton. Dodd, Mead & Co., New York. \$1.50.)

While our country's growth The Launching in material wealth and of a University power is more obvious to the common eye, its more fundamental interests have not been neglected; its creation and fostering of great universities has been equally remarkable. Rather more than a third of this volume is commemorative of the founding and growth of an institution which distinctly advanced our ideal of university education-the Johns Hopkins University, of which the writer, Dr. Daniel Coit Gilman, was the master builder, and for its first quarter-century the President. Suppressing to the utmost his own part therein, Dr. Gilman devotes himself to commemorating the work and genius of his associates. It was a rare and brilliant group of torchbearers in the advance of learning that he gathered round him in Baltimore, and it is a

rich "sheaf of remembrances" that he has preserved in noteworthy reminiscences and characterizations of gifted men, set forth in finished literary form with here and there a gem of pleasantry and wit. Following this are addresses at various universities on great occasions, such as the Yale Bicentennial, and as many others, given elsewhere, on themes of educational and civic importance. Dr. Gilman is now at the head of the Carnenegie Institution for the Advancement of Knowledge, and takes the present opportunity to say something of it for better public information. But Johns Hopkins is his memorial, and will be. (Launching of a University, and Other Papers. By Daniel Coit Gilman, LL.D. Dodd, Mead & Co., New York. \$2.50, net.)

In preceding volumes thus The Life of entitled Professor George Reason Santayana, of Harvard, has examined the "phases of human progress" in common sense, society, religion, and art. In this volume he examines them in science, mainly in mental and moral science—history, dialectics, psychology, ethics. The fundamental misconceptions that have been noticed in the former volumes stand out in this. "No causes are other than mechanical." "Historical research is a part of physics." A man's life is predetermined by his nature. "The morality which has genuine authority exists inevitably, and speaks autonomously in every common judgment, self-congratulation, ambition, or passion that fills the vulgar day "-a statement that inevitably reminds one of Nietzsche. Yet a higher strain, discordant with this, is also heard. Though existence is "irrational," reason gets in somehow from somewhere. "To stop at selfishness is not particularly rational. ... It is discipline that renders men rational and capable of happiness, by suppressing without hatred what needs to be suppressed to attain a beautiful naturalness. . . . The true conscience is rather an integrated natural will, chastened by clear knowledge of what it pursues and may attain." Intellectualism thus makes the difference between the spiritually and the materially minded man. But the only advantage of this "spiritual life" is that "the physical equilibrium attained insures to it a natural stability and a natural prosperity" so long as the body lasts. "An ultimate extinction of man and all his works" should not seem a thought intolerable. Professor Santayana's skeptical criticism of scientific method and progress has the advantage of a charming literary style, coupled with the drawback of a nil admirari tone that leaves the reader unrelieved by the consciousness of getting much help toward the goal of moral endeavor for moral reality. (The Life of Reason. By George Santayana. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. \$1.25.)

Of the various misuses of Melody in speech in public address, prob-Speech ably the worst is that of the man who preaches consciously artificial elocution; the next worst is that of the man who imagines that to be "natural" is all that is required of a public speaker. It is almost as necessary to learn how to use one's voice in speech as to learn how to use one's fingers in playing the pianoforte. A good vocal teacher is desirable, but not always, perhaps we should say not often, obtainable. In the absence of such a teacher, this little book, in its third edition, will be found a manual of proved value. The "reminiscences" of Professor Raymond's teaching given in the appendix prepared by his son, R. W. Raymond, add value as well as interest to the book. (Melody in Speech: A Book of Principle, Precept, and Practice in Inflection and Emphasis. By Robert R. Raymond, A.M.; edited and published after his death by R. W. Raymond. New York, 1906.)

Miss Primrose

These character studies are so slight as to be sketches rather than stories, but they have a delicacy and sincerity which give them literary interest. They are gathered into three groups, the chapters of each having a common purpose. There are gentle pathos and quaint humor to be found throughout. (Miss Primrose. By Roy Rolfe Gilson. Harper & Brothers, New York. \$1.25.)

Although the "Story of the A New History Nations" series already of Greece possesses a volume on Greece by Professor James A. Harrison, the general editor of the series is amply justified in including this new volume by Dr. Schuckburgh, whose point of view is entirely different from the earlier work, which was mainly an outline. Here stress is laid upon the political, intellectual, and artistic achievements of the Greeks, rather than on the wars in which Greece engaged. The narrative reads easily, and has the merits of a consecutive and well-proportioned story. The period covered is from the occupation of Greece by the Hellenes up to A.D. 14, and a second volume is proposed dealing with the later history of the Greeks' waning power and fame. (The Story of the Nations: Greece.

By E. S. Schuckburgh, Litt.D. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. \$1.35, net.)

The Prisoner of Ornith Farm

A frankly sensational story by the author of "The House on the Hudson." One must not inquire too critically as to the underlying probabilities of such tales. Both of these books have vividness and suspense and show considerable ingenuity in sustaining the reader's attention in the main situation by the dramatic way in which the successive incidents are managed; but both are weak as to the motive for action. (The Prisoner of Ornith Farm. By Frances Powell. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. \$1.50.)

The Spirit of A graceful story by a new writer which follows somethe Pines what the lines of a popular romance that appeared several years ago. A young woman of the world, suffering bereavement, went for retirement to an old manse in Vermont. There she met a young physician who, his health being broken, was ordered to Colorado, and given but a few years to live. This propinquity caused the tragedy of love and separation. While the romance is slight, it is refined and combines strength with pathos. (The Spirit of the Pines. By Margaret Moore. Houghton, Mifflin & Co., Boston. \$1.)

The Title-Mart

This is a frankly tarcical play aimed at title-hunting and toadyism among American fashionable people. The scene is placed in a millionaire's "camp," near his native New England vilage; and there is, in addition to the social satire, a quaint flavor of Yankee country life. (The Title-Mart. By Winston Churchill. The Macmillan Company, New York. 75c., net.)

The young lady who The Truth About achieved popularity at a Tolna single stroke, Miss Bertha Runkle, has written of an American fortnight almost as crowded with events as were those few amazing days in "The Helmet of Navarre." There are a dash and vigor about the handling of this novel of modern New York life that will carry it, perhaps, beyond its real merits. The double character forced upon Tolna by his artistic friend and manager gives opportunity for several farcical situations and an occasional semi-tragic note. Tolna and Mrs. Burnham are most entertaining. Denys Alden is less convincing than some other members of his social set. (The Truth About Tolna. By Bertha Runkle. The Century Company, New York. \$1.50.)



Chicago's Traction Struggle By George C. Sikes

The Grand Canal of China By George Kennan

The American Teacher in the Philippines
By James A. Le Roy

The Children's Plea By Jacob A. Riis



The Outlook

Volume 82

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THE OUTLOOK is a Weekly Newspaper and an Illustrated Monthly Magazine in one. It is published every Saturday—fifty-two issues a year. The fourth issue in each month is an Illustrated Magazine Number, containing about twice as many pages as the regular weekly issue, and many pictures.

PRICE.—The subscription price is Three Dollars a year, payable in advance. Ten cents a copy.

POSTAGE IS PREPAID by the publishers for all subscriptions in the United States, Hawaiian Islands, Philippine Islands, Guam, Porto Rico, Tutuila (Samoa), Shanghai, Canal Zone, Cuba, Canada, and Mexico. For all other countries in the Postal Union add \$1.56 for postage.

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The Outlook

SATURDAY, MARCH 31, 1906

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The beef-packers in-"Immunity Bath ", dicted under the Sherman Anti-Trust Law, charged with a conspiracy in restraint of trade, were declared by Judge Humphrey, of the United States District Court in Chicago, last week, immune against prosecution. The history of the case may thus be epitomized: In order to obtain information for further perfecting the law concerning corporations, Congress empowered the Department of Commerce and Labor to make investigations into corporation management. In accordance with this authorization, the Bureau of Corporations in the Department of Commerce and Labor examined certain packers. Later the Department of Justice had these packers indicted. The packers claimed immunity under the law. Judge Humphrey's decision, which was rendered orally, was in their favor. man's constitutional right to refuse to incriminate himself can be altered only by the substitution of an equivalent or a broader right. This substitution has been made by statute to the effect that a a man who testifies against himself under compulsion cannot be prosecuted. Judge Humphrey holds that, in order to provide immunity, his testimony does not need to be self-incriminating; it need only be evidence "concerning the matter covered by the indictment." In this respect the decision is not a statement of common law, but an interpretation of the Judge Humphrey, moreover, statute. decided that, although the testimony given to the Bureau of Corporations was not under oath or under compulsion of subpœna, it was in effect legal in character and involuntary. Although the officials are exempt, the corporations are, of course, as Judge Humphrey pointed out, amenable to prosecution. If Judge Humphrey's interpretation stands, it appears to us that the statute needs modification. It certainly seems anomalous that a man guilty of conspiracy in restraint of trade can go before a Government official in response to the requirements of a statute, offer testimony which does not reveal his criminal action, and thereupon become invulnerable against the weapons of justice. As Attorney-General Moody said, this is equivalent to supplying corporation magnates with a legal Carlsbad where they can in comfort cleanse themselves periodically of their misdoings—a sort of "immunity bath." If the Supreme Court has denied to corporation officials the right to set up the privileges of a corporation, this decision seems to give them more than ample privileges on their own account.

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Clinging to the Spoils

When has a popular convention at Washington, influencing some

measure before Congress, been immediately followed by Congressional action? Yet such action followed the National Consular Reform Association's appeal a fortnight ago to the House of Representatives to pass the Consular Bill. Last week the bill was passed, minus the clause authorizing the transference of consular officers in the same grade from one place to another according to the needs of the service. This provision is regarded as so important by most members of the Consular Reform Association and by many legislators who voted for it in the Senate that they are trying to have it reincorporated. Senate and House conferees are Senators Lodge, Cullum, and Hale, Representatives Adams, Denby, and Towne; we earnestly hope that they will agree to support the clause. The opposition to it in the House comes, first, from Congressmen who want to retain certain particular consuls in certain particular

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"fat offices." If we may not have the admirable direct promotion clause (struck out by the Senate and largely for the same reason), the efficiency of the service demands at least a provision for transference, to enable in some slight degree the State Department and the President to reward merit and to take advantage of the power to transfer in one grade, at times perhaps getting the right man in the right place. Secondly, the opposition is caused by a civil service feature in the clause. Congressmen apparently see in it the thin edge of the wedge; what if Civil Service Reform were extended to the whole consular service! Hence, by their action, Congressmen would indicate that they still think more of personal and selfish interests than of the National and broad interests affected by the civil service feature which provides that

No consul-general or consul shall be transferred to a country in which the United States exercises extraterritorial jurisdiction until he shall have passed an examination in the fundamental principles of the common law, the rules of evidence, and the trial of civil and criminal cases.

The principal country in which we exercise extraterritorial jurisdiction is China. While the general quality of our consuls there is gratifyingly improving, there is still room for improvement. In order to attain it we need somewhat to change our own attitude of mind. We need to consider solely the reputation in China as to the character, ability, and judicialmindedness of our representatives there, and not their personal attractiveness or their political influence here. Acting upon this, our consular standard will in general be still further raised, and, in particular, we will have done much towards bringing about a friendlier feeling towards us among a people whom we have wronged. This, among other desirable results, is what the final phrase in the offending clause would accomplish.

Private Interests or Public Justice?

Not a few protectionists have joined in the effort to have the Philippine Tariff Bill called back for action in the Senate from the committee which, as already stated in The Outlook,

has refused to report at all on the measure, thus obstructing an obviously right and fair-minded method of commercial relief to the Filipinos. This bill provides, as our readers will remember, that sugar and tobacco may be imported from the Philippines into the United States at one-quarter of the Dingley tariff until 1909, after which time those products are to come in free of tax. Notable among the protests against the present policy of repression is a letter sent to the two Senators from Connecticut signed by seventeen of the most prominent business men of that State, all Republicans and all protectionists. They declare that a vote against the bill would "misrepresent the overwhelming Republican sentiment in Connecticut." names signed to this letter and the manufacturing interests represented give it weight and show that it fairly represents hundreds of other practical men of the same party affiliation and economic be-The Hartford "Courant," a stanch and able supporter of the policy of protection, says, in commenting on the letter: "It is mighty refreshing to have strong men of unimpeachable character and purpose speak out in this vigorous way. We have every reason to believe that they speak the sentiments of the great majority of the people of the State in their appeal, and we venture to hope that they do not appeal in vain." Even the tobacco interests, as a Connecticut Congressman, Mr. Hill, has shown, are not unanimous in holding that the bill is an injury to them, and it is hardly to be believed that the production of 600,000,-000 pounds of tobacco in this country is likely to suffer from the possible importation of some part of the 19,000,000 pounds of Philippine production, while as to sugar the price will continue to be fixed by the importations which pay the full duty. Senator Brandegee attempts to justify his hostility to the bill by asserting that American labor would by its enactment be brought into competition with Asiatic labor. The answer is simple: We have brought the Filipinos under American rule, and while they continue to be American subjects their interests must be guarded and they must have a fair chance for improvement and

prosperity. Senator Brandegee declares that he cannot see "any moral question or any question of good faith involved," but a large part of his own constituents and of the people of the United States have no difficulty in seeing that such a question exists and is of paramount importance. If the Connecticut Senators were elected by the people of their State directly, they would not place the desire of some of the rural members of the Legislature chosen on an antiquated plan of misrepresentation to outweigh the sentiment of the State at large as indicated by the press and by such remonstrances as that quoted above.

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What promised at first to An Insult to be a triumph of orderly prothe Nation cedure over mob violence was turned suddenly last week into defiance of the most august tribunal of the Nation. A negro in Tennessee was a few weeks ago charged with the crime which has often been regarded as the only excuse for lynching. Before and during his trial great care was taken to keep him from bodily harm at the hands of lawless men. The negro churches of the vicinity passed resolutions condemning the crime for which he was charged and calling upon the race to regard all those who commit the crime as insufferable. The accused negro was defended by reputable white lawyers. He was identified by the victim as the real criminal. The jury brought in a verdict of guilty and the prisoner was sentenced to be hanged. Then occurred a proceeding which, to say the least, was unfortunate. The counsel for the condemned man. after consultation with the representatives of the State, decided not to appeal the case. The ground on which their decision was placed was hardly creditable; it was, namely, that any further trial of the case would arouse the lynching spirit and that therefore the condemned man should waive his right to an appeal and go to his death. Outlook has long held that appeals in criminal cases are too frequent and easy in this country; but it does not require any great intelligence to discern the peril in abandoning even a faulty judicial method out of fear of the lawless and the violent. This fear has now brought its natural consequences. People of his own race engaged on behalf of the prisoner other counsel and appealed his case. The United States Supreme Court granted the appeal, which was equivalent also to a stay of execu-Thereupon the violence which had been anticipated, and we cannot help but feel involuntarily encouraged, by lawyers engaged in the case, broke out. The prisoner, insufficiently guarded, was taken, by an apparently well-organized though small body of men, and killed. The lynching mob thus at last has not merely defied the State, but has affronted the dignity of the whole Nation by its insult to the United States Supreme Court. Happily, this excessive and peculiarly uncontrolled exhibition of a deliberate lynching spirit comes at a period when lynching is rapidly decreasing. This incident ought to serve as a stimulant to that public reprehension of lynching which is apparently leading to the extinction of this particularly uncivilized form of crime. We hope that it can be found that the Supreme Court has the power to take some action with regard to this lynching, which was really if not legally an act of contempt for its own decision.

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Rapid Transit in

In his settlement of

the rapid transit Philadelphia problem in Philadelphia Mayor Weaver has just consummated what to many seems to be the most notable achievement of his already notable administration. Our readers will recall that in 1901 the "midnight acts." as they were called because of their signature by Governor Stone at midnight of the day they were passed by the Legislature, and in the presence of Senators Quay, Penrose, and the big and little bosses of the principal cities of the State, enabled the Council of Philadelphia to give away without any consideration to favored corporations immensely valuable franchises over, under, and on the streets of Philadelphia, notwithstanding Mr. John Wanamaker's cash offer of

\$2,500,000 for them, in addition to other

substantial guarantees in the public

interests. These franchises, thus filched from the public through the treachery of the Legislature and of the Councils of Philadelphia, were subsequently sold to the Philadelphia Traction Company, and the promised competition which was the one excuse offered in their behalf made The Philadelphia Rapid impossible. Transit Company was created to take over the old and new franchises. It has thus far sought to exercise its right under only one of the ordinances, that providing for the subway on Market Street, but this dog-in-the-manger policy has prevented real competition and has resulted in delaying the solution of the rapid transit problem in the city. A few weeks ago a new corporation known as the Philadelphia and Western Railroad offered to provide this competition in the form of elevated and subway structures, and at a time when the Rapid Transit Company needed an extension of time for the completion of its subway. Mayor seized the opportunity to force a settlement of the whole question, and this has just been completed in a way that is satisfactory alike to the merchants who were anxious for the completion of the Market Street subway because of the improved facilities that it would provide, and to the citizens who were anxious to have competition and a satisfactory general solution of the vexed problem of adequate transportation facilities. As the "North American" pointed out in a commendatory editorial, "the Mayor played a weak hand with consummate skill," and has compelled the Philadelphia Rapid Transit Company to surrender many of its stolen franchises, thus clearing the way for the Philadelphia and Western Railroad, and removing the danger of disfiguring tracks on the city's principal thoroughfare, Broad Street. Moreover, the Rapid Transit Company has agreed to pay \$400,000 to be applied upon the cost of removing certain grade crossings of the Reading Railroad. the other hand, it has agreed to complete within three years a number of other subways, and an elevated railway from the river front and South Street to Frankford, an important northeastern suburb. The Philadelphia and Western Railroad receives the franchises it asked for, thus

insuring a great increase in transportation facilities and substantial competition to the existing company along a considerable portion of its route. "North American" describes the situation as the "dawning of a new day," claiming that less than a year ago Philadelphia was apparently "helpless in the grasp of three great monopolies—the political monopoly of the Republican organization, the public highway monopoly of the Rapid Transit Company, and the steam railroad monopoly of the Pennsylvania Railroad Company. The first has been broken, overturned, and destroyed, the second is as good as broken," and it declares that the third is shortly to be disrupted. For years the Pennsylvania Railroad has been the dominating political factor in Philadelphia and Pennsylvania politics, and has been able either to prevent its competitors from entering the city, or has greatly delayed the execution of their plans, or has dictated the terms upon which they could enter. As it now controls both the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad and the Reading Railroad through stock ownership, there is practically but one railway interest in Philadelphia. If, as is supposed and stated, the proposed road is a part of the Gould system, then the "North American's" prophecy is likely to come true. There has been great rejoicing in Philadelphia over the Mayor's victory, not only because of the substantial results which will accrue, but because it marks the beginning of real rapid transit in the city and because it represents so complete a change from old methods.

The Remonstrance of the Labor Leaders of organized wage-earners, including Mr. Samuel Gompers, President of the American Federation of Labor, called upon the President last week and laid before him a remonstrance. They complained on behalf of organized labor that a recent enactment would nullify the eight-hour law in its application to the work on the Panama Canal; that bills now before Congress would reverse the American policy with regard to Chinese exclusion, and would endanger the free-

dom of American seamen; that insufficient Government supervision has made possible unskilled crews on vessels in American waters, with a consequent terrible loss of life; that the present antitrust laws have been perverted to the violation of the rights of labor; that the Committee on Labor in the House of Representatives is so organized that it ignores the requests of organized labor and is hostile to its interests; and that in the matter of immigration, of Chinese exclusion, of injunctions, and of the redress of the grievances of Government employees, the Executive department has disregarded the interests of the wage-earners. An identical memorial was presented to each House of Congress through its presiding officer. The remonstrance closed with this warning: "If perchance you may not heed us, we shall appeal to the conscience and support of our fellow-citizens."

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In spite of this misdi-The President's rected appeal to fear of Reply political influence, the labor leaders received from the President a reply which was by no means unsympathetic. It abounded, however, in plain speech. Mr. Roosevelt pointed out that, in the four and a half years he had been President, the Government, as it had happened, had invoked the right of injunction many times against capitalists, but not once, so far as he remembered, against a combination of laborers. "But understand me, gentlemen," he added; "if I ever thought it necessary, if I thought a combination of laborers were doing wrong. I would apply for an injunction against them just as quick as against so many capitalists." Naturally, capitalists, as capitalists, are against the anti-injunction bill; and legislators have criticised it as going too far; if the labor leaders thought it did not go far enough. the President assured them, they would "have no earthly difficulty in killing the bill." We hope Mr. Gompers and his associates saw the humor of the position into which they might thus put themselves. The President frankly expressed his belief in the eight-hour law for the United States, but as clearly expressed

his belief in its impracticability for Panama. Similarly, he affirmed his belief in the exclusion of Chinese coolies; but he added that he would do everything in his power to make it easy and desirable for the Chinese of the business and professional classes, the Chinese travelers and students, to come here, and to secure their good treatment when they come. As good citizens, indeed, he said his hearers ought to uphold this course. "No laboring man," he said, "has anything whatever to fear from that policy, and no man can say with sincerity that on this or indeed on any other point has he any excuse for misunderstanding my policy." In stating the principles by which he is guided with regard to immigration, he stated the more fundamental principle by which he is guided as the Chief Executive of a self-governing Nation: "This is needed first in the interests of the laboring man, but furthermore in the interests of all of us as American citizens. For, gentlemen, the bonds that unite all good American citizens are stronger by far than the differences, which I think vou accentuate altogether too much, between the men who do one kind of labor and the men who do another." We believe that wage-earners, like other citizens, will value this frankness. Some public men are now ready to deny justice to the Philippines out of regard for the power of a set of special corporate interests; other public men are ready to continue our humiliating treatment of Chinese out of regard for the power of a set of special labor interests. At such a time the country cannot be too grateful to public men who openly acknowledge that they are guided only by what they believe to be the interest and honor of the whole people.

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The Labor Situation in the Coal Industry

The Coal Industry

The negotiations between the soft-coal operators and mine workers looking toward a compromise of their differences as to the wages to prevail in that industry following April 1 continue at this writing in an unsatisfactory state. The conventions of both operators and mine workers in session at Indianapolis the past ten

days have been unable to reach an agreement, and the prospect now is that the amicable settlement of the differences forecast in President Mitchell's address to the special convention of the United Mine Workers of America will not be attained. In this address he expressed hope of re-establishing relations with the operators "upon a basis which will be just to them, reasonably satisfactory to the great constituency we represent, and at the same time properly considerate of the welfare of the entire country, whose interests cannot be disregarded with impunity by any class of citizens, regardless of its strength or influence." After detailing the principal events in the negotiations for a compromise of their differences with the operators, including the part taken by President Roosevelt, the address of the President of the United Mine Workers stated as a result that the officials of the union "came to believe that there had been such changes in the coal trade, or at least in the attitude of many operators, as to justify the hope that there was a possibility of reaching an agreement, provided the joint conventions were reconvened." But upon the Inter-State Joint Conference being called together again, differences of opinion as to the policy to be pursued split the operators into two antagonistic factions. One of these was led by Mr. Francis L. Robbins, of the Pittsburg Coal Company, who favored a restoration of the five and one-half per cent. wage reduction of 1904, while the other faction opposed granting any concessions whatsoever to the mine workers. This dissension among the operators overshadowed the entire proceedings of the Inter-State Joint Conference, while the differences among the mine workers. which at one time threatened seriously to disrupt the miners' organization, were kept in the background if not settled by the tact and genius of the miners' National president. The critical condition in which the negotiations in the anthracite industry were left by the sweeping refusal of the hard-coal-carrying railroad presidents to grant any of the demands of the miners' committee has been slightly relieved by a renewal of correspondence between President Baer and President Mitchell. In this, assurances are given the public that at least one more meeting of the committees of the anthracite operators and mine workers will be held in an effort to arrive at a satisfactory But as the award of the settlement. Anthracite Coal Strike Commission expires on Saturday of this week, it is probable that some action will be taken by the two parties in interest to continue their present friendly relations until the committees can come to some understanding as to the future conditions of employment and wages. At this writing the situation in both the bituminous and anthracite coal industries of the country as regards the future operation of the mines by the members of the United Mine Workers of America is in a most unsettled state. In the meantime the officials of the United Mine Workers are planning another convention of the anthracite mine employees, to which will be submitted a full report of the work of the committee appointed by the Shamokin convention of last December to carry on the negotiations with the operators.

The arrest of the The Western President and Sec-Federation of Miners retary of the Western Miners' Federation on the charge of having been concerned in the murder of the late Governor Steuenberg, of Idaho, was lately reported in The Outlook. In view of the fact that this miners' labor union is charged with having connived in the murder of some thirty men, it is of interest to know that men who are officers and leaders in that union describe its purposes and principles as in some points far more liberal than the labor unions in the East. A correspondent of The Outlook recently had an interview with three of the officers of the Western Federation of Miners, whom he describes as but lately engaged in drilling underground but now called to Denver to manage the affairs of 50,000 union members during the absence of President Moyer and Secretary Haywood. He found them to be theoretical Socialists. In response to his question as to why they were unusually liberal in opening the union to

any applicants, one of them said: "We don't believe that we ought ever to erect any barriers between one workingman and another workingman. The workingman who is excluded from the unions is the man who in the long run will break the unions up. So we take in everybody. We enroll the man who does the mining, and the man who does the shoveling, and the man who runs the engines, and the man who does the common labor, and the man who drives the teams, and everybody who does anything in or around a And we keep the wages of the unskilled man as close to the wages of the skilled man as possible. Where the skilled man is getting three and a half a day, we like to see the unskilled man get about three." And in reply to the suggestion that a greater distinction than this would give the unskilled man a greater incentive to become skilled, the same union officer said: "That is one way of looking at it. You want the men to compete with each other harder. We believe that modern life makes us compete enough anyhow, and we want to see the unskilled man prosperous and happy, because there are more of him than of us after all and always will be, and we must raise him as far as possible toward our level of income or else he will drag us down to his. All workingmen must rise or fall together. That's our philosophy." The fact that the Western Federation of Miners admits members of other unions freely suggested the question, "Aren't you interested in keeping the mining industry to yourselves?" The prompt reply v/as, "No, we are not. We never make any attempt to restrict the number of men who want to learn the mining trade. We have no apprentice system. And we admit without question any man who has a card from any other bona-fide labor organization. You can go to-morrow and get a job in any mine where our organization is strong. You may displace one of our members. We don't care. All that we insist upon is that after you have been in the mine a certain number of months you ought to join our organization. We are not a gang of monopolistic pirates building a stone wall around the mining industry in order to hog all the jobs in it. Our

idea is quite different, and we think it is a better idea. We want all workingmen in the mining industry and in all other industries to be together, whether they are skilled or unskilled, and we think that when you keep a man out of a union you turn him from a workingman into an enemy of the working class. Our idea is that it is only by an absolutely united working class that anything can be accomplished against capitalism. We are not interested in ourselves as miners. We are interested in ourselves as workingmen. Therefore we demand no closed shop contracts with the mine-owners, we impose no restriction upon the amount of work a man may do in a day, we keep no one out through an apprentice system in which the number of apprentices is always made smaller than the number of journeymen, we freely admit the members of other unions, and we pay special attention to bringing the unskilled man up toward the wage-level of the skilled man. The whole idea is a united working class. The man who, because he has a certain kind of skill, separates himself from his unskilled fellows and forms a union for keeping everybody else out and for boosting his own dirty pittance, that man is our enemy. He has deserted the working class and he is helping the employer,"

The difficulty of getting Are "Chattels" natives to work in the Free Men? Transvaal gold mines compelled the mine-owners some time since to import Chinese coolies, who have since been living in the Transvaal as "chattels." In the legal sense of the word this condition may not be slavery. but the condition of "chattels" is certainly not that of free men. Among the Liberal principles upon which the recent electoral campaign in England was conducted, one was that in no part of the British Empire should there be any condition of servitude approaching slavery. to which was added the statement that the condition of the Chinese coolies in the Transvaal did approach such a condition and that a stop should be put to it. When he became Prime Minister, Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman announced this programme: As soon as a law regu-

lating electoral conditions can be framed, legislatures will be conceded to the inhabitants of the Transvaal and Orange River colonies, and they will then become self-governing without the intermediate step designed by his predecessor; but if the Transvaal legislature chooses to permit Chinese coolies to enter that colony, they shall not lose the fundamental rights of personal freedom-in other words, the rights of free colonists must take second place in comparison with the proper attitude of the home Government regarding the forced levies of labor little better than slavery; furthermore, the Government, while not yet prepared to offer any final solution of the Chinese labor problem, will stop the issue of licenses and will defray the cost of returning to his native country any Chinese miner who may desire to leave South Africa; finally, before the Transvaal is itself in position to legislate, the present "chattel" ordinance as enacted by Parliament will be repealed, so that the colony embarking on its career of selfgovernment shall not inherit an undesirable legacy. In this, Sir Henry's opponents declare, the Government practically reverses the Chinese labor contracts and really claims a veto power against self-governing colonies, a power once claimed by George III. in the case of another colony! The practical question, however, resolves itself into the form of legislature to be adopted in the Trans-If its seats are to be distributed according to population, the Boer or agricultural element will probably predominate; if according to voters, the British or mining element. The question of Chinese labor in the Transvaal, therefore, will be influenced, if not indeed ultimately settled, by the conditions attached to the franchise.

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M. Clémenceau's Position

Last week M. Clémenceau, Minister of the Interior in the new French Cabinet, replying to a question in the Senate, tersely expressed the Government's view relative to the employment of force in carrying out the inventories of Church properties. "We

intend to enforce the law," he said, "but the numbering of candlesticks in churches is not worth the risk of sacrificing a single human life." This is construed as indicating that, where resistance is offered, other means than force will be adopted to attain the end. Resistance has been offered not only in the capital, but especially in the provinces of Brittany and Auvergne. At Rennes in the former province certain officers refused to command their troops to enter a church and assist in taking an inventory. Two instances were reported of vicars firing revolvers. Thus fanatical sentiments. controlling ignorant peasants, priests, soldiers, or officials, may easily lead to riot. It will be interesting to observe whether the clever M. Clémenceau can avoid trouble in executing the remaining ten thousand inventories, a work to be accomplished, if possible, in the two months intervening before the national elections. M. Clémenceau's post is certainly more difficult than any other in the Cabinet, and will be doubly difficult if the reactionaries believe that the Pope tacitly approves violent resistance. It is as unfair, we believe, to ascribe this attitude to Pius X, as it would be to ascribe it to Cardinal Richard, the head of the Roman Catholic Church in France, who, though a reactionary in politics, has shown an entire and courteous submission to the new law, thus giving a fine example of citizenship which should have been followed throughout France.

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In 1801 Napoleon and Church and State Pius VII., it will be in France remembered, agreed that, in return for payment of salaries by the French Government, that Government should have the right to nominate to vacant episcopal sees. Under the new law, which went into effect last December, abrogating the historic Concordat, the Government will still pay their stipends to the existing priests and prelates, but not to their successors. Otherwise the Government entirely abjures responsibility for the support of the Roman Catholic, Protestant, or Jewish forms of religion—the three forms provided for hitherto by the annual budget of

public worship. The Church property which existed before the Concordat had been signed reverts to the State, but there is a provision that the Government may lease or sell such churches to "associations cultuelles," or local religious associations, which, like secular associations, must, under a recent law, be formed under Government regulations and remain under Government control. These units may be grouped to form larger associations, which, by lease from the Government, may acquire the right to occupy cathedrals and other diocesan edifices. In order to know what the terms of the leases shall be it is necessary to ascertain officially the nature and the amount affected by the law; hence, at the request of the Conservatives themselves, who wanted to protect Church property in every way, the law was framed so as to provide for an inventory.

The new Russian Parlia-The Wretched ment is to consist of two Muzhik Houses, the Upper, the Council of the Empire, and the Lower, the Duma. For the Council, half the members are to be nominated by the Emperor; the other half are to be elected by the provincial zemstvos, or councils, the Church, the universities, the Academy of Sciences, the Bourses of Commerce and Industry, and the nobility. Land legislation is reserved for the Coun-Such a body, so nominated, would presumably be conservative rather than radical. It will be interesting to see how it will deal with measures for the amelioration of peasant land tenure, since these measures must necessarily be rather radical. It is fortunate that it can deal with them at any time, since, even if Parliament be not in session, the Council may meet. Before the serfs were liberated the allotment of land was ten acres to a peasant; but after the liberation this fell to seven Since that time Russia's agrarian population has nearly doubled; there has not only been no increase in land allotments, but there has been an increase in taxation. The result is that the muzhiks or peasants are now in a state of practical bankruptcy, to which has recently been added the further burden of famine

and of the crippled soldiers from Manchuria. The oppressed muzhiks declare that in case this spring does not bring to them new allotments of land, they will plow over the public lands and part of the estates of the nobles, thus signifying that they take possession of these lands in their own right. Two prominent plans for relief are now before the public. The first is that of Count Witte, the Premier. He would purchase lands from the large proprietors through the peasants' bank, with fifteen-year credit bonds instead of cash, reselling to the muzhiks on longterm installment payments. The second and far more radical plan was proposed last week by ex-Minister of Agriculture Kutler, who advocated the expropriation of part of the land of the large proprietors for the benefit of the muzhiks, who, he contends, have a moral right to that portion of the land rented to them, not, of course, to that cultivated by the proprietors. Whatever the solution be, the issue is probably the most urgent of all those in Russia.

The present exhibition A Bit of History of the work of the Society of American Artists in New York City will be the last opened under the auspices of that Society as a separate organization; it will shortly be amalgamated with the National Academy of Design. Mr. John La Farge, in a recent interview in the New York "Sun," speaking as the President of the Society, expressed the opinion that in some respects the present exhibition is the best it has ever had in the width of its range and variety of methods. He commented especially on the influence of Italian masters on the youngest group of men who have been studying abroad. He recalled in a very interesting way the state of affairs at the birth of the Society. Like many other organizations, it represented a movement of protest against conservatism. The Academy, like all academies, had grown conservative. It would have none of Whistler, while the vounger men were enthusiastic in recognition of his remarkable qualities. The feeling culminated when the work of Mr. St. Gaudens and Mr. Chase was rejected and a canvas of Whistler's was

hung over a door and subsequently withdrawn in disgust. The first exhibition of the Society included the work of Whistler, Chase, Inness, La Farge, Homer D. Martin, Thomas Moran, and other artists since advanced into the front rank. This, however, is ancient history. The Society of American Artists has grown to maturity and the Academy of Design has broadened and become more catholic. The two societies have been moving together, and it is expected that their fusion will be commemorated by a great art building which will worthily house the combined societies and become a symbol in the metropolis of the dignity and importance of While the practical arguments for this union are unanswerable, nevertheless the picture-loving public will miss the two distinct annual exhibitions, for which one huge one will hardly be a satisfactory substitute. For, generally speaking, the bigger the collection of canvases the less real pleasure it gives.

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The Smith Professorship The Smith of the French and Spanish Professorship Languages and Literatures in Harvard University has been the most prominent chair of literature in any American college on account of the character of the men who have at various times occupied it. In the early days, when professorships were few and there was far less specialization, this professorship included the teaching of belles-lettres, and the early occupants of the chair were expected to teach literature as well as the French and Spanish languages. George Ticknor, the first professor, was one of the forerunners of the throng of American students who have since pursued graduate studies in the German universities. He was followed by Longfellow, who was a graduate of Bowdoin, had opportunities of foreign study which for that time were very unusual, and became one of the most accomplished teachers connected with any American university. In due time he was succeeded by Lowell, in whom the special equipment of the professorship—intimate knowledge of literature and feeling for it as distinguished from its philological aspects, knowledge of modern languages, all-around scholarship and teaching ability—may be said to have reached high-water mark. Since the retirement of Lowell in 1866 the chair has remained vacant. The restoration, so to speak, of a professorship which has such associations is a matter of interest to all lovers of literature in this country. A professorship of English Literature now replaces and is in addition to the professorship of Belles-Lettres, hitherto attached to the Smith Professor-To this chair has been appointed Mr. Bliss Perry, the editor of the "Atlantic Monthly." Mr. Perry is a scholar, a teacher, and a man of letters. A graduate of Williams College, attached for a time to its faculty, and later to the faculty of Princeton University, he has been an ardent student of literature, has had ample experience in teaching, and is a writer of growing charm and influence. He has written fiction of excellent quality, and of late years his essays, which have appeared in the "Atlantic" from time to time, have been pervaded not only by a distinct literary flavor which recalls the older days of that magazine, but by a charming humor which is his own. Every evidence of interest in the study of literature as literature in our universities is matter of congratulation; and the coincidence of the revival of a suspended professorship and the appointment of a man of letters to fill it is doubly gratifying.

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It is now over forty years Mrs. Whitney since two of the best stories for girls, stories that have ranked with Miss Alcott's in popularity and have maintained their freshness almost equally, were written by Adeline D. T. Whitney, who died last week in Boston. These two stories, whose titles are, at least with the older generation of living readers, like household words, were "Faith Gartney's Girlhood" and "A Summer in Leslie Goldthwaite's Life." These stories, with, in a less degree perhaps, two or three others of Mrs. Whitney's books, such as "Patience Strong's Outing," "We Girls," and "The Gayworthys," are read to this day, and have thus shown

a power of survival that has not been found in many hundreds of works of fiction which during this period have come to the front, been sold in vast numbers, and then disappeared utterly from view. The reason of this vitality in Mrs. Whitney's best books is that they are wholesome in character, gentle in humor, and friendly and cheerful in manner. they have a little didacticism is not to be denied, but they are far from being sermons in story form, and they appeal in a natural and simple way to girl readers because they represent girl life truly and intimately and are entertaining in a reasonable way.

The Philippine Crisis

In their attitude regarding the control of the Philippines and the Filipinos by the Government of the United States the American people may be divided into three groups.

One group consists of those who think that this control is totally despotic and unrighteous; that we have no moral right whatever to govern the Filipinos; that we gained our domination over them by force of arms, and that all our political acts since the fall of Manila have been tyrannical when not brutal. This group would have the United States withdraw from the Philippine Islands, and allow the Filipinos to take care of themselves.

The second group consists of those who are utterly indifferent to the welfare of the Filipinos. They recognize that the Philippine Islands possess certain material and physical advantages into the possession of which the United States has come by honorable warfare, and think these advantages should be made use of by the American people primarily for their own benefit, and only secondarily, if at all, for the benefit of the Filipinos.

The third group is composed of those who are convinced that the duty of governing the Philippine Islands and their inhabitants was thrust upon the American people by force of circumstances, and was not assumed on their part by any deliberate intention; and that this

duty springs from the evolutionary forces which are developing human civilization on earth. Logically, therefore, this group is unalterable in its conviction that the American people and the American Government are bound to regard the rights and welfare of the Filipinos with as jealous care as their own.

The first group consists of the small but devoted band of "anti-imperialists." Their particular political theories are not, however, involved in the present discussion. In the third group are to be found, we are glad to believe, the great mass of intelligent, fair-minded, and honorable Americans. In it are included, it is needless to say, the President, Secretary Taft, the Philippine Commission, some Senators and many Representatives in Congress. The Philippine crisis to which we allude in the title of this article is this: Shall the majority of the American people, by formal legislative vote, enroll themselves in the second group—that of the selfish exploiters of the Filipinos; or in the third—that of those who believe that the rights and welfare of the inhabitants of the Philippines should receive the same consideration from the Federal Government as is granted to the inhabitants of New York, or Connecticut, or Michigan, or Missouri, or California, or Louisiana, or Virginia?

The opportunity for this enrollment is presented in the Philippine Tariff Bill, now before Congress, which has already passed the House by an overwhelming majority. It is, however, unhappily, held up in the Senate by a few men of powerful political influence, but who, in our judgment, entirely fail to understand the temper of the country.

The Philippine Tariff Bill, admitting sugar and tobacco, the chief products of the Philippine Islands, into this country for three years at one-quarter of the present duty, and at the expiration of three years duty free, is not a piece of quixotic altruism, nor an attempt to make a generous gift to the Filipinos at the expense of our own Treasury. It is a simple act of justice. If, as Secretary Taft has said, we are going to apply the restrictions of the protection theory to the Filipinos, we are bound to give them

at least the benefits of that theory. Under a law already passed, to go into effect next July, we have applied the American coastwise navigation laws to the Philippine Islands; we have forbidden the Filipinos to transport their merchandise to and from their own ports and to and from American ports in any but American vessels. "To restrain Philippine trade," The Outlook said two years ago, "first by laying upon it the weight of a tariff-even if it is somewhat reduced-and then by limiting it to a monopoly of carriers, is to put a double burden upon the islands which we cannot lay on a foreign nation and would never be willing to lay on ourselves."

In this crisis we urge our readers to stand up and be counted. We urge them in every State in the Union to do what a very influential and able body of citizens of Connecticut have done in petitioning their representatives in the United States Senate to vote for the bill. The Connecticut petition is signed by some of the best-known and most consistent protectionists in the United States, and yet it urges "a policy of a square deal for the Filipinos, a policy which would receive an overwhelming majority of Republican votes of Connecticut if submitted to popular approval." The Outlook believes that the policy represented by the Philippine Tariff Bill is supported by an overwhelming majority of the citizens of the United States, but public agitation and the expression of public opinion in mass-meeting, by petition, and by personal letter and telegram, is necessary if certain Senators who appear to be ignorant of the real nature of public feeling on this question are to have their eyes opened.

There is still a word to be said to the protectionist who is sincerely afraid that a reduction of the duty on Philippine sugar and tobacco will open the way to a general destruction of the protective system. Some years ago a campaign advocate of tariff reform in California answered an objector who asserted that a reduction of the tariff was a dangerous tendency toward free trade by retorting: "You might as well say that a man who marries one wife is dangerously tending toward polygamy." If the so-called

great protective interests obstruct the passage of the Philippine Tariff Bill on the ground that it may start the people to demanding a general reduction of our present high tariff, let them remember the lesson which the railroads, the street traction interests, and the insurance financiers have so painfully learned during the last two or three years. corporate interests which by malign and underhand methods fight and temporarily defeat just reforms sooner or later have to endure the effects of drastic legislation the possibility of which they apparently have never dreamed of. Street railway capitalists who bitterly objected to a mild and reasonable payment for long-term and profitable street franchises have now to face municipal ownership as a penalty for their short-sighted selfishness. If the tobacco and sugar trusts defeat the Philippine Tariff Bill because of the fancied danger that it may slightly reduce their profits—although this danger is denied by some of the best protectionist experts of the country—their selfishness, we prophesy, will be punished in the near future by legislation more directly affecting their profits.

We urge, therefore, those who believe first of all in human rights to support the Philippine Tariff Bill on grounds of justice, and advise those who believe first of all in commercial profits to support it on grounds of expediency. To The Outlook it clearly appears that there is no ground upon which any citizen of the United States can justly or safely oppose it.

What Can Be Done

The Outlook commented last week on the present situation in China, with special reference to the feeling of antagonism against America caused by our short-sighted exclusion laws and their drastic application, reserving for later comment the broader aspects of this situation. The Outlook desires this week to indicate some of the measures which ought to be taken at once to foster friendly feeling in China towards the United States. Politically, the Chinese trust us, because we have treated

them fairly: commercially, they distrust us, and that distrust is growing, because we have treated them unfairly. are slow to learn, and nations still slower, that as they do to others so it is done unto them. Secretary Hay laid a broad and solid basis for the most fraternal relations between the Chinese and American peoples, and for a confidence in our disinterestedness which ought to have given us the greatest possible influence with the Chinese. We have again and again demonstrated not only our friendliness but our disinterestedness towards China. We have protested, in season and out of season, and successfully, against the partition of the Empire; we have insisted upon its political independence and its territorial integrity. When excessive claims for indemnity were proposed after the Boxer outrages. we used all our influence to secure a moderation of demands, and with success. In the darkest hour through which the present Chinese Government has passed, when all men doubted and most nations sneered, the United States insisted that there was still a Government of China, and our attitude toward China in those difficult days was determined by our fixed policy of treating the Chinese Government as if it existed, although at the moment it was inaccessible. litically, therefore, China has nothing to urge against us. On the contrary, she has learned to believe that among all the nations with which she has to deal, the United States alone has no ulterior designs upon her territory.

On the commercial side, on the other hand, our unfriendly anti-Chinese legislation and its unnecessarily offensive application in practice have bred a deep and growing feeling of resentment. The Chinese have a right to feel that they have been outraged. We have been in the wrong; and as the first duty of a strong man when he makes a mistake is to admit it and then make such reparation as he can, so pre-eminently is it the duty of a strong nation to reverse a wrong policy and to make confession where confession is necessary to heal the wounds of the spirit. Our first duty to China to-day coincides with policy. It is to remove the causes of irritation. We

must stop treating the Chinese as if they were an inferior people. That is a kind of treatment which we would not stand for a moment if it were offered us by the Chinese, and they ought not to stand it when it is offered them by us. The Chinese do not object to reasonable regulations in regard to the immigration of their own people into this country; they have never objected to the exclusion of Chinese laborers; but they have objected, and they have been right in objecting, to the uncertain phraseology of Congressional legislation and to the offensive manner in which this legislation has been applied to the humiliation of Chinese travelers, merchants, students, and even high officials. The President put the whole situation with characteristic frankness in a few words in his address to the representatives of the American Federation of Labor on Wednesday last when he said:

But I will do everything in my power to make it easy and desirable for the Chinese of the business and professional classes, the Chinese travelers and students, to come here, and I will do all I can to secure their good treatment when they come; and no laboring man has anything whatever to fear from that policy. I have a right to challenge you as good American citizens to support that policy, and in any event I shall stand unflinchingly for it; and no man can say with sincerity that on this, or indeed on any other point, he has any excuse for misunderstanding my policy.

In order to do justice to the Chinese and to change their feeling it is not necessary to repeal the exclusion laws, nor would it, in our judgment, be wise, so far as they are designed to keep out servile labor; but the Exclusion Act ought to be amended in order to make its application to classes more definite and to limit the discretion of the officials charged with its execution. Under the illiberal and strained construction of the act at the commands of our officials, a group of such men as Yung-Wing and as the one hundred and twenty students who came here thirty years ago and more would now be ruled out because they are not of sufficient age. We have excluded from this country the very class of men whose presence we ought to encourage by the most liberal laws and the most courteous treatment.

Years ago a Chinese diplomatist, dressed in the most delicate and beautiful Chinese costume, was crossing a muddy street in San Francisco on a temporary crossing of boards. Some hoodlums, to amuse themselves, reversed the boards and threw the Chinese gentleman into the mud. He scrambled out, made his way as best he could to the opposite sidewalk, turned to the rowdies on the opposite side of the street, and with courteous bow said, "Me heathen, you Christians; good-morning."

The Chinese demand, and we ought to meet the demand, that a certificate from our accredited agents abroad shall in all cases, unless fraud is suspected, constitute a sufficient passport into any American port; that reputation in China touching the character and ability and fitness of our representatives in that country, both diplomatic and consular, shall be very carefully considered by our Government; and that no political consideration shall be allowed to weigh a moment in the selection of our diplomatic and consular agents. They should be, in all cases, personæ gratæ; men, that is, who know the Oriental character, who do not go to the East as the representatives of a superior to an inferior race, but as the representatives of the best in American culture, character, and spirit; and every attempt should be made through official sources, both in Washington and in China, to confirm the Chinese in the opinion that our Government is the friend of the Empire, that we have no ulterior designs, and that our policy of upholding Chinese territorial integrity and independence is not a mask, but an expression of National conviction and purpose. Such instructions ought to be issued to all Government officials dealing with incoming Chinese as to make any repetition of former discourtesies impossible. The Chinese merchant, student, official, and traveler ought not to run the risk of being insulted when he arrives in America, and any blunder of this sort ought to be followed by prompt dismissal of the official who makes it. The necessity of courtesy, consideration, and dignified treatment must be enforced upon all our officials in their relation to incoming Chinese.

The establishment of twenty-five free scholarships for Chinese students in Harvard, Yale, and Wellesley points the way to a still greater and in the long run more influential method of influencing Chinese opinion. Americans must accustom themselves to think of China as she will be twenty five years hence, when the social and economic revolution now going on in that country is bearing its fruits in inaugurating one of the most impressive and probably one of the most significant changes in human history. A great and possibly a terrible force is coming into being. It is for us to decide whether that force shall be friendly or inimical. If we are to make it friendly, we must co-operate with it, and we must make it acquainted with us. A prime duty of the hour is to throw America open to all Chinese who wish seriously to study our institutions and methods of life. A generation ago the main current of Chinese students was flowing toward this country; our shortsighted policy has diverted that current. with the result that now there are said to be five thousand Chinese students studying in Japan and a very large contingent in Europe, and these students on their return, instead of disseminating American ideas and knitting the ties that bind the two countries together, are disseminating Japanese and European ideas. The twenty-five free scholarships in three leading institutions point the way to a broad and fruitful policy. ought to be five hundred or a thousand scholarships for Chinese in America. Every college ought to have its quota of Chinese students; and in the colleges of America the reformers of old China and the leaders of new China ought to be trained. Such a policy carried out for twenty-five years would bind the two countries together beyond all possibility of disruption. President James, of the University of Illinois, proposes that our Government shall send a special commissioner to China, who shall visit the Imperial and the provincial governments, carrying everywhere the most cordial invitations on behalf of American institutions to Chinese students to avail themselves of our educational facilities. would be fundamental statesmanship.

Our colleges can do much; our Government can do more; they ought to cooperate. An indemnity amounting to about twenty million dollars will presently come to this country from China for the Boxer outrages of six years ago. Could not some of it, by action of Congress, be administered by a mixed commission of Chinese and American educators for the purpose of setting the tide of Chinese students once more flowing towards America and of extending American influence in the Far East by bringing young Orientals within the atmosphere of American colleges? We have lost much by the short-sighted policy of the last few years; we can regain everything by a large-sighted policy which shall take into account the brotherly duties of nation to nation, and the fact that, while China is withdrawing itself more and more from foreign power, it was never before so accessible to the right kind of foreign influence.

A Sign of American Idealism

The commercial expansion of the past two generations has left its stamp upon the people of the present. The confidence which a man reposes in his fellows is valued not so much in the abstract as it is as a requisite to business success; ambition is expressed not so much in military exploits as in business enterprise; and devotion to a purpose is most characteristically exemplified by business "hustle" and "stick-to-it-iveness." Particularly in this country are the standards of life expressed in business terms. This was the conclusion which Mr. James Bryce reached after his recent visit to America.

To call this a commercial nation has usually been regarded as equivalent to a severe judgment upon it. This has been to ignore the difference between the outward manifestations of a spirit and the spirit itself. Commercial activity has been confused with materialism. As a matter of fact, there are many signs which indicate that behind this immense development of industry, commerce, and

finance there is a genuine idealism. In particular, religious idealism is evident. This commercial period has compassed the establishment and growth of three of the most remarkable religious orders of all time—the Salvation Army, the Young Men's Christian Association, and the Young People's Society of Christian Endeavor. Of these three one was planted and two have found most fertile soil in this commercial nation: period and country have shown their character, moreover, by responding to that severest of all tests of religious idealism—the summons to engage in foreign missions. Never was the response to this summons more emphatic than at present. In witness to the truth of that statement is the Student Volunteer Movement.

Twenty years ago Mr. Dwight L. Moody invited some college students to Northfield to spend a few weeks in the study of the Bible. Out of the gathering of two hundred and fifty students there has come this movement. Originally simply an unorganized body of men with a common purpose, it is now an incorporated body. Those who make this declaration, "It is my purpose, if God permit, to become a foreign missionary," are known as Student Volun-The organization does not send out missionaries; the Volunteers all go out under their own denominational boards. Allied with this purpose of enlisting recruits for the service is that of promoting in the home land an intelligent knowledge and interest concerning the subject of foreign missions.

Some conception of the extent of this movement may be gathered from the following facts: Up to the beginning of this year almost three thousand volunteers had sailed for the foreign field; one thousand of these have gone in the last four years. Text-books on missions have been prepared, and twelve thousand students in our colleges in over one thousand groups are studying the subject under highly qualified men. It is safe to say that never before have so many men gone forth from our colleges with so broad a view of the forces working for and against the regeneration of the world.

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Once in a "student generation," that is, four years, the Student Volunteers hold a convention. The latest, held at Nashville (to which The Outlook inadvertently referred at the time under a wrong title), was marked by a characteristic spirit of religious earnestness and idealism. There is something convincingly genuine about the words uttered in a convention whose members are ready to back up their faith by voluntary The confidence which, directed to one end, gives security to commerce was at Nashville a faith in the ultimate world-wide prevalence of the influence and principles of Christ; ambition, which drives some men into constructing great industries, was there the impulse to have a part in bringing that dominion to pass; and devotion to a purpose, which is the secret of success in commercial enterprise, was there manifest in the determination of those four thousand delegates thus expressed to make known to all the world "in this generation" the Good News.

The Good News is something more than the propaganda of a doctrine; it is a message that is told in lives of service to men. That message is conveyed in curing the sick by medical missions, in making the inefficient efficient by industrial missions, and in spreading good will among peoples by missionaries of statesmanlike stature, such as Dr. Arthur H. Smith, of China, Bishop Brent, of the Philippines, and the Rev. Robert Hume, The testimony of Sir Morof India. timer Durand, the British Ambassador, to the high service of missionaries in the East as he knew it at first hand, as well as his estimate of the delicacy and importance of their task, did not too greatly emphasize the variety of gifts which can and ought to be employed in foreign missions. The Student Volunteer Movement is an undertaking to bring into the service of foreign missions men of the highest training as well as religious earnestness. Its success is not only a promise that foreign missions are to have a larger and more beneficent effect upon the world than ever, but also a revelation of the latent spiritual power and religious idealism of this commercial but not materialistic people.

For Public Safety

How many lives were lost in the railroad wreck in Colorado on March 16 may never be known. The officials of the Denver and Rio Grande Railroad, on which the head-on collision occurred, were reported to have issued an estimate of the number; but within a few hours the number of bodies recovered actually exceeded that estimate. The press despatches state the number of lives lost as between thirty and forty.

The accident is said to have been caused by the fact that an operator fell asleep at his post and allowed one of the trains to pass his station without his knowledge. It is said, moreover, that this operator had been on duty for an unusually long period of time. Whether this be true may never be unquestionably ascertained.

The cause and consequences of such a disaster are matters of vital importance to the people not merely of the State of Colorado, but of the whole coun-Safety in travel is not of mere local When a citizen of a Southern concern. State starts from the South to the Northwest, the fact that he passes through Colorado in the course of his journey makes it quite as important to him as to the citizens of Colorado that railway travel in that State should be safe. The inter-State transportation of people is as much a matter of National interest as the inter-State traffic in things. tically all the information that will ever come to the relatives and friends of those who were killed in that Colorado accident will come either from the railway officials (in which case it will be scanty), or from the newspapers (in which case it will be inaccurate), or from the State (in which case its value to a citizen of another State may be negligible). Public knowledge of the causes and consequences of railroad accidents is the first step towards decreasing their number; yet in this country there is no sure and uniform method by which such public knowledge may be obtained.

In dealing with a similar problem England has set an example that we should do well to follow. Under the Regulation of Railways Act, the Board of Trade makes

a report to Parliament on the accidents that occur each year on the railways of the United Kingdom. This report corresponds very generally to the report of the Inter-State Commerce Commission of this country on the accidents that have occurred on American railways. The two reports differ, however, in one respect. That made by the American Commission is based upon information largely derived from the railways. That made by the British Board of Trade, on the other hand, is based upon the results of governmental investigation. Whenever any serious accident occurs on a railway in the United Kingdom, an order is issued for an immediate inquiry as to the facts. We have before us the report of such an inquiry. It pertains to an accident that occurred on the Metropolitan and Great Western Railway in December, 1904. A detailed statement is given of the composition of the trains which collided, of the condition of the engine and the cars after the accident, of the piece of trackage upon which the accident occurred, and of the casualties which resulted. From the facts thus collected by a representative of the nation conclusions are drawn, as from evidence presented in a court of law, as to the cause of the accident and the responsibility for it. The accident was a derailment which occurred on a curve at a place where the tracks of another railway crossed. The engineer of the train most seriously wrecked was shown to be not very familiar with the route. By the testimony of witnesses it was proved that the engineer, or driver as he is called, had asked for an experienced assistant for his run. The inquiry went into such detail as to whether he had requested a "pilot-guard" or a "pilotdriver." It was shown, moreover, that the train at the time of the accident was going at high speed through a fog on a place on the road where the rules required a low rate of speed. An examination of the track showed that the proper elevation of the outer rail on the curve was impossible because of the crossing; and that as a makeshift the rail was improperly elevated so as to be a grave cause The official, Lieutenantof danger. Colonel H. A. Yorke, makes certain

recommendations and points out the desirability of certain specific action on the part of the companies whose tracks join at this point. Out of this single accident there have thus arisen a number of important recommendations: as to the proper form of junction; as to the suitable position for warning signs, or "speed-boards" as they are called; as to special signals for slacking speed; as to stringent supervision over the signing of "road papers" by engineers. consequence of this report the British public is not merely enabled to form a just conclusion as to the responsibility for this particular accident, but is also furnished with a sound basis on which to form a demand for remedial measures to insure protection against similar accidents in the future.

The American public, on the other hand, must at present remain unenlightened as to the cause of specific accidents. and improperly equipped with knowledge that will enable it to demand protection for itself. The sickening accident in Colorado, which cost the lives of six times as many passengers as all the accidents put together which occurred in the United Kingdom in 1904, is consigned to practical oblivion. The record of it will remain in newspaper files, some figures pertaining to it will appear in the general statistics of railway accidents for the present year, the memory of it will occupy a dark corner of the minds of those who survived it and who had friends and relatives who were crushed or burned to death; but, except as certain significant or insignificant details are brought out in lawsuits which may conceivably follow it (and lawsuits are avoided by railway companies whenever possible), this accident will be forgotten; and it is not likely that it will ever be determined how far the railway company, for the sake of increase in dividends, was responsible for keeping the negligent operator too long at his task, for neglecting to equip the road with signals suitable for a singletrack line, and for other causes which contributed to the accident.

Unless we Americans willfully hold life cheap, we ought to be restless and importunate until Congress supplies us with some adequate means for ascertaining the cause and consequences of every railway accident, the responsibility for it, and the practical safeguards which may be adopted against its repetition.

The practical means to this end is the establishment of a Government board which should have immediate charge of investigation and procedure concerning all accidents in travel by land or water.

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A Lenten Meditation

And then, in his loneliness, all the kingdoms of the world and the glory of them were spread out before the Christ and put into his hand if he would but give himself to the evil spirit. There is less mystery about this temptation than about those which preceded it; it has come more directly within human experience and can be translated in terms of human history. Again and again men have been taken up into the mountain of vision and the vast panorama of empire has unrolled before them, and they have fallen down and worshiped, and lost themselves in gaining a world. To a few noble spirits in such moments there has come a deep and awful sense of responsibility; to more, a giddiness in which they have cast themselves down into every kind of moral lawlessness; to not a few, in that place of awful isolation, there has come madness. So Nero cries in the first hour of his world-wide authority:

"O all the earth to-night into these hands Committed! I bow down beneath the load, Empurpled in a lone omnipotence. My softest whisper thunders in the sky, And in my frown the temples sway and reel, And the utmost isles are anguished. I but raise

An eyelid, and a continent shall cower; My finger makes the city a solitude, The murmuring metropolis a silence, And kingdoms pine in my dispeopling nod.

O wine of the world, the odor and gold of it! There is no thirst which I may not assuage; There is no hunger which I may not sate; Naught is forbidden me under heaven! With a cry.] I shall go mad! I shall go mad!"

Of all the tragedies of life none is nore pathetic than the futile passion of the human creature to grasp and bear

in fragile hands the weight of the world and to drink, through senses filled by shallow draught and worn to exhaustion by excess, the illimitable pleasures of the sensuous life. Under all the trappings of royalty how frail the body of the king, and in the heart of all magnificence how sensitive to any touch of mortality the man whom disease and death can summon with a rude insistence that scorns the courtesies of courts and laughs at the forms of sovereignty!

But the temptation which assailed the Christ was no crude appeal to that love of power which is one of the lower and grosser passions of men. The invitation to fall down before the evil spirit was not a solicitation to lower his aim; it was rather a suggestion to press forward to that aim by a road that would have carried him, as it has carried many a man, to the opposite pole. On the face of it there was no hint of disloyalty to that divine mission already clear in the n.ind of the Christ; in the heart of it there was black treason to the divine will and defeat and overthrow for the divine pur-A thousand legions might have seated the Christ secure on the throne of the world, and every knee might have bowed and every voice cried, "Long live the King;" and the character of the race might have remained unchanged by any moral growth, the redemption of the race unaccomplished, the kingdom of God a mere outward acceptance of authority and not an inward conformity to the will of the Infinite. The Christ saw in the same vision which spread the world before him the two ways that might be trodden. the solid highway through the very center of the world, throngs of men crowding about him, shouts of welcome, flowers all the way, banners waving, ease, acceptance, a crown and a throne; and he saw also the lonely path never far from the places where lights were set in the windows of homes but yet apart from them, crowds beseeching help and then hoarse with imprecations, shouts of derision, palms once but stones many times, desertion, denial, the road to Calvary, the tragedy of the cross!

The temptation that came to the Christ was to take the lower for the higher good, the immediate for the final victory,

the material for the spiritual conquest. In that temptation all men share. spirit of evil has no lure more tempting because none more blinding than this. Among the charms and potencies of evil there is none more deadly than that which was offered to the Christ. The chasm that lies between the lower and the higher kinds of power is so deep that in the ultimate moral vision they stand for principles in deadly conflict. To crave the higher and accept the lower is not only to take evil for good, but to awaken at the end in the bitter humiliation which not only acknowledges defeat but knows that it has been duped, blinded, and cheated, and that the gold which shone afar is but a dust-heap when the end is reached. To follow money, or the authority which rests on force and position rather than moral energy and strength, is to come at last into the court of conscience with empty and often with blackened hands. Among the multitudes who have lost their way in the world none are further from the path of honor, peace, and victory than they who have mistaken the kingdoms of the world for the kingdoms of holiness and have fallen down before the evil spirit instead of worshiping the most high God.

The Spectator

The Spectator is not one of those who spends his substance in riotous theatergoing, and, indeed, the rarity of his visits to the playhouse is such that there is a pleasing hue of expectation shed over all the day preceding one of these unusual dramatic vacations. Consequently he has not learned to put up with the minor inconveniences that to the regular theatergoer have come to be expected and so have lost the power to impress. ably by a dramatic critic, provided he be one who is admitted to theaters, there is little or no thought devoted to how he shall be seated, nor how furnished with a programme and other needed concomitants to play-seeing. He simply goes through an evening at the show as a hardened veteran through a campaign, looking upon the minor inconveniences as merely necessary to distinguish one

campaign from another, remembering, for instance, how during one season he starved for three days and at another was nearly famished for lack of drinkingwater.



The Spectator, having dreamed of a comfortable evening where the intellectual delights of the stage are assisted by the creature comforts of the stalls, is subject to a rude awakening when he substitutes for his roseate fancies the duller hues of reality, and instead of the coziness of imagination finds the hard corners of fact. He is sometimes tempted to wonder whether our theatrical managers and builders of playhouses have not visited the museums, and, after long contemplation of the dismantled ruins of a seat from an ancient amphitheater, reached the conclusion that Greeks and Romans witnessed the triumphs of Euripides and Terence while stretched upon the rack of marble seats. sharp in angles and hopelessly cold and uncomfortable in substance and design. There be prosaic souls who know a spade by its simpler name, and for such the Spectator would inquire by what right theater patrons are made so painfully uncomfortable, although they are expected to pay what (Mr. Howells says) is far too much for their entertainment. The learned critic just quoted took advantage of his oracular position on "Harper's Magazine" to hold a true balance between the cost of a good book that would be a pleasure to a reader during his whole life, and the cost of an evening at a play, which, too often a disappointment, can at best be but a constantly fading memory.



But, without weighing the two forms of pleasure, and admitting that each has its place, the Spectator, while jammed uncomfortably into that marvelously uncomfortable structure known as a theater seat, could not help wondering whether, under Magna Charta, the Bill of Rights, or the Declaration of Independence, he was not entitled to something better than a sort of flapping, trick contrivance that would barely admit his inconvenienced form. Although the

Spectator is of a not unwieldy mold, it is hardly possible for him to remain bolt upright for three hours or more on end, and he occasionally permits himself that swaying which relieves the strain. At such moments a rest for his arm should be ready without the need of expelling from that coign of vantage either his left-hand or right-hand neighbor.

Then, too, the Spectator, in the winter season at least, finds it convenient to assume an outer garment against the inclement weather, and for this there is either no provision or a most inadequate one. It must either be rolled up into an unwieldy bundle and left to rest uneasily against the knees, or else be spread from north to south across the theater seat, to the inconvenience, not only of the occupant, but of the friendly nation abutting on the back.

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The Spectator must admit, however, that "the sun do move," for he is, though not aged, old enough to remember when the theater-goer, to be thoroughly comfortable, needed a hat that was a combination of head-covering and foot-muff. There was no place like a hat-rack as a home for the hat. genius, along in the '70s or thereabouts, brought his gigantic intellect to the relief of suffering humanity, and provided a bent wire as an asylum for homeless By some miracle of enterprise this device was adopted, probably because it was cheap. The Spectator regrets the (assumed) early death of this inventor and the absence of any successor in his benevolent work.

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So much for the creature comforts. *Per contra*, the Spectator must admit that many theaters to-day are well ventilated and well lighted, easy of their exits and their entrances; and this admission is made as a preamble to another bit of pleasant fault-finding. The Spectator, as a lover of literature, protests in behalf of himself and all his kind against the theater programme. He sees no reason why it should be printed upon dingy paper, or any paper that is not

clear and white. It is meant to be read in varying lights. He sees no reason why the claims of advertising should cause the text of the programme to be ground up into minute portions of disjecta membra and distributed over an uncharted sea of type. He is not one to decry the value, nay, even the interest, of modern advertising in its proper place. He believes that much of it is good enough to be attractive reading, and he therefore objects to its introduction as a mere hanger-on to every form of pure reading matter. Spectator admits that as at present issued there may be good business reasons for the hotchpotch programme, but, even without any selfish commercial Interest in the improvement, he would welcome the Napoleon of programme-makers who should cast aside all old traditions and take advantage of the opportunity the need for a bill-of-the-play affords. his mind's eye the Spectator can see an ideal programme, but he is not certain that his readers are yet psychologically ready for the revealment of his vision. It will be enough if by these few briefwords he can succeed in cultivating what Sir Walter Besant called a "healthy discontent" with present conditions.

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The Spectator regretfully confesses that this is no more than a beginning of the many suggestions he would be glad to make to a really enterprising, thoroughpaced, optimistic theatrical manager, and he believes that fame and fortune beyond the dreams of avarice would await the manager who could put the theater-goer into a delighted frame of mind by a careful attention to all those mere exterior comforts that must precede the proper attitude for the appreciation of dramatic triumphs. The Spectator, if he were to conduct a theater, would even dare omit some brilliancies of the costumer's art, and as much as one novel effect of electric lighting, for the sake of making sure that within his theater his fellowspectators were seated comfortably, with ample room for elbows and feet, and proper places for the stowage of the impedimenta that are the natural adde a of the civilized man.

CHINA IN TRANSITION

SOOCHOW, HANGCHOW, AND THE GRAND CANAL

BY GEORGE KENNAN

Special Correspondent of The Outlook in the Far East

This is the second of two articles in which are described Mr. Kennan's experiences in a house-boat trip through Chinese canals. The first article appeared in The Outlook for March 17—THE EDITORS.

THE things that strike one first and surprise one most in such Chinese cities as Canton, Soochow, and Hangchow, are the narrowness of the business streets and the width of the shop doors. In our cities the streets are always four or five times as wide as the entrances to the buildings, but in China the reverse is the case. The front of a Chinese shop is all door, and its width, as a rule, is two or three times that of the thoroughfare upon which it opens, so that it is really easier to hand a package to a customer on the other side of the street than to pass it to him across the width of the door. Great Dragon Street-the Broadway of Soochow-is only six or seven feet in width, while the doors of the business houses that stand along it would permit the entrance of two carriages abreast. In such streets wheeled vehicles, of course, cannot be employed, and goods of all kinds, from garden vegetables and dressed hogs to furniture, building materials, and bales of silk, are suspended from shoulder-poles and carried by coolie porters. Animals are not much used for the transportation of merchandise. on account of the lateral space necessarily occupied by pack-saddles and packs. Two laden pack-horses could hardly squeeze past each other in the street of the Great Dragon, and pedestrians are often compelled to step into the shops in order to get out of the way of passing files of coolies carrying bulky goods. Although a large part of the heavy merchandise of Soochow is distributed by means of the canals, enough goes through the streets to make walking

along them in a straight line absolutely impossible. Progress from one point to another is made by a series of dodges, with an occasional jump into the open front of a shop or a plunge into a side alley, in order to avoid a donkey train, a funeral procession, or the palanquin of a mandarin.

The business thoroughfares of a Chinese city are less noisy than ours, because there is no rumble of wheels over the pavements; but the air is filled from morning to night with cries of warning from the hundreds of coolies who are constantly passing to and fro with boxlike palanquins slung on long poles, or with heavy loads of rice, silk, tea, roofingtiles, firewood, timber, machinery, books, crates of fowls, immense white radishes, bales of straw, or five-gallon tins of American kerosene. Nobody gets run over, because there are no wheels; but everybody who cannot dodge with agility gets squeezed, hustled, or bumped. For this reason an inexperienced foreigner who wishes to explore the streets of a Chinese city will do well to mount a donkey, or hire coolies to carry him in a sedan chair. As Soochow donkeys are not equipped with side-saddles for ladies. and as, moreover, they are generally so small that a long-legged man can stand astride of one without touching the saddle, we decided to take chairs; and at three o'clock, when we came out from lunch at the Soochow Episcopal Mission, four chairs and twelve coolie bearers were waiting for us in the compound.

A Chinese sedan chair is a roofed and curtained box three feet and a half high and two feet square, hung between two

long and springy shoulder-poles. As a vehicle—if vehicle it may be called—it is not altogether uncomfortable; but when, after you have entered it and taken your seat on a small cushioned shelf, your bearers lift you from the ground and trot away with you, you feel like a Brobdingnagian Punch being carried in a Lilliputian Punch and Judy box to a country fair where you are to be exhibited for the entertainment of the populace. Every chair has two bearers, and a third coolie walks alongside to relieve or "spell" his comrades by turns as they get tired. The men all groan or cry out at short intervals as they march, in order to warn the public that a palanguin is coming; and when a procession of chairs happens to meet a train of donkeys in a congested street, the air is filled with the yelling of the bearers and the jingling of strings of sleigh-bells hung around the donkeys' necks. all pedestrians seek temporary refuge in the shops, leaving the street to the donkey-riders and palanquins. These may be able to pass one another without coming into collision; but while they are doing so foot-passengers must content themselves with "standing room only" in some out-of-the-way place.

Three-quarters of a mile from the Episcopal mission we stopped for half an hour to examine the great Soochow pagoda—one of the most noteworthy monuments of antiquity in all the Chinese Empire. It is a massive octagonal tower of masonry, three hundred feet in circumference at the base and two hundred and fifty feet in height, with nine stories, an equal number of spiral stairways, and more than sixty doors opening upon the nine outside galleries or verandas. It contains two hundred altars or shrines, behind which sit two hundred stone idols of various ethnological types, all of them ugly, and many of them combining a gilded body with a smirking East Indian face and kinky African hair painted sky-blue. The dusty and neglected condition of the shrines when we saw them seemed to indicate that the Soochow people had little respect for their gods; but that fact, perhaps, should not excite surprise. If I had inherited from my ancestors a lot of deities whose kinky hair was sky-blue, and whose faces had the expression that a cat's countenance assumes when it has finished a bowlful of cream in the pantry, I'm sure I shouldn't dust their shrines every morning, nor try to propitiate them with offerings of candles and rice. A smirking, yellow-bodied, blue-headed negro may excite curious interest as a lusus natura—a sort of ethnological freak—but he cannot be an attractive or aweinspiring object of worship even to a Chinaman.

The view from the highest story of the Soochow pagoda over the extensive city with its network of canals, and the great environing plain dotted with villages, crisscrossed with intersecting waterways, and thickly set with small shining lakes and clumps of leafy trees, is extremely beautiful and attractive. Within the limits of vision there are thirty or forty market towns, and perhaps fifty thousand villages and hamlets, containing a population of two or three million souls. Through this fertile and populous country runs the Grand Canal, which, with its scores of lateral branches, links together thousands of villages and towns and connects them all with the Yangtse River and Shanghai.

Descending from the pagoda, we took seats again in our chairs, and were carried through a labyrinth of narrow, dirty streets to the Wan-Miao-Kwan, or City Temple—an extensive group of buildings filled with gilded and blue-haired idols of all sorts, sizes, and degrees of ugliness. The rather spacious courtyard in front of this Taoist place of worship had been turned into a great market, or fair, where half-naked jugglers twirled dishes on sticks, or pulled hanks of burning tow out of their mouths, for the entertainment of the multitude, and where petty traders, standing in flimsy booths or squatting on the ground, sold toys, confectionery, curios, Oriental trinkets of trifling value, candles to be lighted in front of shrines, and paper imitations of gold and silver coins, which, when burned in big iron braziers, are supposed to enrich the ancestral dead by going to their credit in some celestial bank. Several thousand taels were thus transferred from one world to the other while we watched. and the total expense to the remitters did not exceed fifteen cents Mex. China could only pay her priests in the same currency, she would save, in a year or two, money enough to liquidate the Boxer indemnity. Unfortunately, however, paper-gilt coins that are good enough for the spirits of the dead in the Chinese heaven are not good enough for the spiritual directors of the living on earth. The latter may encourage their parishioners to put off paper money on ancestral ghosts who can't refuse to take it, but they insist on having their own salaries paid in the round brass baggage-checks known to the Orient as "cash.'

Leaving the Wan-Miao-Kwan Temple. we went through some of the busiest streets of the city, where streams of pedestrians were so intermingled with palanquins, donkeys, and freight-bearing coolies that it seemed almost impossible for anybody to make progress in any The inhabitants of Soochow, direction. however, are used to six-foot streets. and, with oft-repeated shouts, cries, and groans, they dodge one another, evade one another, and get around one another's chairs, animals, and burdens, with perfect good temper and with a surprisingly small amount of friction. Such a jam of people, beasts, and merchandise in a street of New York or London would require police intervention and direction, but in China—outside of Peking—I have never seen a policeman attempt to control a municipal crowd or regulate street traffic. The people manage, in some way, to keep in motion and take care of themselves.

In a particularly congested part of Great Dragon Street we happened to encounter a long funeral procession, and in order to get past it at all we had to crowd the mourners, hustle the priests. and force the pall-bearers and coffin into a side alley; but nobody seemed to take exception or feel aggrieved. When a train of palanquins meets a funeral procession, there must necessarily be some confusion and disorder; but as the jam is due to the way in which the city has been laid out, and not to personal carelessness or aggression, it is regarded with tolerance and good temper as an inevitable accident.

Although I had seen Chinese funerals before, this one presented some features that were new to me and that struck me as curious and interesting. At its head marched three or four musicians—or, to speak more accurately, charivari performers—pounding on gongs and making a strange, deep-bass hooting by blowing into short, bell-mouthed funeral trumpets. The priests, who followed, were dressed in white, as were also the mourners, the musicians, the bearers of white-frosted funeral cakes, and the acolytes, who carried artificial stems and blossoms of white The coffin was covered with a white pall, and the members of the bereaved family not only were clothed in white, but were inclosed in a rectangular screen of white cotton sheeting stretched around four supporting corner poles. This screen, which was carried by four white-robed boys, made a sort of quadrilateral pen inside of which the chief mourners walked. There were none of the white, inscribed, table-knife-shaped flags which are so noticeable in Japanese funeral processions; but my memory retains a vague impression of men carrying white umbrellas, inscribed wooden tablets, and slender rods wound spirally with strips of white cotton cloth. confusion and disorder were so great as we passed the procession that many details doubtless escaped my notice.

When we got into a less crowded quarter, we alighted from our chairs and walked half a mile or more through narrow streets lined with open-front retail shops for the sale of jade, furs, silver ornaments, elaborately carved furniture, bronzes, curios, metal water-pipes, opiumsmoking apparatus, brass implements and utensils of various kinds, books, drugs, coffins, porcelains, embroideries, and silks. Most of these things are manufactured in Soochow, without power machinery, in small individual workshops, and by artisans whose wages range from ten to twenty-five cents per day. larger silk stores are said to carry in stock nearly a hundred varieties of satin and satin brocades and two hundred different kinds of silk and gauze, all woven on foot-power looms, and nearly all in the homes of the weavers. embroidery is another great industry of

Soochow, and gives employment, in and about the city, to more than one hundred thousand women and girls, who are paid for their work at the rate of from three to eight cents per day. When one takes these wages into consideration, one no longer wonders at the cheapness of the beautifully embroidered Manchu and mandarin coats and robes which are offered for sale by merchants and hotel peddlers in Shanghai, Tientsin, and On a piece of embroidery that Peking. sells in Shanghai for twenty dollars, gold, a woman may have worked for three months; but five dollars would probably represent the labor element of cost, leaving fifteen dollars for cloth, silk thread, and dealer's profit.

Late in the afternoon we bade Mr. Ancell good-by and returned to our house-boat, just in time to see a wedding junk, with bonfires at the bow and red banners overhead, carrying a bride to the house of the groom, amid the popping of firecrackers and general excite-All the great ceremonies and sacraments of life in China are made noisy with firecrackers or gongs. man cannot even pray without blowing, beating, or exploding something, to call his god's attention to the urgency of his supplication; and the more noisy a wedding or a funeral can be made, the more profound seems to become the Chinaman's consciousness of its importance or solemnity. If, on his death-bed, he could be assured that his body would be accompanied to the grave by a bassdrum corps, a steam calliope, and a battery of machine guns in action, he would undoubtedly close his eyes peacefully and die happy. An improved and enlarged phonograph, which would reproduce faithfully and with adequate volume a general bombardment of Port Arthur, might be sold by the ten thousand in China for use at weddings and funerals and as an accompaniment to prayer.

In order to escape the incessant chatter of voices from the scores of house-keeping boats in the basin where we were moored, we moved out, just before dark, and, poling southward through the moat to the Grand Canal, we tied up to the bank in a quiet place near the Pan-

Men Gate, where there was a rakish, highly varnished police boat to protect us from river pirates, and where we were not likely to be disturbed by noise. There we spent a peaceful night, and on the following afternoon we took a tow for Hangchow by the famous Grand Canal.

The Grand Canal of China is one of the oldest artificial waterways in the world. The part of it which connects the Yellow River with the Yangtse was dug in the era of the Han Dynasty, 1700 years ago; the section from the Yangtse to Hangchow was completed by the monarchs of the Sung Dynasty a few centuries later; and the whole canal, as it now stands, was in existence more than a hundred years before the discovery of America. As an engineering work it is among the greatest achievements of man, inasmuch as it has a length of 650 miles—a distance almost equal to that in an air line between Washington and Chicago—while for scores of miles at a stretch it has a width of from one hundred to three hundred Beginning at Hangchow, it runs northward, nearly parallel with the coast, to the Yangtse; crosses that river and the Hoangho; traverses the wide, fertile plains of Shantung and Pechili; and finally opens into the Peiho near the great commercial port of Tientsin. With its hundreds of lateral branches and feeders, it probably links together two or three hundred thousand cities, villages, hamlets, and towns, and covers with a watery network all the eastern part of the Empire. I suppose I had read descriptions of this canal before I came to the East; but when we left Soochow and found ourselves in a deep, bluish waterway hundreds of miles in length, and twice as wide as Pennsylvania Avenue in Washington, I realized that my reading had been of little use to me, because it had given me no adequate idea of the stupendous magnitude of the work.

Although the Grand Canal, in the vicinity of Soochow, runs through a flat alluvial plain, the scenery along it is never monotonous or uninteresting. There are always leafy trees enough to give softness and variety of form to the shifting landscapes; large, golden-yellow flowers,

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which look like marsh marigolds, fringe the shore at the water's edge; bean vines climb over the shrubs on the banks and cover the dark-green foliage with a lighter embroidery of delicate sprays and snow-white blossoms; quaint villages, with a slender pagoda in the background, appear here and there at the mouths of narrow, tree-embowered lateral canals; and near at hand or far away there is always a high, curving stone bridge, whose proportions and outlines are a delight to the eye. But the canal itself is even more interesting than its banks. It is never yellow or muddy, as canals almost always are with us, but presents, under a clear sky, the bluishgray color of a deep, uncontaminated river; while the boats that it carries are a never-failing source of entertainment and interest. There may be, somewhere, a greater variety of water craft than one can see on the Grand Canal, but I should not know in what part of the world to look for it. Immense junks of highly varnished natural wood, with low bows and preposterously high sterns, come plowing along before the wind under towering, russet-brown lugsails seventy feet in height, crossed by twenty-five or thirty bamboo battens; while directly behind them you may see, perhaps, a small, "north-of-the-Yangtse" sailingsampan, in which a solitary man works a broad-bladed paddle with his feet, steers with one hand and manages half a dozen sheets with the other. vou have finished looking at a mandarin's house-boat, with its ornamental carving, its cabin windows of translucent shell set in little wooden squares, and its long, crooked sculling-oar swaying back and forth in the grasp of four powerful rowers, your attention is suddenly distracted by the open skiffs of three or four cormorant fishermen, whose birds, to the number of thirty or forty, sit perched on the gunwales, waiting for the rings which are put around their necks to prevent them from swallowing when they are sent to catch fish.

After you have seen sailing-sampans, foot-power sampans, cormorant fishermen's skiffs, mandarins' house-boats, long trains of crowded passenger-boats towed by steam tugs, huge wall-sided

grain-boats with wide-open painted eyes glaring at the water from the bows, and innumerable junks of all sizes, shapes, and descriptions, you think, perhaps, that the possibilities are exhausted—that you are familiar with every type of boat used on the inland waters of the Orientbut you are almost sure to be mistaken. I came to that conclusion at the end of my first day's experience; but early Thursday morning, before it was fairly light, I was awakened by a curious rapping and scraping along the sides of the boat, and upon going out on deck I found that we were running between two parallel fences of stakes and ropes, set up in the water so as to inclose and protect what looked like areas of pond-lily leaves, extending for half a mile or more along the sides of the navigable channel. In these lily plantations forty or fifty men, women, and girls were paddling about in big round wooden tubs, some of which contained small charcoal fires. What these people were doing with fires in floating wash-tubs, at that unearthly hour in the morning, I could not possibly imagine, and as it was not yet light enough to see anything distinctly, I was unable to satisfy my curiosity. Before sunrise, however, I had discovered that they were picking from under the big peltate leaves small green pods, which, when I had an opportunity to examine them, proved to be the fruit of the aquatic plant known to botanists as Trapa bicornis. The kernels or seeds in these pods are good to eat, and thousands of acres of water along the sides of the Grand Canal, and in the shallow lakes communicating with it, are devoted to the culture of the plant that produces them. The charcoal fires, which, in the dim gray light of early morning, added another element of mystery to the doings of the ghostly figures in the floating tubs, were used, doubtless, as a means of warming hands that had become chilled and benumbed from long groping The fact and dabbling in cold water. that these pod-pickers were in their tubs at the first gleam of dawn shows conclusively that getting a livelihood in China is, for the farmer, a strenuous business.

As we approached Hangchow, Thursday afternoon, the scenery became more

rugged and picturesque, and the broad canal, winding around high, bush-covered hills, carried an ever-increasing number of cargo-boats, fishing-boats, sampans, and junks. At the Imperial custom-house, on the outskirts of the city, we cast off our tow-line, and sculled slowly, for a mile and a half, through a great extramural suburb, past floating boat dwellings, where canary-birds were singing over wooden tubs of blossoming plants; past household junks in which women were cooking, spinning, or reeling thread while their husbands rowed; past open tank-boats filled with masses of semi-liquid fertilizer which poisoned and polluted the air; past temples with turned-up corners, where worshipers were buying candles and burning strings of paper money; past markets filled with dealers in pork, vegetables, Trapa bicornis pods, apples, oranges, and grapes; and at last into a stretch of open water between a temple and a camel's-back bridge, where we finally tied up to a grassy bank strewn with corpse-filled coffins which, apparently, had been lying there awaiting burial for many months.

I have never been able to ascertain with certainty why the Chinese, in this part of the Empire, leave the bodies of their dead lying around on the banks of canals, or in out-of-the-way nooks and corners of waste land, instead of putting them decently under ground. In the northern provinces—and especially in Pechili—any old field seems to do for a cemetery, and the small conical mounds of earth which mark the resting-places of the dead are frequently scattered all over the cultivated land; but there the coffins containing the bodies are at least buried, while in the vicinity of Hangchow they seem to be dumped anywhere, and left on the surface of the ground to be defiled by beasts or reduced to decay by weather, and the lapse of time. One fails, absolutely, to enter into the thoughts of an ancestor-revering Chinaman who leaves the body of his father in a dirty. dog-infested rubbish-corner on the bank of a canal, where it has neither protection nor care, and then goes to the nearest temple and burns half a dozen strings of paper-gilt coin, in order to furnish that father with pocket-money in the

kingdom of heaven. I used to think that the desire of a Chinaman to be brought back from a foreign land after death and buried in the God's acre of his ancestral home was rather a touching thing; but my observations on the banks of the Grand Canal and in the fields around Hangchow have modified my view. There were seven unburied bodies in weather-beaten coffins within fifty feet of the place where we tied up to the bank for the night, and we saw dozens more in weed-overgrown fields on the outskirts of the city.

We remained in Hangchow until Saturday afternoon, and explored in sedan chairs many miles of narrow, crowded, inconceivably dirty streets both inside and outside of the city wall; but we saw nothing of interest that we had not already seen in Soochow. The Sihu. or Western Lake, which lies among the hills a short distance from Hangchow, is a picturesque sheet of water, but we had time only for a glance at the temples, pagodas, monasteries, and Imperial pleasure gardens, which give variety and architectural beauty to its grassy slopes and boldly projecting promontories. Leaving Hangchow for Shanghai by the regular boat-train late Saturday afternoon, we steamed through the Grand Canal all night, and arrived at Kashing early the next morning. When I went on deck, after breakfast, we were just entering upon a great, flat, cultivated plain where it seemed to have been raining coffins for forty days and forty nights! The banks of the canal were lined with them, and they lay sprinkled over the fields as far back as the eye could reach. I think it is not an overstatement to say that there were a hundred to every square mile, and most of them had no other covering than a layer of reeds or dried grass. The only explanation I can suggest of this wholesale exposure of coffins in open fields is based on the tyrannous force of the preposterous superstition known to the Orient as "fengshui." In China, as in Korea, it is universally believed that the place selected for the burial of the dead controls, for good or evil, the fortunes of the living. Beneficent or calamitous streams of influence are supposed to flow

from the graves of dead ancestors, and the topography of the ground in which a corpse is laid determines the luck of the surviving family. As the common people are ignorant of the conditions upon which good or evil fortune depends, they are forced to consult professional "ground doctors," or geomancers, who, after pretending to make a survey of the country, select for the grave a place where the "green dragon" current and the "white tiger" current of spiritual influence are free to run in the proper direction. These ground doctors, of course, are not in the business for their health, and if a family which has lost its head by death is unwilling or unable to pay the fee which the geomancer asks for picking out a lucky grave site, it must either leave the corpse unburied or run the risk of bringing terrible calamity upon itself by putting the body under ground in a place where the "fengshui" is unpropitious. The easiest and cheapest way to escape from this dilemma is to set the coffin out in a field and leave it there until the family gets richer or the ground doctor abates his terms. The Chinese are supposed to be a reasoning as well as an ancestor-loving and ances-

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tor-revering race; but after seeing the way in which they disposed of their dead, I modified my view of their intelligence and wholly lost my faith in the sincerity of their love and reverence for their ancestors. If they had the brains of a Siberian Korak, they would not believe in "ground doctors" or "fengshui;" and if they really loved or cared for their fathers as civilized race. do, they would pay some little honor to their bodies after death, and not deal with them as the Cubans in Santiago used to deal with fever-infected clothing.

Late Sunday afternoon we passed out of the canal into the Huangpu River above Shanghai, and between nine and ten o'clock that evening we reached the city and returned to our hotel, after an absence of seven days. The expenses of our week's trip were \$228.46 Mex., or \$114.23 gold, including house-boat, equipment, provisions, the wages of eleven men, and the charges paid to tugs for towing us nearly four hundred miles. A party of four persons might easily make a house-boat trip of a month at a cost of \$4 a day per capita, and thirty days could not possibly be spent in China more comfortably or more pleasantly.

THE AMERICAN TEACHER IN THE PHILIPPINES

BY JAMES A. LE ROY

Author of 'Town and Country in the Philippines," etc., etc.

O much contradictory testimony is published as to the nature and probable results of the work done in the American schools in the Philippines that really first-hand, competent testimony gains special importance. A good deal of what passes for competent discussion of the Philippine school work is written by whilom sojourners, some of whom have not been near a school-house in the islands. Other contributors, claiming to have been visitors to these schools, have nevertheless told to the readers even of our serious political reviews incidents and class-room conversations

therein which fall under the category of things "interesting if true." One such story has been circulated as an antiimperialistic document. An undue proportion of the articles written for American periodicals by American schoolteachers in the Philippines have been written by the sort who proved uncongenial or unfitted for the work, and have within the past few years been weeded out of the teaching force, voluntarily or involuntarily, returning to the United States, therefore, in a critical mood.

The teachers in the Philippines who have been in the work since 1901—some

of them even longer, beginning back in the days of the military government - now call themselves the "Old Guard." They are yet young in experience in the Philippines, as real experience in an environment so different from that at home should be regarded. But they are of the sort who proved to have the necessary staying power and the right qualities and disposition; and they have now, as it were, caught their "second wind" in the matter of opinions upon things Philippine and Filipino. Testimony from these men and women is the most valuable of all; no one of them has had the experience to enable him to survey the whole situation comprehensively; but, on the other hand, each one can give detailed testimony that comes most intimately close to the truth regarding conditions in the islands. They, of all Americans, have come closest to the masses of the Filipino people.

Some extracts from an article contributed to "The Philippine Teacher" by E. J. Albertson, a teacher who has had almost five years' experience in the schools of Misamis province, are of interest and value to every American who takes a concern in the broader aspects of the "Philippine question." It should be said, by way of preface to these extracts, that Misamis province lies on the northern coast of Mindanao, and comprises a sort of fringe of mostly poor and little towns of Christian Filipinos (Bisayans, in the main) lying next to the unexplored interior or to the territory of the Moros. Naturally, this was a rather backward portion of the Philippines when American occupation began, and hence not the most favorable region for prog-It should be said also that Mr. Albertson is speaking primarily of the Filipino masses, not of the few aristocratic families whose manner of living was altogether more pretentious. I select only the most significant paragraphs of this article:

Old established customs of the home that we regard as superstitious and queer are gradually giving way to modern ideas. Rarely does one now encounter, upon paying a visit to the home of a pupil, that cold, foreign attitude of suspicion on the part of the parents and other members of the family that formerly characterized such occasions.

. . . Instead, we now begin to see the young people and parents receive their visitors with perfect ease and cordiality. The visitor does not so frequently have to gain the good will of the two or three bony dogs, fighting cock, or family pig at the entrance to the Filipino home as was formerly the case. These pets are gradually being dispensed with, or are being relegated to their proper places. Nor does one have to pass over a stained floor, hang his hat on a dust-covered hat-rack supported by cobwebs, or seat himself in 2 greasy, dirty chair that at once puts a finishing touch to his suit of clean white clothes, so frequently as before. Instead of saddles and fish-nets, he finds on the walls pictures and drawings, made, perhaps, by some member of the family. The furniture, what there is of it, is arranged with some degree of taste, and odds and ends are not found hidden in half-secluded nooks.

In the matter of cooking, eating, and sleeping perhaps the greatest changes have been wrought. First of all, pigsties and chickenroosts are being removed from the kitchen, better facilities for cooking are being substi-tuted for the old ones, dining-tables, with tablecloths, are gradually coming into daily use, and the practice of eating the food from the floor is becoming less common than for-The practice of the whole family eating from one common dish is being discontinued in many families, and greater use is being made of knives, forks, and spoons. Where it is possible, the family occupy two or more sleeping-rooms instead of the one large one, as was formerly the custom. And the people are learning the desirability of using beds instead of the floor for sleeping purposes. Nor are all the windows of the bedroom closed tightly at night, as was formerly the case. Thanks to the lessons learned in hygiene classes, the children are persuading their parents to pay more attention to the matter of ventilation.

Permit me to quote an instance of the changes that are going on. One of the students who is attending our provincial school is a Chinese mestizo. He is boarding with Chinese relatives. I have known him for more than four years, and can say that I had never seen a more unkempt, mannerless person than he appeared to be the morning I first saw him, standing in the store of one of his Chinese relatives. I recently had occasion to pass by the boarding-house of this young man, and what I saw in his room was indeed in marked contrast with the surroundings. Shelves and decorations were on the walls. There was a place arranged for everything he used. His mirror, tooth-brush, water glass, bookcase, etc , were all found to be conveniently and artistically placed. This boy, during the past two years, has changed from a rough, ignorant, and ill mannered fellow to a neat, care-taking, and observant student. He exerts a great influence for good on his fellow-students. Out in the province, in his home, is found the stamp of the American schools. Pictures and fancy needlework

adorn the walls, and the home in general is well ordered. If schools can work such a change for good in such a home, how much more may we hope for in the purely Filipino home?

. . Schools are teaching the Filipino people to appreciate the dignity of manual labor, which fact is manifesting itself most forcibly in the home. Where in past years the [betterclass] Filipino home was overcrowded with slaves, who were made to do all the housework, we find the sons and daughters in many families now doing this work. An American teacher setting up a half-dozen pieces of hyloplates, or carrying a couple of large packages of books home, or a lady teacher, with her sleeves rolled up, doing some ordinary household duty, have demonstrated to the Filipino boy and girl that manual labor is not for some, but for all; that instead of shunning work because it is undignified, we should cling to it for the joy it gives. In many of the homes of our pupils the girls are doing their own washing, ironing, sewing, and even making their own clothes. In families where there are several daughters they alternate with each other each week in directing the household work. . . . Boys in many of the better homes have ceased to be ashamed to carry water and do other chores about the home, as is done by boys in America. In cases where parents of the school-children of the towns own farms near by, it is not uncommon in these days to see boys, who during the week are attending the high school, wearing perhaps fine clothes and patent leather shoes, out on the farm Saturdays following the plowed furrow and urging along the slow carabao. For those critics who are trying to decry the system of education as now established in these islands, because it is not a practical one, because the schools are turning out young men and women who are averse to manual labor, such examples as I have mentioned ought to be sufficient, it seems to me, to prove how unsubstantiated are their charges. It is no uncommon sight to see school-boys dressed in working clothes building fence out under a hot sun, or pulling weeds in the school garden, or working on some building to be used in connection with school work. Nor is it uncommon now to see Filipino girls working in the garden or taking outdoor exercise, either by engaging in games or going through gymnastic drills.

We should assume, without going further, that this is the sort of American teacher in the Philippines who is, as the writer says the teacher should be, "a broad-minded, tactful, generous, and approachable neighbor, rather than John Smith, American teacher from New York,

sojourning in the Philippines." This is the sort of a teacher who, while firmly maintaining the necessity for instruction in English in the school-room as the proper means for broadening the horizon of the whole coming generation of Filipinos, yet does not in the least despise the native dialect, nor underestimate its vigor and tenacity of life, and who, on the contrary, promptly learns it, that he may the better put himself en rapport with his pupils and their parents, and may understand their mental processes the better also. This is the practical American teacher in the Philippines, and these comments of his are but a mere hint of the many ways in which such men and women are having influence in the Philippines. He paints no mere enthusiast's picture of a day in the future, but speaks of things as they are:

I do not mean to have it inferred that what I have just said applies to all Filipino homes, or even half of them. I do not want to be understood as saying that a great proportion of the school-children throughout the archipelago are taking so strenuously to work. No, the percentage is probably small. But what I do wish to emphasize is the fact that in almost every town in the archipelago there is found a considerable number of young people who have acquired or are acquiring the proper attitude toward manual labor; and it is in the Filipino home that this newly acquired idea is first being put into practice.

It should be said also that the schools are having, both directly and indirectly, an influence in improving the diet of the Filipinos. Where there were army posts the people often learned to like canned salmon and other articles of the commissary supply, above all others the soldiers' white bread. The American women teachers, and sometimes the men as well, have often been called upon to initiate the people in bread-making, cakemaking, and the use of baking-powder for various articles of food. Not a few of the women teachers are virtually cooking-school instructors outside of regular hours, and wheat flour, formerly unknown in most of the towns, is coming into use.

CHICAGO'S STRUGGLE FOR FREE-DOM FROM TRACTION RULE

BY GEORGE C. SIKES

Since this article was written a great victory has been won for the city of Chicago in the traction struggle by the decision of the United States Supreme Court retusing to place upon the so-called ninety-nine-year act the interpretation set upon it by the traction companies. This decision was summarized and its effect described in The Outlook last week. The reader of the present article will be interested to know that its author has been a special student of this question for over ten years, and has had occasion, as a newspaper correspondent and editorial writer for the Chicago press, to watch the traction struggle at close range. We may add that Mr. Sikes was in 1890 made Secretary of the Street Railway Commission (really a special committee of the City Council on this subject), and held that office for over two years; while later he was associated with Mr. B. J. Arnold in the preparation of an elaborate engineering report on the traction question.—The Editors.

"HE socialistic movement (so called), which seems now so rampant, is due more to the determination of the people to boss the situation than to any economic principles or socialistic dogmas—a determination to subdue corporations drunk on ill-gotten wealth. For this feeling the special beneficiaries of governmental policies have only themselves to blame."

This statement of Lyman E. Cooley, the well-known engineer, in a recent talk on public ownership to the Western Society of Engineers, aptly characterizes the municipal ownership movement in Chicago. That movement has been and is still primarily political. It is at bottom little else than an effort to restore and maintain democratic government. To begin with, it was not a municipal ownership movement at all. Ten years ago the people of Chicago demanded only a fair franchise settlement. Balked in that, and angered at the continued attempts of the traction companies to secure control of the government, both State and local, in order to force upon the community an unfair franchise settlement, public sentiment has moved steadily forward, until to-day Chicago is committed to municipalization at the earliest time at which it can be brought about.

There is nothing so amazing as the stupidity of men who will not see. The obtuseness of the Chicago traction magnates is to be likened only to the blindness of the beneficiaries of the old

régime in the days immediately preceding the French Revolution. Ten years ago twenty-year franchise renewals, with no limitations of consequence, could have been had with comparatively little effort. Yerkes demanded fifty-year grants, and, in order to accomplish his purpose, deliberately set out to debauch the government of State as well as city. This daring challenge furnished the shock that was necessary to arouse the people. In this sense Mr. Yerkes may be said to have done more than any other one person to bring about the political regeneration of Chicago. When the companies got ready to take twenty-year grants, public sentiment had moved on and demanded the imposition of new conditions. While they hesitated and tried to drive a better bargain, public sentiment moved forward Thus the companies have always lagged two or three years behind the steady onward march of public opinion, manifesting a willingness to accept, when too late, terms that could have been secured somewhat earlier. I verily be lieve it is absolutely out of the question for the existing companies to secure today franchise renewal grants of any kind whatever. So angered are the people that they will allow their city government to have nothing whatever to do with the old crowd, except to buy their property if it can be had for a reasonable price.

The present situation can be better understood if traced from the beginning. In 1858 a franchise for horse-car lines

was conferred by the Council upon a group of men who shortly afterwards became incorporated as the Chicago City Railway Company. The grant was for twenty-five years, and thereafter until the city should elect to purchase the tangible property. In the next few years similar grants were made to other companies to occupy the North and West divisions of the city, the City Railway Company confining itself to the South division. Thus was early established the policy of dividing the city for transportation purposes into three divisions. which has subsisted to this time. The lack of unification, which has taken place in most other cities, is the prime cause of the wretched accommodations which the Chicago street-car companies afford the traveling public.

The next chapter of traction history has to do with the now famous ninetynine-year act. In 1865 the companies asked the State Legislature to extend their corporate life from twenty-five to ninety-nine years, and to give a like increase to their grants to occupy the streets of Chicago, without the consent of the City Council thereto. The Legislature did pass this act over the veto of Governor Oglesby and in the face of an outburst of public indignation similar to those which have been manifested in recent years. This action of the companies laid the foundation of the years of rancor and bad feeling that have followed. It was the insistence by the city that all remaining claim of rights under this act should be absolutely surrendered by the companies as one of the considerations for any new grant they might obtain that has proved the main stumbling-block to a settlement. In other words, this unjust and offensive legislation of 1865, undoubtedly passed by corrupt means, has served indirectly as the most powerful single support of the municipal ownership movement of the present. One result of this action was the incorporation in the Constitution of 1870 of a clause making it impossible for the Legislature thereafter to grant street railway franchises without local consent. A law was soon after passed limiting all such consents to twenty years.

The next event of critical importance in the street railway history of Chicago was the entrance into the field of Charles T. Yerkes. Mr. Yerkes had left Philadelphia under a cloud. He set up as a broker in Chicago in the early eighties, without capital, but possessed of great shrewdness and ability. He had the dare-devil courage of the highwayman, and, like the highwayman, he was without conscientious scruples as to the methods to be employed in accomplishing results. He was far-seeing enough to understand the possibilities of street railway development in a city like Chicago, and his Philadelphia experience had taught him the value, to the financier, of the ability to combine politics with business. Moreover, he still had powerful Philadelphia connections that furnished him with funds to float his Chicago projects. In 1886 and 1887 Mr. Yerkes, for himself and his associates, chief of whom were Messrs. Elkins and Widener, of Philadelphia, secured control of a majority of the stock of the companies in the North and West divisions of the city. Then began the most remarkable era of financiering and political manipulation that Chicago has ever known. Companies were multiplied and securities were piled on top of securities in the most confusing manner. Construction companies were utilized to benefit an inside clique. Politically, Mr. Yerkes became the most powerful factor in the community. He dominated conventions and made and unmade councils and mayors, all, of course, under cover as much as possible. Later he had nearly as much to say in naming Governors and in controlling the action of State Legislatures. Mr. Yerkes wanted more valuable grants than it was possible. for the Council to vote him, under the law limiting all such grants to twenty years. He went to the Legislature of 1895 with bills that were passed without much difficulty, but their final success was blocked by the veto of Governor Altgeld. Angered at this defeat of his project, Mr. Yerkes decided to name the next Governor of the State himself and thus be sure of having a man who would carry out his wishes; and in this he succeeded. The Allen Law, authorizing fiftyyear grants, was passed by the Legislature of 1897 and signed by Governor Tanner. By this time, however, so much progress had been made with governmental conditions in Chicago that the city government, under the leadership of Mayor Carter H. Harrison, refused to make any grant whatever until the odious Allen Law should be repealed, and that law was repealed by the succeeding Legislature. From that time on the companies have been continually on the defensive.

The Chicago city government may be said to have reached its lowest level about 1895. The Municipal Voters' League was organized in 1896, and at the outset met with astonishing success in its effort to secure the election of better men to the City Council. In 1897 John Maynard Harlan, a member of the City Council, received approximately 70,-000 votes as an independent candidate for Mayor on the issue of opposition to the Yerkes franchise policy. Carter H. Harrison, who was elected Mayor as the Democratic nominee, immediately took the leadership of the fight against Yerkes. After the repeal of the Allen Law he took the position that there should be no franchise renewals until after the Legislature should pass a law authorizing municipal ownership. It was not the intention of Mayor Harrison that this law should be actually utilized at once. His policy was to grant one more renewal franchise, which franchise should reserve to the city the right of purchase at some time not far distant in the future. He wished the city, when making the grant, to be in full possession of the power to utilize the right of purchase as soon as it should become available. Shortly after the repeal of the Allen Law, the Council committee, headed by Alderman Milton J. Foreman, began working out a constructive policy for the city. A bill giving the city full power to deal with the situation as it might see fit, including the power to municipalize, was prepared and presented to the Legislature of 1901 with the approval of the City Council. This bill failed of passage. When the Legislature met in 1903, however, public sentiment in favor of enabling municipal legislation had crystallized to such an extent that opposition

was futile. The Speaker of the House, who tried to kill the bill under the gavel, was literally driven from the chair by infuriated members, and sought refuge behind barred doors in his private room. He was allowed to resume the chair only on the promise that he would give roll-calls in the future, and the municipal ownership bill, known as the Mueller Bill, thereupon was passed by both Houses and signed by the Governor.

Public feeling against the companies was naturally growing more intense all the time. But the situation was not yet hopeless for them. They could have secured a grant on fairly liberal terms. But they hoped to do better. thought the outbursts of public feeling which they were witnessing were mere passing storms that would clear away and leave them again in control of the situation. In this respect, at least, Mr. Yerkes must be credited with keener insight than his fellow-financiers in the traction world. After the repeal of the Allen Law he had the perception to realize that the game as it had been played was He got his holdings together, and in the summer of 1899 sold out and left for London. The purchasers were chiefly Philadelphia and New York financiers with whom he had previously been associated. These men appeared to think that the trouble in Chicago was chiefly due to Mr. Yerkes's personal unpopu-They thought that with him out of the way the franchise deal could still be engineered all right. Their first move was to organize a new corporation, the Chicago Union Traction Company, start the printing-press and put out new securities to inflate still further a capitalization already watered to the limit. These men had not been in control long before they discovered that they had been duped. One of their attorneys declared in open court that Mr. Yerkes had sold them a gold brick. It was discovered upon investigation that, in order to make a showing, dividends had been paid in the case of some of the smaller companies from borrowed funds. Yerkes had retained in small outlying companies still controlled by him operating rights of great value which it was necessary for the new owners to get control of. Naturally, the

people of Chicago were not greatly impressed by the plea of New York and Philadelphia financiers that they must have franchise renewals on terms that would make good the enormous amount of watered securities held by them. The companies and the Council committee met to negotiate. When the city asked that the companies, in return for a twentyyear renewal grant, relinquish all claims under the ninety-nine-year act, Messrs. Auerbach and Govin, representing the New York owners of Union Traction stock, replied with a lordly air that this could not be done. Thereupon negotiations were broken off. However, the City Railway Company, which was not so excessively over-capitalized, and the stock of which was more largely held in Chicago, after a time reopened negotia-Representatives of this company co-operated with the Council committee in framing an ordinance providing for a twenty-year renewal grant and a complete waiver of all claims under the ninetynine-year act, with a stipulation that after the expiration of thirteen years the city might purchase the property of the company without any allowance whatever for franchise values. This ordinance, while supported by many publicspirited citizens, including Mayor Harrison, was combated from two sources. The Union Traction owners realized that if it should be passed and accepted by the City Railway Company they could never get a better one. The City Railway Company has stock outstanding to the amount of \$18,000,000 par value, without any bonded indebtedness. Its tangible property has been valued by a competent engineer at \$12,000,000. In order to prevent the City Railway Company from accepting the ordinance, a syndicate headed by J. Pierpont Morgan purchased at the rate of \$200 per share a controlling interest in the City Railway. In later negotiations with the city this purchase was cited in support of the claim that the franchises now owned by the City Railway Company are worth \$25,000,000. From the radical side the ordinance was attacked as being too favorable to the company. A referendum vote taken on the ordinance later. when it was no longer a live issue, and

under circumstances peculiarly unfavorable to its adoption, was adverse by a large majority.

At the same election at which this City Railway ordinance was voted down Judge Edward F. Dunne was chosen Mayor on the issue of immediate municipal ownership. Early in his administration Mayor Dunne sent to the Council a message embodying alternative plansone designated the "City Plan," the other the "Contract Plan." The "City Plan "looked toward direct municipalization under the Mueller Law. "Contract Plan" was not an immediate municipal ownership plan at all, but was described as the "short cut" to municipal ownership. While presenting the two plans, Mayor Dunne gave his unqualified approval to the "Contract Plan." The Mayor's critics at once declared that he had abandoned the issue of municipal ownership on which he had just been elected. They said that if he could consistently favor a franchise grant to one set of men there was no reason why others could not with equal consistency favor a grant to the old companies, provided the terms were unobjectionable. So negotiations were again opened between the companies and the Council committee. This, to my mind, was the last opportunity for the companies. believe the matter could have been settled in a way to leave them, for the time being at least, in possession of the field had they been willing to accept a grant running nominally for twenty years, but subject to city purchase on fair terms at any time, or at most at any time after five years. Fair terms in this case would include some allowance for present unexpired franchise rights of the companies. But, as usual, the companies overreached themselves. Mayor Dunne appeared to be floundering. The traction men thought the reaction had set in, and they demanded terms in the ordinance to which the public would not The Council would not pass consent. the measure. Moreover, the Council had pledged itself previously not to pass any ordinance until the people should have had an opportunity to express themselves thereon by referendum, and it seemed useless to submit to a referen-

dum an ordinance criticised by influential elements that had favored the adoption of the ordinance previously proposed for the City Railway. After the failure of the Council to act upon either of the two plans he had previously submitted, Mayor Dunne had presented a third plan, which had been pending for some weeks when the franchise renewal plan fell through. All at once the Mayor's third plan was taken up by the Council and passed hastily, without any detailed consideration of its merits. This ordinance provides for the issuance of \$75,-000,000 worth of Mueller Law certificates for the purpose of acquiring a street railway system by purchase, construction, condemnation, or otherwise. approved by the people, this ordinance will be a blanket grant of authority to the Mayor and Council to proceed to the acquisition of a municipal street railway system. Under the Mueller Law there is a distinction between municipal ownership and municipal operation. Before the city can operate, the question of operation must be submitted to the people as a separate proposition, and approved by three-fifths of those voting thereon. That question is to be submitted at the next election. A majority vote will suffice to carry the proposition for the issuance of certificates for municipal ownership.

That Mayor Dunne's municipal ownership ordinance will be adopted at the election of April 3 I have no doubt. Moreover, all things considered, I believe it should be adopted. I have very serious doubts, however, if municipal ownership will be attained under this particular ordinance. An affirmative popular vote on it is necessary to register the onward march of public opinion. negative vote would be taken to indicate a reaction in sentiment on the part of the electorate and would lead to the resumption of negotiations between the city and the companies, with a certainty of failure again on that line. An affirmative vote will be taken to mean that the people are through with the old companies and that they might as well make up their minds to sell out and quit before they shall be forced out at further loss to themselves. If adopted, however, the

ordinance itself will not bring early results. The way out, in my opinion, would still lie along another line—that is, through the adoption of a modified form of Mayor Dunne's so-called "Contract Plan." That plan will not only soonest bring order out of the present chaos, but it offers the surest and quickest road to municipal ownership.

I am of those who believe in the policy of municipal ownership and operation of the street-car lines of Chicago just as soon as that can be brought about on proper terms. My quarrel with those in Mayor Dunne's administration and elsewhere who look upon themselves as the only simon-pure advocates of municipal ownership is that they want the thing in advance of the time when it can possibly be brought about. The city of Chicago is, at present, powerless to issue additional bonds for any purpose, and hence can issue none for the construction or acquisition of street railways. The only way left to finance an immediate municipal ownership project is through the issuance of the certificates provided for by the Mueller Law, which certificates are to be a lien only on the street railways themselves and not a debt of the city, properly speaking. Now this certificate feature of the Mueller Law is admittedly experimental and of uncertain validity. The certificates will not sell on the market until the Supreme Court has pronounced them valid, and not then unless investors shall be satisfied of the feasibility and practical wisdom of the plan proposed. will be at least eighteen months or two years of litigation over the various features of this ordinance, if adopted, before a thing can be actually done under it. Before the litigation is ended and a start can be made toward working out the plan Mayor Dunne's present term of office will have expired. While this ordinance gives the Mayor and Council power to go ahead, it does not require them to do so. The power is not liable to the abuse that would lie in a like grant of authority to issue regular city bonds, for the reason that the investors, having, in case of failure and foreclosure, no recourse except to the property itself, and the right to operate it for twenty years

under a mortgage franchise, would be bound to satisfy themselves, before advancing the money, that it is not likely to be wasted. Before the time comes for action along the lines of this plan I am satisfied that numerous changes will be found necessary. In the meantime the need of speedier results than this method can afford will be evident to all. These results. I believe, can be best obtained through a modified form of Mayor Dunne's so-called "Contract Plan." The term "Trustee Plan" would have been a happier characterization. The essential idea of this plan, it may be worth noting in passing, was commended by Mayor Dunne's predecessor in office, Mayor Harrison, in his last message to the City Council.

Under this plan a franchise to construct or acquire a complete street railway system for the entire city would be granted to a group of public-spirited citizens, who should manage the property in the interest of the public and use all earnings in excess of a fixed return on the investment to retire the investment.

When the plant should be paid for out of profits, the property would belong to the city, or it could be taken by the city at any earlier time when the city can find the money, either through the sale of Mueller Law certificates or otherwise, to reimburse the investors. The franchises of the existing companies began to expire July 30, 1903, a large mileage having already expired. There are other grants which clearly have several years to run, some as much as ten years. third class comprises the lines which the companies claim under the ninety-nineyear act, and which are in litigation. Just so soon as the city shall show practical capacity to develop a rival system it is probable that the old companies will sell out at a reasonable figure. If they will not, the expired mileage will furnish the nucleus for a comprehensive system that will supersede the old in a comparatively short time.

The one thing evident in the Chicago situation is that the people demand and are going to have a new deal on the traction question.

THE CHILDREN'S PLEA

BY JACOB A. RIIS

EADERS of The Outlook have not forgotten Sea Breeze with its hospital for crippled children, and the plea of Miss Laura Winnington when she lay dying in St. Luke's Hospital for a bigger institution that should repeat on a many times larger scale the success achieved there with that terrible scourge of ill-nourished childhood, bone tuberculosis. And they will recall the results that followed quickly: the visit of the President and Mrs. Roosevelt to Coney Island, and the raising of a large sum of money overnight, as it seemed, to realize Miss Winnington's dream. She closed her eyes upon this world with the knowledge that her wish was granted. Of the four or five thousand little cripples in New York's tenements with this ailment—hopeless unless the chance is given them of a life in the open on the seashore, summer and winter, until the healing forces of nature

have done their work—only one in a hundred could find shelter at Sea Breeze. The new hospital was planned for at least ten times that number. The plans called for a building to cost a quarter of a million of dollars. John D. Rockefeller offered half that sum if the other half were raised before spring came again. The thing was to find a site.

It proved not so easy to get as had been supposed. On Coney Island there was no room. For a while it seemed as if there were none anywhere; as if the wave of pity for the forlorn little sufferers had swept on and out of sight, leaving cold selfishness and the greed of "property interests" in its place. Everywhere the door was slammed in the faces of the children's friends. No one wanted the cripples for neighbors. The seashore is for pleasuring, we heard; they would contaminate, ruin it. They did not know. Could they have seen them and

what it all meant, they would never have let them pass. Verily, I think they would have given them the land for the asking. I know right well they would.

But they did not know. It became necessary to take land by condemnation, and it was resolved to kill two birds with one stone by hitching the plan to two prime needs of the city, viz., a great seashore playground for the people and a convalescent home for the sick and disabled poor who are daily crowded out of New York's hospitals by the tremendous pressure upon them, although wholly unfit to take up the battle of life again. A bill was prepared, with the consent and support of Mayor McClellan, empowering the city to take property on the seashore where it would. It is now at Albany awaiting action. Since then a public-spirited citizen, Mr. Edward P. Hatch, has offered two miles of shore front on Rockaway Beach at, it is said, half its value for this purpose, and it seems certain now that the plan of this great benefaction will be realized without too long delay. There has been too much The metropolis, with its unequaled location, has been singularly backward in grasping the opportunity to provide a seashore park for its people. A little while longer and it might easily have been too late. The overcrowding of our hospitals has long cried aloud for a convalescents' home as an act of plain humanity. These things speak for them-I had sat down to speak for the little ones here, when they came to plead their own cause, all unconscious of their mission.

The children at Sea Breeze had heard that I, too, had been laid away in a hospital for a while to tame a rebellious heart if I might, and nothing would do but they must write to tell me how sorry they were. So to-day the mail brought me a batch of their letters. that carrier knew how much of sunshine and cheer his bag held. Here is fiveyear-old Max Gross, child of poverty and want, all the days of a long and weary year strapped to a frame that holds his little body rigid because his back is not like other children's, yet ever cheerful, ever hopeful, calling across the room to the doctor, "I am all better!" Poor little chap! Once, and only once, his tears fell; and when his nurse went to him in alarm, he sobbed out upon her sleeve that some one had said on the porch as he was carried by: "Max will not get better." "And I don't want to get dead and be an angel," was the cry that wrung the nurse's heart; "I want to get off my board and play first." Hear his message to me:

Dear Mr. Riis

I am very sorry you are sick. Are you on a board like me? I got a yellow pencil. I am writing this letter with the pencil. I am writing all myself, only someone is holding the pencil, too. Are you up?

A big dog bit Rags' eye. I think Rags belongs to Madge. Mary Maguire is dressed up like Miss Roosevelt. She has on a long veil. It is made of tissue paper. Maggie Brennan is dressed up, too. She is the bridesmaid. Come down again and bring Mr. Roosevelt. I would like to see you again. Good-bye, with love from your friend, MAX GROSS.

Max came from a slum tenement. His parents are poor Jews. some one who held the pencil with him tells me that he hesitated over "Miss" Roosevelt. He had meant to say Alice. but did not think it was proper, and decided that it was not. The visit of the President to Sea Breeze is the proud tradition of the children that helps them over many a hard hour. They rehearse it again and again, usually with Max as spokesman. He forgets then the pain in his back, forgets the play that is not for him-never in this life-and remembers only the kind face that hovered over him and looked out of brimming eyes at his wasted frame. Then all Max's native optimism comes to his rescue with a rush, and he winds up his story: "I think the President will come back: for Dr. Wallace told him my name and he said, 'Max, I hope you will get better.' He had nice shining eye-glasses and a big laugh."

Max has one priceless possession—an umbrella Santa Claus brought him by special request "lest it should quick come on to rain when he was going across the porch with Louis;" and regularly every day, rain or shine, he goes down stairs in Louis's arms, hugging the precious thing to his board. The big children may believe that Santa Claus

"came out of the cellar at Sea Breeze" when they had the Christmas-tree. Max knows better. He has the evidence always in sight.

Madeline Garland is Max's bosom friend. She is seven and her Sea Breeze name is Bumps, supposedly from the big freckles that cover her jolly little face and snub nose. Like Max, she lies all her days strapped to the board that looks so cruel and is so kind, and views the world about her "brimming over with joy," her nurse says. Sea Breeze is all the home she has ever known. Her mother is a widow and lives out. Here is her letter:

Dear Mr. Riis

Annie and Pasco and I and all the children are sorry you are sick. Do you have a bed outdoors like me? Is there a fire alarm in your hospital? We have fire drill here. Henrietta carried me out when the bell rang. Have you got some one like Henrietta to carry you out?

I am writing this letter myself, just like Max. Dear Mr. Riis, I hope you get better. Give my love to President Roosevelt. With

love from your friend

MADELINE GARLAND.

And David Goldscher, the boy with the pale pathetic face that haunts me ever since I saw him standing propped up by his crutch, singing grace with the children at supper, the dreamy boy from the dark tenement in dark Allen Street where the elevated runs overhead, writes: "Now it is getting spring. I've seen lots of birds flying, and the ocean looks very still. Don't you think the sea would do you good, with the fresh air? Well, I hope you can come to see us soon and be all better."

Children of the poor! Yes, of the poorest. But shall we let such as these perish unhelped? Here in the hospital where I write are twenty such in the surgical ward, for whom only the seashore hospital holds out the promise of life. Every hospital has the same story

to tell; every children's institution is filled with them. Thousands slowly tortured to death in the tenements! Think of it, you fathers and mothers with healthy. happy children; think of the little soberfaced patient at Sea Breeze that said of her friend who was seven and never would walk: "She used to play when she was young." Think of Pasco, aged thirteen, in the grave conference on the beach over the things they would do and be when they grew big: "I want to be a boy first." The Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor says it needs seventy thousand dollars yet for the building of the hospital. If I know my city right, it will not need to ask another day.

Sometimes it is to me as though in the brave patience of these stricken ones I caught a glimpse of the real things of life and their meaning to us who, with sound bodies, are strong and able to do the world's work. Only last week there came a letter from a crippled girl way out West whose mother I know, a hardworking widow, growing old with this sorrow at her heart that her only child can never be strong and well. "I used to lie awake the long nights after the doctor had told me," writes the girl, "grieving because I could never do anything. But that was years ago. I am earning my living now teaching school, and the crutch doesn't hinder me much. I shall be able to care for mother when she is tired. I even think I shall be able to save enough to take her back once more to the old home across the sea that she so longs for. And the thought makes me happy." Never do anything! What is there in all the world that money can buy that compares with the pleasure of doing for these, who do so much for us, all that human skill, that long-withheld chance, can do to ease their pain?

A GROUP OF NOVELS'

LITTLE group of novels recently published disclose unusual seriousness of mood and thoroughness of workmanship. questions of the day touch matters so vital to life and art that there has come into the best fiction a note of pathos which escapes the paralysis of skepticism by courage if not breadth of vision. There is no form of writing so futile as the literature of futility; the unraveling of all the threads, the fading of all the qualities of character into a shabby gray, the growing indistinctness of a path which loses itself at the end in a waste of nothingness. Tragedy can be borne, for there is always a touch of greatness in it; but the interpretation of life as a meaningless grouping of things and persons in relations which cut no deep lines in character, and are themselves the accidents of an accident, is intolerable to a sane mind. Fate is a cruel God. but still a God, and under its iron hand, as in Thomas Hardy's stories, man has some touch of dignity and his destiny some grace of meaning; but a world which has no ruling energy or intelligence, and is a fortuitous collection of atoms, is a world which makes no room for thought. A man suffocates in the nightmare, not of a world which passes his comprehension, but of a world in which nothing counts either for tragedy or comedy.

In such a story as Miss Ellen Glasgow's "The Wheel of Life" there is no lack of tragedy of a pitiful kind, but the

1 The Wheel of Life By Ellen Glasgow. Doubleday, Page & Co., New York \$1.50

The Portreeve. By Eden Philipotts. The Macmillan Company, New York \$1.50

The Lake. By George Moore. D. Appleton & Co., New York. \$1.50.

The Shadow of Life. By Anne Douglas Sedgwick. The Century Company, New York. \$1.50.

The Jungle. By Upton Sinclair. Doubleday, Page & Co., New York. \$1.50.

Folly By Edith Rickert. The Baker & Taylor Company, New York. \$1.50.

The Healers By Maarten Maartens D. Appleton & Co., New York. \$1.50.

The Teleaters By Maarten Maartens D. Appleton & Co., New York. \$1.50.

The Truth about Tolina. By Bertha Runkle. The Century Company, New York. \$1.50.

The Truth about Tolina. By Bertha Runkle. The Century Company, New York. \$1.50.

The Clammer By William John Hopkins. Hough tou, Mifflin & Co., Boston. \$1.25.

On the Field of Giory. By Henryk Sienkiewicz. Little, Brown & Co., Boston. \$1.50

tragedy involves growth rather than waste, and out of the chaos of weak wills, self-indulgence, poverty of interests, and empty frivolity something definite and significant in character emerges. people in this very seriously conceived drama of spiritual growth belong to the so-called "fast set," so mercilessly studied in "The House of Mirth." Miss Glasgow, like Mrs. Wharton, has made New York the background of her novel, but every large city and many small cities furnish the same conditions on a smaller scale and produce the same types of character. A vein of Orientalism, suggested by the title, runs through this novel, which deals, in its largest aspects, with the early illusions, the pain of education, and that enlightenment which involves, not rejection of the order of life, but acceptance of a spiritual scale of values and the subordination of the lesser to the greater. Through the four stages of impulse, illusion, disenchantment, and reconciliation the two chief actors move to a tempered happiness which is the fulfillment of a moral process and the justification of its inexorable and penetrating discipline. This interior movement does not obscure the exterior dramatic action of the novel, though it is occasionally over-emphasized by too much definition. There are broader contrasts of character than in "The House of Mirth." though not quite the same sureness of touch, the same sense of intimacy with the most elusive aspects of a well-defined though loosely ordered social group. Frivolity and vice are relieved by the play of light from the finer virtues across the picture, and the studies of character are done with the most delicate fidelity. style shows a marked change, and approaches more closely the analytic and subtle selective process of those sophisticated writers who reflect a dominant, though, it may be suspected, not the deepest, mood of the period. It is to be hoped that Miss Glasgow will not go further in this direction.

Mr. Phillpotts has never sketched the

loveliness and majesty of the Dartmoor country with a surer hand than in "The Portreeve," a story of elemental passion; one of those tragedies which flow from the focusing of the will, unrestrained by moral feeling or instinct, on a single object, and the ruthless direction of the intelligence and energy of a powerful nature to an end never obscured by intellectual hesitation or moral doubt. The office of portreeve has an ancient origin, and, although its authority has departed, is still an object of local ambition. The man who is chosen to fill it in this instance is frugal, sincere, tireless, and loyal to his principles; lacking in imagination, but well equipped for an effective and honorable career. He has the misfortune to awaken the passion of a proud, self-centered, and self-willed woman, who adroitly breaks off a love affair with another by an audacious and daring expedient; and when, in the end, the Portreeve marries her rival, by a persistent and merciless use of the advantages of her superior position and wealth, blocks his progress, thwarts all his plans, and drives him to desperation and finally to death. The motive is one of the most repellent within reach of the novelist, and is worked out with unsparing boldness. The strain of the story is relieved only by its outlook on a landscape of noble hills and valleys transfigured by mists, and great reaches of mountain-side against which the mists move in sublime detachment.

No recent book is more difficult to describe and classify than Mr. George Moore's novel, "The Lake." It is a study of two contrasted temperaments rather than a novel: but it has a defined movement, and it culminates in a climax which falls short of a solution. A young Irish priest becomes interested in the teacher of the parish school, who has a lover, and when her condition becomes known preaches a sermon on her sin so pointed that she flees from the parish. Her disappearance lies heavy on his conscience, and he persuades himself that by driving her away he has probably become responsible for her ruin. She presently reappears in London, becomes secretary for a scholar who is absorbed in the critical study of the Old

Testament, goes with him to the Continent, and eventually to Palestine. story of the influence of the girl on the priest and the contrast between their characters is told in a series of letters. which gradually make the priest aware that what he regarded as spiritual interest in her welfare is a very human form of The unveiling of his state of mind is made with great skill and delicacy; the loneliness and narrow interests of the little Irish parish and the easy, vital relations of the girl with art, affairs, and life are set in a strong light; and the underlying motive is the contrast between the rigid conception of life of an undeveloped priest and the unhesitating and joyous acceptance of the life of intellectual curiosity by a woman who follows instinct with a free heart. The text is largely descriptive of landscape, interesting localities, and pictures, with easy play of criticism on the priest's way of thought and life. The lake which gives the book its title has as great a part in the unfolding of the story as the moors in Mr. Hardy's stories, and its changes, moods, and reflections are reported with delicate and searching skill. Mr. Moore's work is notable for skill of analysis and for charm of style, but it is as free from moral feeling as if there were no guides in the world save instinct and impulse; herein lies the limitation which keeps it out of the class of lasting fiction.

What is "The Shadow of Life"? Love or Death? In this beautiful and relentless picture (if such glowing and vital writing as this can be designated by so passive a name) Miss Sedgwick compels us to stand beside her as she uncovers the mental and moral processes of two noble It is rare to find childhood as exquisitely described and as perfectly understood as the childhood of Eppie and Gavan. The air of the moors, the lowering or the sunny sky, the boy and girl, with Robber the little dog, are more than a mere picture—they live. A lonely, sad boy, Gavan came to Scotland, leaving his idolized mother alone with her brutal husband in the arid glare of Indian army circles. Already the shadow of pain and shame stretched itself across the boy's horizon. Eppie, ten years old, and four years younger than Gavan, was

"a dear little girl," whose atmosphere was sparkling with vigorous though entirely childlike helpfulness and keen sympathy. When Eppie was angry or grieved, she howled; when Gavan was grieved, he shrank within himself. the story opens -- in unusual beauty. For many years the two friends did not meet—and only when Gavan was thirty did he revisit the old house on the moor. From that moment the conflict between the two natures raged. Gavan had become a mystic, Eppie clung boldly to life and love. In this period the author displays her remarkable powers of analysis and her capacity for dispassionate observation. Any thoughtful reader will linger, absorbed by the struggle between these friends, developing into a strange, overpowering, reluctant, renouncing love. Eppie never flinches from her purpose to overcome death in Gavan—the lifeless, selfless death of the dreamer, who has abdicated personality, and to whom all earthly things are delusions and all apparent life only the insignificant movement of the particles in a kaleidoscope shaken by an unknown power. She shatters herşelf upon him, and even in dying glows with the radiant life that has been her faith. She is the one flaw in Gavan's accepted theory; she brings him back from his acquired peace and makes him understand suffering and love. story is a tragedy of souls. In the end, though in reality Eppie had nothing, "her triumph was shadowless," and for him "a hand stretched out from the past would seize him, a shudder, a pang, would shake him, and he would know that he was alone and that he remem-Eppie and Gavan so dominate the scene that other admirably drawn characters, the sweet family life on the moor, the strong, worldly, and yet unselfish lover, Jim Grainger, and the cleverly indicated settlement workers in London, with one or two minor persons, are undeservedly in the background. In the end Life is stronger than the Shadow, and though in apparent defeat, it triumphs.

In "The Jungle" Mr. Upton Sinclair is trying to do two things—to expose and denounce as intolerable the conditions of life and work in Chicago's "Packingtown," and, secondly, to prove

by argument that National Socialism is the only cure for such evils. Artistically speaking, the joint between these two parts of his book is too obvious; he begins in the fiercest light of melodrama and ends like a lyceum lecturer. Moreover. this difference between the "exposé" and the argument precisely illustrates the author's temperamental defect—he is strong at destruction, weak at construction; at his best in invective and denunciation, ineffective in persuading and inspiring. There is doubtless room for improvement in the packing-houses, in the treatment of labor—the writer of an article in The Outlook at the time of the stock-yards strike quoted one of the largest employers as saying, bluntly, that when, in fixing wages, he was asked to consider the employees' conditions of living or his own profits, there was nothing to do but fight. There is also a general belief that the sanitary and manufacturing aspects of the stock-yards should be improved, in the interest of the consumer as well as of the workman. If this book helps to secure more rigid inspection and more drastic regulation, it will deserve praise. But to select a single family of Lithuanian workers, to pile upon their devoted heads every hardship and injustice imaginable, to disgust the reader by dragging him through every conceivable horror, physical and moral, to depict with lurid excitement and with offensive minuteness the life in jail and brothel—all this is to overreach the object. One remembers that it is very easy, in fiction, to mingle the true with the imaginative; that even things actually terrible may become distorted when a writer screams them out in a sensational way and in a high-pitched key. In short, Mr. Sinclair's indictment of the employing classes would have been more convincing if it were less hysterical.

Miss Edith Rickert, whose first novel, "The Reaper," will be remembered for its delicacy of feeling and charm of style, now presents in her second book, "Folly," a story of an altogether different type. If it be held that any account in fiction of a passionate love felt for a man other than her husband by a married woman is inadmissible in the English novel, then

this story must be passed unread. But the problem underlying the story is not so much one of passion as of character. The psychology of "Folly's" development from a rather frivolous and whimsical creature to a woman of force and courage is both subtle and singular. The key is found in the fact that what had been a shallow and careless flirtation becomes deepseated and uncontrollable devotion only when "Folly" learns that the man in question is dying slowly of an incurable disease. She deserts home, child, and husband, but finds that she may not be either the dying man's nurse or mistress. He solves the problem by slipping away to die in a distant country, and in the end "Folly," through a life of devotion to other helpless ones, recovers her poise and begins a sane life. All this is of course rather depressing in substance, but the difficult theme is worked out with reserve and discrimination.

Maarten Maartens's "The Healers" is a puzzling book if one seeks to find its philosophic purpose, but looked at as a picture gallery of carefully etched character portraits it is immensely entertaining. As compared with the author's earlier books, such as "God's Fool," it is less impressive and certainly less clear in its suggestion of the beautiful and noble in human effort, but, on the other hand, it is constantly witty and sometimes epigrammatic. This seems all the more notable when it is known that idiocy and insanity, their nature and distinction, underlie the story and that the "healers" are types of the microbetheory scientist, the hypnotic-influence expert, the psychopathic doctor, and the ordinary alienist. While this sounds formidable, the story is in point of fact agreeable and even fascinating reading. The men and women described are alive and are interesting in an unusual degree.

Among the entertaining stories of the season a first place must be given to Mr. Jesse Lynch Williams's "The Day-Dreamer," an expansion of a shorter story which was widely read and enjoyed. There is a general stir in this novel which successfully simulates the rush of a daily newspaper office when the presses are in motion and the "stories" are coming in from every quarter. reporter's slang, which is a kind of dialect known only to the initiated, is freely used, and the narrative bristles with expert knowledge of reportorial ways and speech. "The Truth about Tolna" also has a good deal of journalistic quality, and deals with a novel situation with much gavety and easy-going handling of persons and situations. The dialogue is more successful than the construction, and, as a very light comedy which often passes over into farce, Miss Runkle's long-expected second novel has some interest; it can hardly be counted a successful piece of fiction. Of Mr. Hopkins's uncompromising romance, "The Clammer," much might be said in praise of its quiet, rather old-fashioned style-leisurely, meditative, and wellbred. There is no plot; only an uneventful love story, with a man of solitary habits, who digs clams because it amuses him, and makes a garden, and keeps clear of his neighbors, a charmingly drawn girl, a rich father who is not spoiled, and a proud mother who is humanized by the birth of a grandchild. There is a good deal of landscape and sky and sea in the narrative, which depends for its charm largely on atmosphere and sentiment. Mr. Sienkiewicz's "On the Field of Glory," already spoken of in The Outlook, has much of the fire, action, humor, and stirring historical interest found in his famous Polish trilogy of romances.

THE MENACE OF PRIVILEGE

THAT is the cause of the grave changes that are coming over the American Republic?—the extraordinary inequality in wealth distribution, class feeling, the aristocratic idea, lowered morals among the rich, moral deterioration among the working masses, militant trade unionism, perversion of courts, illegitimate use of militia, corruption of politics, limitation of freedom of press, university, and pulpit, centralization of government, foreign aggression. The answer is, the appearance of Privilege. This volume strives to show how special privilege underlies these ominous appearances. The remedies proposed are, "Tax land monopoly to death" and "Take all public highway functions into public hands."

The foregoing paragraph condensed from the Preface must here suffice to indicate the nature of this book. style is excellent, the spirit earnest, the vision clear though not unprejudiced. The son is more than the pupil of his father, he is his father's heir. In clearness and cogency of presentation this volume is scarcely inferior to "Progress and Poverty." There is much in this volume that is true, much that needs to be said, much that is well said. The difficulty with the book is that its view is both a partial view and a short view. It is partial because the author does not recognize the advantages, both moral and economic, which have come in with the era of industrial combination. It is a short view because the author does not recognize the important fact that we confront not the origin but the recrudescence of Privilege.

During the eighteenth century Privilege reigned supreme in Europe. It was open, unconcealed, avowed. The results of it in France Taine has described in "The Ancient Régime;" the results in England Lecky has described in his "History of the Eighteenth Century." Against this reign of Privilege the French

Revolution was a revolt on the Continent. the American Revolution was a revolt for Great Britain as well as for her colony. The era of Privilege was followed by the era of individual liberty. Jeremy Bentham was its prophet. His doctrine involved three propositions: (1) That the true end of government is the greatest good of the greatest number: (2) that each individual is the best judge of his own interests; (3) that if we leave each individual free and untrammeled in industry, and with an equal share in government, the interests of all will be well cared for. It is always true that the just end of government is the greatest good of the greatest number; it is sometimes true that the individual is the best judge of his own interests; it is never true that the interests of all will be well taken care of by a system which incites all individuals to struggle each for his own interests. Privilege. which was driven out to the tune of the Rogues' March at the close of the eighteenth century, has been creeping in since, without banner or music, under individualism, until it sometimes seems as though it were as firmly ensconced in its old chair as it ever was.

Individuals in their struggle for selfinterest instinctively combined. They protected their interests, whether they were capitalists or laborers. And as all is "fair in war," the morals of trade necessarily suffered when industry became a war between organized labor and organized capital over the products of their combined industry. The notion that every individual should vote for his own interests, that so the interests of all may be secured, has brought back a corruption into government almost as sordid as that which had been scourged out of government. Law in a commercial age is naturally first of all a bulwark of property, and the courts, instinctively defenders of property, have leaned toward the side of Privilege because it was the pre-The press has rogative of property. become a great property, and so the defender of property privileges.

¹ The Menace of Privilege. A Study of Dangers to the Republic from the Existence of a Favored Class By Henry George, Jr. The Macmillan Company, New York 760

university, more concerned with the history of the past than with plans for the future, has been by its very nature conservative; and conservatism in a commercial age means protection of Privi-The Church, for reasons not quite easy to understand, has become the institution of the commercial classes, and "like people like priest" has made the Church sometimes the advocate of the commercial classes and generally timid in rebuke of its iniquities. Even in Hebrew history we recall only one Nathan who said to the king to his face, "Thou art the man." Never was a falser notion than the notion that a free conflict of self-interests would secure purity in government or peace or prosperity in industry.

And yet Privilege holds no such vantage-ground in this beginning of the twentieth century as it held in the close of the eighteenth. Then it was backed by the Church; now the worst that can be said of the Church is that it is too often either silent or unintelligent. Then the only public opinion which was recognized and the only conscience which was educated supported Privilege; now both public opinion and the public conscience are either clamorous against it or doubtful about it. Once Privilege possessed all the powers of government, the people none; now the people possess all the

powers of government, and need only to know how to use them. Once neither pulpit, press, nor platform was free. Mr. George's "Menace of Privilege" published in the eighteenth century would have landed him in the Bastille; in England it would have landed him in Fleet Street or in the Tower of London. Meanwhile a century of education has taught us that we cannot protect our individual interests except by combinations, capitalistic, industrial, and political, which recognize that an injury to one is an injury to all and a benefit to one is a benefit to all.

As to remedies, we agree with Mr. George's first and we disagree with his second. Natural land values belong to the people, and they can and ought to be secured, at least measurably, to the people, by the simple method of what Mr. Shearman has well called "Natural Taxation." As to public highways, we would make the attempt to resume the value of the franchises so recklessly given away, by putting a legitimate taxation upon the possessors and operators of the railroads, and to secure the public administration for the public benefit by Governmental regulation enforced by public opinion. If this should fail, it will then be time enough to consider the experiment of Government ownership and administration.

Comment on Current Books

In his introduction to this Amaryllis at edition of what we believe the Fair was the sole novel written by Richard Jefferies, the English student and lover of nature, Mr. Edward Garnett declares that, although it is true that this is not a novel in the ordinary sense, and that critics have with touching unanimity said that Jefferies should have stuck to essays in natural history, it is nevertheless also true that " here will be found, united and mingled, the song of the wind and the roar of London, by those who do not bring the exacting eye of superiority to this most human book." So considered, the book may be found worthy of careful reading, although nothing could be more wooden and unnatural than the talk of some of the characters. (Amaryllis at the

Fair. By Richard Jefferies. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. \$1.50.)

Brown of Moukden

Mr. Herbert Strang, evidently from an intimate acquaintance with the country and people, has written a capital story for boys, in which several characters entangled in the late Russo-Japanese war figure. Brown of Moukden, an English merchant, suddenly disappeared under Russian auspices. His son, a bright lad, determined to save what he could of his father's property from Russian confiscation, and also to find where his father had been "deported." In the search a plot is uncovered which involves a pretty Polish girl, the daughter of a noble With all this material the clear head and clever

pen of the author make an admirable piece of work. (Brown of Moukden. By Herbert Strang. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. \$1.50.)

Warren Cheney, author of The Challenge "The Way of the North," knows his Alaska and the Russians there thoroughly. There is in this story a restrained dramatic intensity very grateful to the artistic sense. The fatal tide of the "draw" in the harbor of Lityua Bay is no more remorseless than the passion for revenge in the bereaved heart of the Russian priest. The beauty of the flower-covered hills in the hot summer is no purer or more true to nature than the simple yet perfect love between Ivan and Motrya. The mingling of abject superstition and hard common sense touched with humor in the Russian people offers the most inviting material to a skillful novelist. (The Challenge. By Warren Cheney. The Bobbs-Merrill Co., Indianapolis, Ind.)

We have received an interest-Easter Cards ing and artistic series of illuminated Easter cards bearing such titles as "Sorrow's Queen" and "Pasque-Flowers." The designs are in part adapted from old missal illustrations, and the designer, Mrs. Hugh L. Burleson, of Fargo, North Dakota, has evidently taken pains to make the designs appropriate to the season and to the individual text matter. Bishop Mann and Dean Burleson are the authors of the legends and poems on the cards. The price of these cards is thirty-five cents each, and they may be obtained from Messrs. E. P. Dutton & Co., Dodd, Mead & Co., or Edwin Gorham, of New York City.

Dr. Alexander Maclaren is Expositions of widely known in the British Holy Scripture and American churches as a gifted expository preacher. The present volume, containing some fifty discourses on subjects taken from the book of Genesis. begins a series intended to cover the entire Bible, in which the fruits of his lifelong study in the expository line are to appear. However one may dissent from Dr. Maclaren's occasionally non-critical valuation of his text, and notwithstanding his sometimes reading a lesson into instead of out of the text, he is an adept in unfolding the universal spiritual lessons which wait for the discerning eye throughout his field. (Expositions of Holy Scripture: Book of Genesis. Alexander Maclaren, D.D. A. C. Armstrong & Son, New York. \$1.25.)

The Genius The shadow of sad Russia stretches itself across this story, and the author, Margaret Potter, proves

herself quite capable of producing a finely conceived and well-executed picture of conditions in that land. The development, through much hardship, sorrow, and dark knowledge of the evil world, of the genius of a great musician, is traced from a boyhood sheltered by intense mother love, through youth and manhood open to the blasts of hatred and injustice, to a sad and hopeless end. The soul of the artist met disappointment, though the man achieved artistic suc-There is an irresistible fascination about the great gray land which captivates the imagination and proves an endless treasure to both writer and reader alike. (The Genius. By Margaret Potter. Harper & Brothers, New York. \$1.50.)

Grace Church in New York, at A Good the point where Broadway, till Shepherd then oblique to the meridian, turns into it and runs straight toward the pole star, may seem by its situation happily suggestive of the aim of these sermons by Dr. W. R. Huntington from its pulpit. The title of one of them, "Facing Inevitable Change," gives expression to the thought that seems to brood over others of themrecognition of change coupled with intentness on certainties unchangeable. Timely as they all are, some are especially so, as that on "The Afro-Americans," from the text, "Lo, the people shall dwell alone." The discourse from which the volume takes its title commemorates the late Frederic D. Huntington, the first Bishop of Central New York. (A Good Shepherd and Other Sermons. By William Reed Huntington, D.D. Thomas Whitaker, New York. \$1.25, net.)

This is one of the best among The Hill the many stories of English school life. Harrow-on-the-Hill is the scene where a lifelong friendship between two of the boys began. There was nothing conventional or easy in the attraction they felt for each other. One, the popular, handsome, wellborn son of a man high in state councils; the other, adoring the first with a boy's full sentiment, was a steady, rather plodding son of a widow, but nephew to a noted explorer, whose deeds were recorded high in Harrow's hall of fame. Socially the two boys were equal. In their individualities was the contrast that made, in the end, for friendship. One cannot doubt that the author, Horace A. Vachell, presents an accurate view of school life and influences. The robust, manly training given to English boys, when certain elements of brutality are eliminated, fits them to take their honored places all over the world as the molders of governmental policy, the uncompromising opponents of venality. Just

this sort of training did these Harrovians get, and some of them responded to it and were worthy. An admirable book for boys. (The Hill. By Horace A. Vachell. Dodd, Mead & Co., New York. \$1.50.)

Mr. Roberts is one of the ablest The Idlers of the latter-day group of English fiction writers, so far as regards clearness, directness, and tenseness of situation. But the present story seems to us deplorable, if not reprehensible, because it is cynical and too realistic in its presentation of viciousness and decadence in fashionable London society. It is true that the wrong-doers, and especially one woman whose character and conduct are utterly abominable, meet with disgrace and suffering in the end, so that the novel may be said in a way to carry a moral; but this does not seem to us to free the book from the charge that its influence would be bad rather than good. (The Idlers. By Morley Roberts. L. C. Page & Co., Boston. \$1.50.)

A romance set in an Ohio town a Judith half-century ago, during the lull between the Mexican War and the Civil War. The author, Grace Alexander, conveys to the reader the sense of the bygone customs and modes of thought, and she is ably seconded by the illustrations. It is a wholesome story of true love sacrificed to a high sense of honor and devotion to painful duty. While there is nothing startling in the plot, it is refreshing to read of men and women obedient to moral and religious principles, even though the novel-reader may smile and call them stiff and slow. (Judith. By Grace Alexander. The Bobbs-Merrill Company, Indianapolis, Ind.)

The Liberty of the Press

The very first amendment adopted for the Constitution of the United States was that which forbids Congress making any abridging the freedom of speech or of

law abridging the freedom of speech or of the press. What existed in this country before that time in regard to the freedom of the press is told in a most interesting and curious way in this monograph. The several chapters take up the question as it existed in Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, and the Southern colonies, while the conclusions reached in the final chapter show that at the close of the period under discussion there was really no liberty of the press as we now understand the term. How rigid the old practice was in Massachusetts may be seen by quoting the utterance of Governor Blackwell to the famous William Bradford. The latter having intimated that he had never heard any rule against his printing such things as he might desire, the Governor replied: "Sir, I am Imprimatur, and that you shall know. I will

bind you in a bond of £500, that you shall print nothing but what I allow of; or I shall lay you fast." (The Liberty of the Press in the American Colonies Before the Revolutionary War. By Livingston Rowe Schuyler, B.D., Ph.D. Thomas Whittaker, New York. \$1, net.)

A stirring tale of love Marcelle the Mad and adventure in the time of Charles the Bold and his father, the Duke of Burgundy. The author, Seth Cook Comstock, is able to sustain the appropriate historical tone and yet infuse much vigor into the scenes. Despotism, outlawry, injustice, cruelty, and loyal love and devotion go to the making of the romance. The closing scene is the sad procession of exiles leaving Liège at the harsh command of Charles. In this procession walk the hero, Sieur d'Orson, a former follower of Charles, and Marcelle the Mad, leader of the outlaws-absorbed in their mutual love. (Marcelle the Mad. By Seth Cook Comstock. D. Appleton & Co., New York. \$1.50.)

This "statistical study Heredity in Royalty in history and psychol-Adams Wood, of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, is a work of the first class in its department of research. Galton and others have maintained the predominating influence of heredity on character, but Dr. Woods has demonstrated it by a more rigorous scientific method; indeed, by several distinct methods, including the mathematical. He takes up what Galton avoided. the study of modern royal families, whose pedigrees, being traceable much farther than those of any other class, promise to yield the most conclusive settlement of the conflicting claims of heredity and environment to be the determining factor. The body of his work is a study of eight hundred and thirty-two characters belonging to the royal houses of eleven European countries. These individuals, men and women, distributed into ten grades of mental and moral worth, separately based on historical estimates, make out an indisputable case for the superior potency of heredity. At the same time they correct some popular impressions, especially as to the supposed evil effect of the intermarriage of persons near akin. The royal breed, taken as a whole, leads all others in Europe. "Where else could we take eight hundred interrelated names at random and find twentyfive world geniuses?" If genius for science and art is maintained through fewer generations than genius for government and war, it is because there is more intermarriage of the great governing families. The best in-

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heritable influence in Europe appears in the present royal family of Great Britain. Over a hundred portraits are introduced, in which there appears physical inheritance accompanying the mental. It appears also that there is a clear correlation of mental and moral qualities. Moral improvement tends to mental. The morally superior survive, and the inheritance of moral and mental excellence yields the optimistic augury of "the necessary progress of mankind." (Mental and Moral Heredity in Royalty. By Frederick Adams Woods, M.D. Henry Holt & Co., New York. \$3, net.)

The fact that seven vol-Novels of umes of novels and stories Edith Wharton by Mrs. Wharton have now been brought forth in a uniform and pleasing edition is simply another testimony of the fact that her work in fiction has been recognized by the general reading public as it deserves to be. One can hardly fail to notice, in looking over this set of books as a whole, that Mrs. Wharton's talent and power touch life and literature in a surprisingly varied number of ways, and that her ability is far from being restricted to a single class of subjects or to a single manner of writing. The illustration by Walter Appleton Clark is for the most part superior to that which appears in our day in novels. (The Novels of Edith Wharton. Uniform Edition. The Valley of The Descent of Man. Decision. The Greater Inclination. The House of Mirth. Crucial Instances. The Touchstone. Sanctuary. \$1.50 per volume for the first four; \$1.25 for the others. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York.)

Here we have an "Athanasius Sex and against the world, but in a no-Character torious rather than a noteworthy sense. The author, Otto Weininger, divides the female sex into the "mother type" and the "prostitute type," and in "the ethical point of view" places the latter "higher," regarding maternal love as "not true love ... not of moral origin." In his view woman "is merely non-moral." She is characterized by "shamelessness and heartlessness." Only man has a "share in ontological reality." "Women have no existence and no essence; they are not, they are nothing." It does not surprise us to be told that such a philosopher died by his own hand at the age of twenty-three. It does surprise us to find him taken seriously and even praised by newspapers in Germany, where his work

has passed through six editions. It is there said to be scientific, but his statement that "modern psychology is essentially womanish" is enough to stultify that claim. And now it has been thought worth while to put this preposterous charlatanry into an English dress! (Sex and Character. By Otto Weininger. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. \$3, net.)

Some Trinitarian
Forgeries
These "forgeries" consist in erroneous translations of Biblical texts.

Trinitarianism is, in the author's view, a "poisonous" and "bloody" doctrine. His argument is certainly handicapped by its rancor. But he makes some good points. Why should the Bible Society continue to print the famous passage about the Three Witnesses in heaven (I John v. 7), now universally acknowledged to be a late interpolation? (Some Trinitarian Forgeries Stated by a Monotheist. The Grafton Press, New York. \$1, net.)

Mr. Stratemeyer in his latest Under Togo boys' story takes some of his for Japan former characters to the Far East and places them, without much regard for probability, in the forefront of the Battle of the Sea of Japan, so that the reader at times wonders whether Admiral Togo or Larry Stryker was the real hero on that occasion. Like the author's other stories, this makes no pretense at literary finish but has action in abundance. It will probably please most boys. (Under Togo for Japan. By Edward Stratemeyer. Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Company, Boston. \$1.25.)

The third and fourth The Works of volumes of the Presi-Theodore Roosevelt dent's Addresses and State Papers of Theodore Roosevelt bring these papers down to the last Message of the President, December 5, 1905. We do not recall any other President whose state papers and public addresses have been of such a character as to call for publication in popular form for general reading. Roosevelt's intensity of conviction and popular sympathy, his masterful nature showing itself in his athletic style, and his high moral ideals combined with practical common sense, make these volumes valuable as literature as well as important as a part of the history of the country. We cannot understand how the publishers should have given them to the public without any table of contents. (P. F. Collier & Son, New York.)

Letters to The Outlook

SHIP SUBSIDIES

When you speak of the important bill for the restoration of the American merchant marine, which has just passed the National Senate, as "totally vicious in principle," you use strong and bitter language, and I think you owe those American citizens who differ with you the privilege of a temperate reply.

Let us take a specific instance: There are no American steam lines, no regular and efficient communication of any kind, between our ports and the chief ports of South America. American Ministers, consuls, merchants, and travelers unite in declaring that we can never have adequate trade with our neighbors until we offer transportation facilities equally as good as those provided through national aid by Europe. President Roosevelt, who approves this shipping bill and urges its immediate passage by the House of Representatives, says significantly in his recent message to Congress:

It cannot but be a source of regret and uneasiness to us that the lines of communication with our sister republics of South America should be chiefly under toreign control. It is not a good thing that American merchants and manufacturers should have to send their goods and letters to South America via Europe it they wish security and despatch.

The chief British steamship service to South America was created by a subsidy of \$1,350,000 a year—and another subsidy of \$200,000 has lately been given to create a new British cargo line to the West Indies. All the maritime world has found that regular and efficient steam communication cannot be secured at first without national assistance. Germany of recent years has given a subsidy of \$1,330,000 to a new line to Asia and Austria. Italy, France, and Japan subsidize everything afloat. The United States is the only nation which leaves its ocean carrying to the chance, half-hearted work of foreigners.

A majority of Congress agrees with President Roosevelt that this is "not a good thing "-that it is "a source of regret and uneasiness." The Outlook, on the other hand, protests that National aid to mail lines and to cargo ships, after the fashion of the pending bill, is "totally vicious in principle."

Is it "vicious" to offer a subvention of \$300,000 for an American steam line to Brazil, and \$375,000 for a line to Argentina?

Is it "vicious" to grant aid to lines of cargo ships, which, in the words of President Roosevelt, "are of even more importance

can be depended upon to furnish swift auxiliary cruisers in time of war "?

Is it "vicious" for the United States to endeavor to provide for its merchants, manufacturers, and farmers mail and freight facilities on the great trade routes of the world at least equally as good as those provided for their foreign rivals by the subsidies of foreign governments?

Is it "vicious"—" totally vicious in principle "-for the United States to seek by National subventions to create a naval reserve of auxiliary ships and seamen, the lack of which has just helped to ruin Russia and the possession of which has helped to save Japan?

On sober second thought, is it not manifest that The Outlook, in its hatred of protection. ism, has urged the free-trade theory to its reductio ad absurdum? If Great Britain can consistently expend \$1,500,000 a year on steamship subsidies to South America, cannot the United States, whose national rights and interests there are far larger, spend at least half as much? Nor can the terrible Dingley tariff be invoked—for while the British Government "taxes" South American coffee and cocoa, 98 per cent. of our imports from Brazil and more than 80 per cent. from all South America are free of duty.

> HARVEY D. GOULDER, President the Merchant Marine League.

[The Outlook did not say that the bill in question was totally vicious. What it did say was this: "The Outlook has repeatedly recorded its belief that the theory that the whole people may be taxed to provide bounties tor a comparative few carrying on one particular business is totally vicious in principle, and here reasserts the belief and applies it to the measure now in question." To any one who reads the entire paragraph it is perfectly obvious that the application to the bill did not include disapproval of mail contracts in which the service rendered is a fair return for money paid, nor for other payments in which there is a direct and positive compensatory advantage, nor was the question of a naval auxiliary reserve touched upon.-THE Editors.]

STREET RAILWAYS: BOSTON AND GLASGOW

In view of the great discussion that has been recently taking place in regard to municipal operation and ownership of street than fast mail lines, save so far as the latter a railways, I would like to give a few figures

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comparing the street railways in Boston and Glasgow. These cities have a population of, roughly, 600,000 and 790,000, respectively. Thus Glasgow is almost a quarter again as large as Boston. In Glasgow the street railways are owned and operated by the city, and in Boston they are owned and operated by private corporations, with the exception of the subways, which are owned by the city and operated and leased by private corporations.

In Glasgow there are 150 miles of track, 682 cars, and 132,557,724 passengers carried each year. In Boston 440 miles of track, 4,594 cars, and 241,681,945 passengers carried each year. By this it is seen that Glasgow does not know anything about a large line. It is also seen that Glasgow should make a large profit when she carries so many passengers on such a small scale. The above figures were taken in the same year for both cities-and, although they may not be absolutely accurate, they are very nearly so, and the conclusions which I shall draw will not be affected by any inaccuracies which may exist. Boston runs lines which do not pay now, but which the company believes will pay when the suburbs build up, the new roads helping to build them up. Boston also runs cars ten miles into the country, Glasgow only about five. It has been said that the Glasgow fares are cheaper. The fares are I cent for half a mile, 2 cents for 21/2 miles, 3 cents for 31/2 miles, 4 cents for 4½ miles, 5 cents for 6 miles, 6 cents for 7 miles, etc. In Boston the fare is 5 cents for any distance—the maximum being 10 to 21 miles. Besides, the purchasing power of a halfpenny (cent) is greater than the purchasing power of a cent here. Taking all things into consideration—the purchasing power of a cent, etc.—we find the fares are higher in Glasgow. One result of the differences in the systems is that travel and moving to the suburbs is much greater in this country than in England. Mr. Donald, in his article in The Outlook for June 17, 1905, on "Municipal Ownership of Street Railways in Glasgow," states that "British people have not acquired the traveling habit to the same extent as Americans. A larger number of people want to travel a mile than to go five miles; but, unless the fares were low for short distances, British people would not take the cars." This may be so, and may be the reason for the city not extending its lines into the suburbs and trying to build them up. But the result of the differences in the systems is that we disperse our population while they do not. In 1891 33 per cent of Glasgow's population was living in one-room tenements. At the same time in Boston only 11/2 per cent. lived in one-room tenements. It can readily be seen that this has an important effect upon the health and morals of a city. It is well known that private corporations will take chances that the Government and city will not-as in extending lines out into distant suburbs with the hope of building them up and making the line eventually profitable. Few cities would agree to build railways which would have to be run without profit for a number of years, in hope of future profit. This is the difference between railroads in the United States as compared with railroads owned and operated by the Governments of a country abroad as Germany. In the United States corporations have built railroads hoping in time to develop the resources of the country, looking for future profits.

The reason I have not compared the Glasgow street railways with street railways of another English city owned and run by private companies is that under the conditions imposed in England on private companies hardly any one could run tramways.

This article is written to show a grave fault. In Glasgow doubtless the employees are better paid and have shorter hours than in Boston. But is it not better for us to have our population spread out through the suburbs and have private companies run our street cars, charging a uniform fare for either a long or short distance, than to have our population congested in the city, with the city operating the cars, and charging fares to suburbs so high as to be nearly prohibitory? R.

[Cambridge, Massachusetts.



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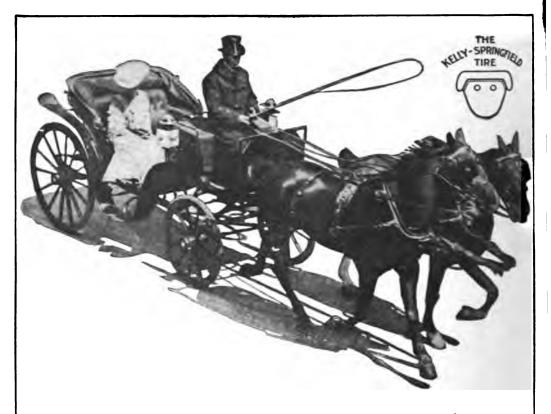
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The Outlook

Volume 82

Saturday, April 7, 1906

Number 14

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THE OUTLOOK is a Weekly Newspaper and an Illustrated Monthly Magazine in one. It is published every Saturday—fifty-two issues a year. The fourth issue in each month is an Illustrated Magazine Number, containing about twice as many pages as the regular weekly issue, and many pictures.

PRICE.—The subscription price is Three Dollars a year, payable in advance. Ten cents a copy.

POSTAGE IS PREPAID by the publishers for all subscriptions in the United States, Hawaiian Islands, Philippine Islands, Guam, Porto Rico, Tutuila (Samoa), Shanghai, Canal Zone, Cuba, Canada, and Mexico. For all other countries in the Postal Union add \$1.56 for postage.

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The Outlook

SATURDAY, APRIL 7, 1906

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Suspension of Work in the Coal Mines

A widespread suspension of work in the bituminous and

anthracite coal mines of the country by members of the United Mine Workers of America was inaugurated last Monday by the National executive board of that organization. Upward of five hundred thousand mine employees are affected, and the suspension involves fifteen different coal-producing States. At this writing the prospects are that in the greater number of the bituminous coalmining States the suspension will be of short duration; while the situation as regards the early resumption of mining operations in the anthracite fields of Pennsylvania is clouded in uncertainty. The suspension in both the anthracite and bituminous mines is due to the fact that the agreements under which the men sold their labor expired on March 31 without representatives of the operators and mine workers being able to agree upon mutually satisfactory terms for a continuance of their relations. In the bituminous industry this disagreement marked the disruption, for the time being at least, of the Inter-State Joint Conference of the central competitive territory of Western Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois. This Conference had reassembled at Indianapolis on March 20, following President Roosevelt's request of the leaders of the operators and mine workers to try again to reconcile the differences which had resulted in their disagreement in January. But, as indicated in The Outlook of March 31, the operators' representatives split into two antagonistic factions, and their sharp discussion of the differences dragged the sessions of the joint conference up to March 29, when they finally adjourned sine die, without having come to an agree-

ment as to wages and conditions of employment in the mines of Western Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois, for the scale year beginning April 1. One faction of the operators, led by Mr. Francis L. Robbins, of the Pittsburg Coal Company, who practically controls the production of the Western Pennsylvania field, favored granting to the mine workers a restoration of the wage reduction of five and one-half per cent, which the miners had accepted in 1904, and which President Mitchell offered to the joint convention as the miners' compromise proposition. But the larger number of operators in Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois, led by Mr. J. H. Winder, President of the Sunday Creek Coal Company, refused to agree to any concessions whatsoever to the mine workers, and stood out to the very last session for a continuance of the scale of wages in force the past two Upon the adjournment of the joint convention without an agreement, the United Mine Workers of America reassembled their special National Convention, and outlined a policy in the emergency. Inasmuch as a number of the operators were willing to grant the demands of the mine workers, although it was contrary to the custom of the organization to sign agreements separately with the districts in the central competitive territory, President Mitchell in this instance advocated the policy of entering into separate contracts with all operators who were willing to grant for two years a restoration of the wage scale of 1903. It is this policy which may prevent the suspension inaugurated the first of the week in the soft-coalproducing States from developing into a long-drawn-out and widespread strike. It is believed that most if not all of the operators of the central competitive territory and of the other soft-coal-producing

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States will within a short time sign agreements embodying the compromise wage increase.

The Mining Suspension and the Consumer

In the anthracite industry the operators are ar-

operators are arrayed solidly against the demands of the United Mine Workers for higher wages and shorter work days for the anthracite mine employees. Nor is there any prospect at this writing that they will recede from the sweeping refusal of all these demands contained in the reply of the anthracite-carrying railroad presidents made public on March 11. Nevertheless, another conference of the two committees of operators and mine workers began its sessions in New York on Tuesday of this week in response to a request of President Mitchell for a further consideration of the wage scale in the anthracite fields. At the same time, through the committee appointed by the Shamokin convention of last December, which is representing the anthracite employees in the conferences with the operators, President Mitchell ordered a suspension of work on Monday of this week by all anthracite mine workers other than those necessary to man the pumps and preserve the properties, "inasmuch as after April 1 there will be no contract or agreement between anthracite miners and operators." President Baer characterizes this order as "most extraordinary." Despite efforts on the part of the mine superintendents in the three fields to offset the force of the suspension order and to keep their mines in operation as usual, the mine workers throughout the entire region quit work pending the result of the New York conference. If this fails to enter into an agreement to take the place of the award of the Anthracite Coal Strike Commission which expired on Saturday of last week, the present suspension is likely to develop into a strike affecting seriously the annual production of anthracite coal and again plunging the country into a repetition of the direful experiences of 1902, when the anthracite employees were on strike for nearly six months. In the meantime the retail coal dealers in some of the large Eastern cities like New

York and Philadelphia have already begun to advance the prices of the different sizes of anthracite, an action which, in view of all the factors, The Outlook regards as indefensible. The cost of coal per ton has not yet advanced to these retail dealers, and yet they are already beginning to take advantage of the consumer's fears as to the supplying of his fuel necessities. Such extortion, along with the growing conviction among many that the price of anthracite to the consumer is already too high, should be an incentive for the consumers as a class to begin action looking to the protection of their interests. As long as the mine workers were weak and defenseless in the absence of a strong organization, we have seen how they were exploited by the operators through low wages, in extortionate prices for powder, through the "company" store, by means of systems or methods of mining and docking, and by various other schemes of exploitation whose operation has been checked through the mine workers organizing for their self-protection. From the exploitation of the wage-earner the producers of coal have the past three years turned to the exploitation of the unorganized and defenseless consumer by increasing the price of coal. Justice and fair dealing cry out against a continuance of such intolerable conditions. The present interest of the public in the coal mine labor situation and a continuance of extortionate prices for anthracite should be an incentive to efforts for the protection of the consumer.

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In a speech the Is the Hepburn Bill other day at Hart-Comprehensible? ford, President Mellen, of the New York, New Haven, and Hartford Railway, declared that there is not one man in fifty but believes the purpose of the Hepburn Bill, now pending in the United States Senate, is to put a stop to rebates and discriminations. Mr. Mellen added that not one man in fifty has either read the bill or comprehends what it contemplates. Mellen admitted, however, that railway power is certainly too great to be permitted longer to be exercised in the public interest without more restraint. "Directors do not always direct, officials are not always competent, power long exercised makes men offensive, autocratic, and arbitrary, and stockholders, employees, and the public suffer and pay the bill." But—

Our transportation interests are so vast, their power for good or evil so tremendous, and the public has so great an interest, that it should never permit such power to rest in the hands of any set of men except under carefully guarded restraints as to the exercise of that power. . . . What the effect would have been upon the business of this country had the present Inter-State Commerce Commission possessed the authority it is so urgently seeking at the present time, with the record of above ninety-five per cent. of its contested decisions reversed by the courts, can better be imagined than described.

President Roosevelt, said Mr. Mellen, advised of wrongs perpetrated by carriers, wishes to prevent the possibility of their recurrence. "In this purpose we should all hold up his hands and give him our support, and no one is more loyally disposed to do his utmost than myself." The speaker recommended, therefore, legislation to eliminate preferences and discriminations and to require the frequent examination of books, records, and accounts. When he reads the Hepburn Bill, however, nominally prepared for such purposes, he finds therein little to do away with rebates and discriminations which existing laws, if enforced, may not successfully accomplish: the bill seems to Mr. Mellen mainly directed to securing authority to interfere in the carriers' management. For instance, the bill contains a provision intended to force the carriers to contract among themselves for through routes.

The carriers are compelled by their charters to carry persons and property at reasonable rates, and they have spent their money to put themselves in position thus to do, but they are under no obligations beyond their own lines, and I do not believe that there is any warrant in equity or justice in attempting to assume a liability beyond their charter limits.

Perhaps the New York and New Haven Company is somewhat sensitive regarding any through-route proposition; allowing for terminal charges, if its rates were as low proportionately as those of its con-

necting lines, New England would enjoy a different railway tariff system than it now has. President Mellen declares with greater justification that the bill not only "prescribes the accounts, records, or memoranda to be kept by the carriers;" it also provides that "any carrier who keeps any other books, accounts, or memoranda than prescribed by the Commission is guilty of a misdemeanor and subject to fine or imprisonment, or both, in the discretion of the Court." The warrant for this is, of course, as Mr. Mellen admitted, the desire of the Commissioners not to have a carrier appear before them with any data other than that in their possession, from which conclusions may be drawn contrary to their own. However, complained the speaker,

Of what possible advantage is it to the public that a carrier should be prohibited from keeping such accounts, records, and memoranda of its business as may appeal to its officers as an advantage in keeping a check upon and record of its operation, so long as all records are kept that the Commission may desire?



Senator Knox on Railway Rate Regulation

President Mellen's criticism on the lack of a

specific judicial review clause in the Hepburn Bill was emphasized last week by a notable speech in the United States Senate from Mr. Knox, of Pennsylvania. It attracted an audience which tested the capacity of the Senate Chamber to the utmost, to listen to one who as Attorney-General had brilliantly and successfully conducted a case in the Supreme Court of "the people versus the corporations," namely, the Government's case against the Northern Securities Company. the first time in many years a Pennsylvania Senator brought his State up to a level with the highest position held by other States-Wisconsin, for instance, as represented by Mr. Spooner. Knox holds that "the power to fix railway rates is a legislative power, and that, when the legislature has laid down a rule for the establishment of rates, its application to specific cases is a matter of administration which may be delegated to a commission." The Inter-State Commerce Commission, now without power to enforce its orders, should have the right to declare what should be a just, reasonable, and fairly remunerative rate in place of the one declared to be unreasonable, the order to "take effect in such reasonable time as shall be prescribed by the Commission, . . . and should be final, subject only to attack for unlawfulness in the Federal courts." "Railways have a constitutional right to just compensation for services rendered," and cannot be deprived of that right. "An act which prevents a judicial review . . . of the question of the reasonableness of an order of the Commission would deprive the carriers of this constitutional right, and would therefore be unconstitutional." Mr. Knox's ground for his belief that the bill as it stands deprives the railroads of their constitutional rights is difficult to understand. Apparently, however, he argues that the only way by which a test case can reach the court after a decision by the Inter-State Commerce Commission is to have the railway continue its condemned rate and have the shipper appeal to the court to sustain the rate made by the Commis-In our judgment, this method would be placing a very unfair burden upon the shipper; and it is, as Mr. Knox correctly states, practically prohibited by the Hepburn Bill. For, under the terms of the bill, any railroad which persists in maintaining a rate contrary to the order of the Commission shall be fined five thousand dollars for each offense, and for a continued offense, five thousand dollars a day. Senator Knox does not, it seems to us, however, make it clear why the burden may not, under the bill as it stands, rest upon the carrier, who, while obeying the order of the Commission as to the new and lower rate, may sue the individual shipper for what the carrier deems to be a just balance due on freight charges. Discussing the differences which have thus far prevented agreement between those who demand and those who oppose a specific provision for a court review, Mr. Knox declared that-

Both sides agree that the right should exist; one holds that it is in the bill or exists independently; the other that it is not in the bill, but should be; and yet the former, for some

mysterious and unaccountable reason, objects to an amendment which would place the mat-ter beyond doubt. When we consider that the people are asking for prompt, decisive, and effective action; that the present bill distinctly contemplates a review; that its constitutionality is seriously threatened by failure to provide for such review if the other features are to stand; that precedents of State legislation are in favor of a review; that all the bills presented in either house provide for or recognize a review; that this bill itself as presented in both houses, and as originally prepared by the Inter-State Commerce Commission, contained a provision for review, and that the President in his message speaks of the orders being subject to review-when we consider all these facts, the action of those who are willing to imperil the validity and effectiveness of this law by not explicitly providing for a review for no valid reason whatever, is to me incomprehensible.

Naturally, Mr. Knox discussed the section in his own bill which provides for a review by the courts of the Commission's orders, and argued against the suspension of those orders by interlocutory decrees without requiring a cash deposit or a bond to secure to the parties entitled to repayment the difference between the Commission's rate and the railway rate, if the former were sustained. As we have already said when Mr. Knox first made this proposition, if the words "or a bond" were omitted, we are inclined to believe that the proposition would expedite rather than delay the ultimate result. But as against the contentions of both Mr. Mellen and Mr. Knox it appears to us that the burdens involved in establishing and maintaining new rates should rest upon the railways and not upon the shipper.

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A Revised Chinese Exclusion Law Unless considerable public pressure is brought to bear upon individual Congress-

men, there is too much danger that the excellent Foster bill to regulate Chinese immigration will be defeated by the hostility of certain political influences of the Pacific Coast, and by some of the labor organizations. This bill, introduced by Representative Foster, of Vermont, last January, and understood to embody the views of President Roosevelt on Chinese exclusion, clearly and in our judgment

admirably draws a much-needed distinction between the Chinese laborer and the Chinese merchant, traveler, or student. It prohibits the immigration on any pretext of laborers, and says that that term shall be "construed to mean both skilled and unskilled manual laborers, including Chinese employed in mining, fishing, huckstering, peddling, laundering, or those engaged in taking, drying, or otherwise preserving shell or other fish for home consumption or exportation;" it protects laborers now legally living in the United States, and provides that in any arrest, hearing, or trial the Chinese laborer accused of illegally coming into the country shall be entitled to all the rights and privileges provided by the laws and constitution or enjoyed by the citizens or subjects of the most favored nation; it gives the Chinese seeking entry the right of appeal from the immigration officials to the United States courts; and it affirms that all Chinese persons not excluded under the act shall enjoy for the protection of their persons and property all the rights of travelers from the most favored nations, except the right of naturalization. Certainly this bill protects the Pacific Coast and the American laboring man as carefully as can be desired by the most timid believer in the "yellow peril." It also establishes the status of the Chinese coming to this country with a definiteness which the Chinese Government has been very reasonable in desiri It is useless to talk about the revival of our trade with China or the education of Chinese as engineers, army and naval officers, merchants, and statesmen in the United States until the Foster bill or a similar one is passed.

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The Senate

Senator Lodge's recent speech in defense of the Senate was timely, but it is unfortunate that it did not meet more specifically certain charges against the Senate which are regarded by a great mass of sober people as proven, and have sensibly diminished the regard in which that body is held. Of the presence of a number of men of ability and integrity in the Senate there is no question; but it is a

great misfortune that a body which is in the habit of regarding itself as the most important legislative body in the world should have had three of its members under indictment for felonies within two years; that it should count among its members a few men who are very gravely and for good reason distrusted by their fellow-citizens; that it includes altogether too many managers of political machines who control the entire political organization of their States; that a small group of Senators stand together too definitely for business in politicsthat is to say, for that "system" of interweaving business and political interests which more than any other single thing has corrupted and lowered the tone of our public life; that it is altogether too intent on maintaining and widening its own privileges, and that it has expanded this power in the matter of appointments beyond the limits intended by the Constitution on the one hand, while it has encroached, on the other hand, on the functions of the House of Representatives. These are grave charges; they are not to be lightly dismissed. The country has seen one treaty after another, carefully worked out by the State Department for the purpose of securing freer relations with other countries, shelved by the Senate—a body which, by reason of its important connection with the foreign policy of the country, and of its own assumption of power in that department, ought to have great regard for the higher and freer tendencies of American life, and ought to do everything in its power, by breadth of view and foresight, to cement relations between the United States and foreign countries by the application of a liberal policy. The feeling of the country in regard to the Senate was expressed by one of the most disinterested and able men in public life not long ago when he declared that every attempt on the part of recent Administrations to foster more friendly relations with other Powers was defeated by the captiousness and jealousy of certain Senators; and by another man of the first distinction in public life, who in various positions has had rare opportunity of knowing, when he said, "The United States Senate is a body of gentlemen whose chief interest is to preserve and enlarge their personal privileges." These are not captious criticisms; they represent the opinion of a very considerable body of Americans who are distressed by the popular feeling toward the Senate, but who believe that the only way to change that feeling is, not to defend the Senate in speeches, but to remove the causes of popular suspicion. In our judgment, nothing can more effectively remove these causes than the election of Senators by popular vote, thus making them directly answerable to their constituents; and there is strong reason to believe that public opinion is gradually but unmistakably coming to this conclusion.

Important steps were The Preservation taken last week at of Niagara Falls Washington in the campaign for the preservation of Niagara The report of the American Section of the International Waterways Commission was sent to Congress on Tuesday, with a special message from President Roosevelt, together with letters from the Secretary of State and the Secretary of War, including memoranda showing what has been attempted by the Department of State in the effort to secure the preservation of the Falls by treaty. The report of the Commission recites that "the total quantity of water to be taken from the river by works now authorized is 60,900 cubic feet per second. Of this amount 26,700 cubic feet is to be taken on the American side. and the remainder, 34,200 cubic feet, on the Canadian side. That is, 27 per cent. of the average discharge and 33 per cent. of the low-water discharge of the Niagara River will cease to pass over the Falls when these works are completed and in full operation. The quantity to be diverted is more than double the quantity which now passes over the American Falls, which at the average stage is about 27,800 cubic feet. That this will in general have an injurious effect upon the Falls seems selfevident." The recommendation is made by the Commission, and earnestly indorsed by the President, that legislation

be at once enacted containing the following provisions:

The Secretary of War to be authorized to grant permits for the diversion of 28,500 cubic feet per second, and no more, from the waters naturally tributary to Niagara Falls, distributed as follows: Niagara Falls Hydraulic Power and Manufacturing Company, 9,500; Niagara Falls Power Company, 8,600; Érie Canal or its tenants (in addition to lock service), 400; Chicago drainage canal, 10,000. All other diversion of water which is naturally tributary to Niagara Falls to be prohibited, except such as may be required fc: domestic use or for the service of locks in navigation canals. Suitable penalties for violation of the law to be prescribed. The foregoing prohibition to remain in force two years, and then to become the permanent law of the land, if in the meantime the Canadian Government shall have enacted legislation prohibiting the diversion of water which is naturally tributary to Niagara Falls, in excess of 36,000 cubic feet per second, not including the amounts required for domestic use or for locks in navigation canals.

The report fully recog-

An International

nizes the responsibil-Matter ity of the Nation for the preservation of Niagara Falls, and the significant sentence, "It is to be remarked that none of the diversions have been sanctioned by the United States Government," is a very definite hint that, in view of the position of the Niagara River as a navigable stream and as an international boundary, the Secretary of War has present authority to halt the diversion of water on the American side. There is also evidence that Canada is becoming aroused, not only to the impending scenic desecration, but to the more tangible fact that the power to be produced on the Canadian side has been principally sold for American use, leaving but little for home development. A proposition has been advanced at Ottawa to place an export tax upon such use, in order to provide for Canadian home development. It has been similarly suggested that an import duty might be imposed by Congress on electric power produced in Canada and transmitted to the United States, the basis of the tariff being the ostensible protection of Amer-All this points the necessity ican coal. of international consideration, which has been undertaken through the regular diplomatic channels,

Sensational newspa-The New York pers, case-hardened Insurance Situation politicians, and sensitive but unintelligent moralists have been doing all they could during the last two or three weeks to confuse the mind of the public concerning the insurance situation in the State of New York. " Judge" Andrew Hamilton, the "legislative agent" of the New York Life Insurance Company, who is generally believed to have fled the country to avoid crossexamination by the Armstrong Committee, has returned from Paris and has made a public statement before the Legislature full of scandal, imputation, and innuendo, but containing very little if any definite information, and absolutely no evidence not already brought out fully by the Armstrong inquiry. He defended all the monetary actions of the late John A. McCall, but implied that many of the trustees of the New York Life were guilty of dishonorable conduct. His speech was flamboyant and personal, and scarcely deserves notice except for the fact that it inflamed still more the anger of the public against the managers of the three great companies involved. In the meantime District Attorney Jerome had been preparing cases against individual insurance officials. As a result George W. Perkins, a member of the firm of J. Pierpont Morgan & Co., and recently Vice-President of the New York Life Insurance Company, was arrested last week on the charge of grand larceny, the specific act of alleged larceny being the payment of about fifty thousand dollars for the New York Life to the Republican National campaign fund of 1904. Jerome, in spite of much newspaper clamor, is right in asserting that this arrest should be regarded as purely tech-Its purpose is to find out from the Court of Appeals whether campaign contributions made by corporations are The proposed Armcriminally illegal. strong legislation will make them so, but certainly such contributions have been so general in the past as to raise the question whether they have been considered by the courts as illegal, although the public conscience now regards them as totally pernicious and desires to have them defined hereafter as criminal. In

the face of much violent discussion of Mr. Perkins's character, Mr. Jerome's motives, Mr. McCall's supposed martyrdom, and various other personal incidents, it is wise to keep the mind clearly fixed on the real accomplishments of insurance reform so far. The three great companies involved have been proved to be rich and solvent—thus their policy-holders are at least in a safe situation; the public conscience has been aroused and standards of financial morality and honor have been distinctly raised; many insurance trustees and officers have been shown to be grossly blunt in their moral perceptions and to have ethically if not criminally violated their trusts; some of them have been terribly although justly punished by society; the law has been set in operation for their legal punishment if they have broken the law; and, lastly and most important of all, expert and carefully framed legislation is in process of discussion at Albany to provide against the repetition of the evils exposed by the investigation. We advise our readers to keep their eyes fixed on Senator Armstrong and the Legislature and not permit themselves to be turned aside from the main work of insurance and corporation reform by attacks, either for reasons of personal revenge, class hatred, or journalistic sensation, upon individuals.

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The Armstrong Committee's Insurance Bills

The first of the insurance bills intro-

duced by the Armstrong Committee passed both Houses of the New York Legislature last week without a dissenting vote in either body. The bill provides that the terms of office of all the directors of the mutual life insurance companies in New York State shall expire on November 15 next, when the annual meeting of each company shall be held for the election of a new board. new boards of directors shall at once elect new officers of their corporations. The bill will affect the New York Life Insurance Company, the Mutual Life, the Security Mutual, and the Mutual Reserve Life. It was pushed through the Legislature in advance of the other bills in order to forestall the annual meetings of the New York Life and the Mutual Life, which would have been held this month. The present boards of directors of these companies will now continue in office until November 15. Provision is made for elections held under the supervision of the Superintendent of Insurance, with three policy-holders of each company, appointed by him, acting as inspectors of election. proxies secured prior to September 15 of this year shall be valid for voting at these elections. By this provision and by making a complete sweep of the present managements of these companies the Legislature has given to the policy-holders every opportunity of securing control of the companies. The Committee, after a careful consideration of the suggestions and objections made by the insurance interests, presented the revised draft of its other bills to the Legislature last week. The most important provisions are retained unaltered—publicity of accounting, the prohibition of political contributions and secret lobbying, the limitation of the amount of new business, the prohibition of deferred dividends, and the elimination of stock investments—and the only changes in other respects are in details rather than in principle. section providing for a contingency reserve fund is so modified as to increase the percentage of the value of their policies which companies having more than \$75,000,000 of insurance outstanding may retain; it also permits them to maintain a special reserve fund, with the consent of the Superintendent of Insurance, to meet some anticipated emergency or fluctuation in value; provided, however, that this consent is obtained annually. The much-criticised provisions for the limitation of the amount that may be spent in obtaining new business and of the commissions paid to agents have been made more definite and more liberal, and it is asserted that the objections of the companies and the agents have been satisfactorily met. In the matter of investments a single concession is made, in the provision that companies now holding collateral trust bonds are permitted to retain them, although no others may be purchased in the future. The bills, in their present form, seem to The Outlook not only admirable in spirit, but skillfully planned to preserve the best in the life insurance business as it now is, and to make it safer, stronger, and more equitable. The Committee, throughout its labors, has steadfastly kept in mind the principle that in life insurance the interests of the policyholder (which are inseparable from those of the beneficiary) are paramount; and their recommendations for legislation have been framed with the single end in view of conserving this principle.



Mayor Weaver's appoint-In Philadelphia ments to the Civil Service Board under the Gable Civil Service Bill give assurance of an efficient, sympathetic, thoroughgoing establishment of the merit system in Philadelphia. old Philadelphia machine under Durham and McNichol thrived because of its practically unlimited control of the municipal patronage. After Mayor Weaver's break with the "organization" he placed the Hon. Frank M. Riter in charge of the civil service system as it then existed. The laws under which he had to work were inadequate and the rules equally so, but through his public spirit and persistency he brought order out of chaos and has given to the city an admirable Mayor Weaver and the administration. Civil Service Reform Association, however, feeling that the condition depended too much upon one man, united in asking the Legislature to give the force and effect of law to the work which Mr. Riter had inaugurated. The Legislature responded with the Gable Civil Service Law, which was satisfactory alike to the Mayor and to the Association. It is a complete and comprehensive act providing for the appointment by the Mayor of a Civil Service Commission composed of three men, with five years' term of office. It requires the appointments of candidates from the four highest on the eligible list and a probationary period of three months. The exempt class is reduced to the lowest possible minimum, and every safeguard which experience has demonstrated to be necessary has been thrown around appointment to office. Political considerations are excluded, and

the old-time "pull" of local politicians and bosses eliminated. Moreover, no person can be transferred to any position subject to a competitive examination unless he shall have previously passed an open competitive examination equivalent to that required for such position. The Commissioners appointed by Mayor Weaver were Mr. Riter, who was made President of the Board; Cyrus D. Foss, Ir., son of Bishop Foss of the Methodist Church, and Secretary during the past year of the City Committee of the City party; and Dallas Sanders, a Democrat of independent proclivities. All three men believe in the merit system, and may be depended upon to give satisfactory administration of the law. Weaver is making a strenuous effort to complete the filtration plant in Philadelphia, work upon which has been suspended for months past to enable the experts to investigate the character of work already done and the charges of graft and corruption in connection with its construction. Major Gillette, of the Engineering Corps of the regular army, has charge of the investigation. The Mayor was anxious to have him receive a leave of absence to enable him to complete the plan, but the manipulation of Senator Penrose and his followers in the Congress defeated this proposition; whereupon Major Gillette resigned his commission in the army to accept the position of Chief of the Filtration Bureau. and from now on will give his entire time to completing the work. In the meantime there is renewed talk of prosecutions in connection with the matter. The old contracts with McNichol and Durham have been annulled, and new ones will shortly be made. The Philadelphia "Press" pointed out that the charge of forgery against former Superintendent Hill failed because the trial judge ruled that the change of the records by the engineer with the approval of his superior officer was not a forgery. however, did not give a clean bill of health to the filtration business, as the report of the experts showed that the city paid \$18,000,000 for what should have cost \$12,000,000, and the people of the city are burdened with the difference.

Springfield, Ohio, has no A Travesty on cause for complaint if it Justice is hereafter known as a lawless community. It is bad enough that the city has permitted the existence within its borders of the "Jungle," a notorious neighborhood abounding in vice and disorder; it is worse that the city has permitted, twice within almost exactly two years, an irresponsible mob of boys and roughs to burn and smash saloons and hovels; but it is disgraceful beyond words for the community, acting in its corporate capacity as a dispenser of justice, to treat such an occurrence flippantly. That is exactly what Springfield, Ohio, has done. Of the boys arrested and put on trial for rioting several were convicted. Eight of the jurors petitioned that the penalty be one dollar fine and costs for each offender. Some of these jurors offered to pay the fines themselves. If there could be any surer method of bringing ridicule upon criminal proceedings, it is apparently unknown in Springfield, Ohio. If American liberty is in danger, it is from the lax government and disregard for law of which Springfield, Ohio, has now on two occasions given an almost incredible exhibition. The whole matter was so palpable a travesty of justice that the judge before whom the case was tried, rather than be a party to it, remitted the fines altogether.

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No more revolution-The Germ of an ary bill has been English Revolution introduced into the British Parliament for years than the Land Tenure Reform Bill accepted by the Liberal Government. If passed, it may mean the beginning of an upheaval in the whole English economic and social structure. Its appearance, however, is mild. In England the word "farmer" implies the word "tenant." The English farmer does not cultivate his own land, but the land of another. The American farmer who improves his farm enriches himself; the English farmer who improves the land enriches his landlord. The English farmers, therefore, belong to a dependent class. This bill would enable them to take a first step

toward independence. It provides that a dispossessed farmer shall be adequately recompensed for the permanent improvement he has made in the farm he has rented. This provision, of course, tends to security of tenure, as do other provisions of the bill, such as those prohibiting the eviction of tenants for religious or political views, allowing compensation for damage done to crops by game which the tenant is forbidden to kill. and the like. This measure has been dubbed "the farmers' charter." announcement of the fact that the British Government is ready to take up the land question, which lies at the bottom of all of England's economic perplexities. It is noteworthy that Mr. Agar-Robartes, who introduced the bill, belongs to the landlord class, for he is heir to a peerage. In connection with this bill, the statement made by Mr. Asquith, Chancellor of the Exchequer, to a deputation from a conference of taxing authorities, is important. He announced his belief in two principles:

The first is that those who specially benefit by public improvements should contribute their fair share to them; and the next is that it is right and just that the community should reap the benefit of increased values which are due to its own expenditure or its own growth.

These, of course, are the principles upon which the "single tax" is based. If they form a part of the Liberal platform, the Liberal party is committed to as far-reaching a reform as ever was undertaken in England. Its method may not be "single tax," but its object must be just as radical. In the case of this bill the Government takes the position that the increase in the value of land belongs, not to the man who owns the land, but to the man who creates the increased value. From this there is but one step to the position that the increase in value of land due to the growth of a community belongs, not to the owner of the land, but to the community, and therefore may justly be appropriated by the community. The London "Spectator" expresses the conservative view of this bill by its words of caution: "It must never be forgotten that injudicious legislation might impose an intolerable burden on the landlords." The obvious retort is that if equitable conditions are hopelessly obstructed by the landlord system, then that system ought to go.



Last week throughout Rus-The Russian sia elections took place for **Elections** choosing electors who in turn are to choose the members of the Duma or lower house of the Russian . Parliament. The first session of the first Russian Parliament is convoked for May 10; the date should be a notable one in Russian annals. members of the Duma are to be elected by provincial congresses composed of representatives now being elected by four classes of voters—the muzhiks, or peasants, who have attained a certain standing; the industrials, or wage-earners, who have worked at least six months in an establishment employing not less than fifty men; landowners who represent a certain amount of property, varying from a large amount in the north to a comparatively small amount in the south (the possession of vast estates, however, does not entitle the landowner to more than one vote); finally, the urban population, as distinct from the industrials. In the last-named division. however, certain cities, like St. Petersburg, Moscow, and Odessa, elect a number of representatives directly, instead of by the provincial congresses. Last week's record would indicate that the urban population of the St. Petersburg district had given its vote almost entirely to the Constitutional Democrats, who have thus apparently made good their claim to be "a party that does something" (a claim vigorously denied by the revolutionaries). At the head of the Constitutional Democratic ticket stands Professor Miliukov, well known here as a lecturer at the University of Chicago. As their name implies, the Constitutional Democrats favor a constitutional monarchy on a democratic basis, universal suffrage, and local selfgovernment. Evidencing aggressive vigor, the elected delegates from this party have already pledged themselves to demand that the Duma shall hold the Premier, Count Witte, personally respon-

sible for any act of repression committed

since the publication of the Imperial Freedom Manifesto, October 30, 1905. The only provincial election which has so far taken place is that of the province of Kostroma; it is interesting to note that three priests, six professional men, eighteen merchants, nineteen noblemen, and no less than forty-six muzhiks were returned. The muzhik representation is likely to be more able and efficient than might be supposed, since, in great part, the muzhiks have chosen as delegates to the various provincial congresses the present village elders and members of the communal courts.

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As to the outlook for Par-The Russian liamentary legislation in Duma Russia, the chief ground for optimism lies in the fact that free speech has at last been granted, even if, in the Duma, such speech may not concern itself with certain subjects relating to obvious opportunities for bureaucratic "graft"—titles of nobility, entailed estates, charges of malfeasance, etc. Speech may also be checked by the provision that if the Czar rejects a bill passed by Parliament the subject is not to be brought forward again during the same session, and any bill rejected by one of the legislative bodies requires Imperial consent before being again introduced. To make good the lack of legislation, the Czar may promulgate temporary laws. He may also dissolve Parliament at will. Finally, the Cabinet is not to be responsible to the Duma; interpellations of Ministers are to be practically suppressed, and the power of impeachment is withheld. These restrictions are intensified by the necessarily conservative character of the Council of the Empire, the Upper House of Parliament, but not really a representative second chamber; it is not, of course, the old bureaucratic barrier long interposed between monarch and people in Russia, but it is still a barrier. On the other hand, the Duma may enter a few fields of legislation with the Council, from which further power may and should be obtained for the lower House matters relating to stock companies, to the State railways, to any alienation of State property or receipts, above all, to

jurisdiction over the budgets—whether of Ministers or of the Empire—and the report of the Imperial Comptroller. This sounds decidedly like the beginning of a change in the control of the power of the purse in Russia—the vital element in any parliament, and especially in any parliamentary lower house. Towards this conclusion foreign as well as domestic influence has been a factor. Despite the Finance Minister's recent statement that most of the large sums loaned last autumn by the Government to private banks have been repaid, that there is now a great increase in savings banks deposits and in popular confidence as to the Government's financial stability, the French bankers, who have been hitherto Russia's chief financial resource, have refused further advances unless Parliament shall ratify all former loans from foreigners and also the proposed new loans. avert collapse, Russia must shortly borrow a huge sum. Autocracy's necessity has been democracy's opportunity. France offers friendly help to democratic, but no longer to autocratic, Russia. is a notable tribute to the anticipated personnel of Russia's first Parliament that French bankers consider its guaranty a sufficient security for a new loan. Even if it had come about in no other way, out of Russia's financial crisis may be born, perforce, a constitutional Russia.

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Which Kind of Spirit Lost America to England? Bismarck once said that South Africa would be the grave of the British Em-

pire. That prophecy has not yet come true, though it was frequently quoted during the first year of the Boer War. South Africa will be the grave of the present British Cabinet, prophesy some of its opponents. In truth, since the advent of the new Ministry, many British South Africans have been positively exasper-In the Cape Colony indignation is expressed because of the recent resolution passed in the House of Commons, which really amounted to a censure of Viscount Milner, the late efficient High Commissioner for South Africa. In the Transvaal the British (not the Boers) resent the Imperial Cabinet's attitude regarding Chinese labor. And last week the Natal Cabinet resigned because of an alleged unwarrantable interference by the Imperial Government in Colonial affairs. Last February a party of police was engaged in collecting the native Armed natives resisted the poll tax. collection and killed some British offi-The native outbreak became so serious that martial law was declared. Order was restored only after a punitive expedition of several hundred carbineers with artillery had been despatched to the scene of the trouble. The tribe which had made the greatest disturbance was condemned to lose part of its territory, to pay a fine of twelve hundred cattle and thirty-five hundred sheep and goats, while of the natives arrested and court-martialed twelve were sentenced to be shot. At the court, composed of five militia officers, the prisoners were legally represented. The sentences were confirmed by the Governor and by the Natal Ministry. On this Lord Elgin, Colonial Secretary, cabled to the Natal Premier ordering a suspension of the executions pending a consideration of the sentences by the Imperial Government, contending, it is assumed, that the offenses were committed before martial law was proclaimed, and that hence the prisoners ought to have been tried by a civil court. The Premier curtly refused to obey the order, but the Governor postponed the executions. Thereupon the Natal Ministry immediately resigned. The situation was certainly a delicate one. In Natal the indignant colonists held mass-meetings of protest against a procedure which, they claimed, would endanger the safety of the entire white population, not only of Natal, but of all South Africa. In England the general subject afforded each side opportunity to accuse the other of the kind of spirit which lost to England her American col-The only question would seem to be. Which kind? The contest was between anti-imperialists and imperialists rather than between Liberals and Conservatives, for there are imperialists in both of the great political parties. The antiimperialists, whose attacks have latterly been focused on Lord Milner, accused him of a spirit estranging the Boers and the natives by imperialistic methods akin to those made famous in our own history. On the other hand, the imperialists similarly denounced the spirit which would inspire the Government to interfere with the rights of free British colonists.

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Unlike the British Govern-The Crown ment a hundred and thirty and years ago, the present Gov-Martial Law ernment saw that it had unintentionally driven one of the most loyal colonies into well-nigh open revolt, and hence, with fidelity to the Liberal tradition of non-interference with Colonial authority, Lord Elgin cabled a despatch to the Governor of Natal saying that the Imperial Government never had any intention of interfering with the Government of Natal or of controlling the Governor in the exercise of his prerogative; in view of the presence of British troops in the colony, however, the Imperial Government was in duty bound to obtain precise information about martial law cases, with regard to which an act of indemnity must ultimately be assented to by the Crown; in the light of the information since furnished, the Imperial Government recognized that the decision of the matter rests in the hands of the Natal Governor and the Natal Cabinet. Commenting on this, even the Government supporters appear to find themselves hard pressed to justify Lord Elgin's first action, the "Chronicle" saying, "The Cabinet has shown good intentions but bad judgment." However this be, a comparison of the South African situation with that of the American colonies, whether stated by the imperialists or their opponents, seems to us misleading. In the present case it is true, as it was not true a hundred and thirty years ago, that certain British colonists are charged with oppressing those who have no other protector than the Imperial Government.

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Nefarious
Business
Some interesting and alarming facts have recently been brought out at a legislative hearing in Albany in regard to the giving away of dangerous drugs for the

purpose of disseminating a taste for them. At this hearing, and later in a signed article in the New York "Tribune," Mr. William Jay Schieffelin, one of the most prominent of the younger citizens of New York, declares that there are drug-stores which give away cocaine for the express purpose of creating customers for that dangerous drug, and that over twenty per cent. of the cocaine now manufactured in this country is used for illicit purposes. The "Tribune" calls attention editorially to evidence recently brought out that manufacturers of so-called catarrh cures which contain cocaine are distributing free samples of their preparations on the sidewalks in order to foster the cocaine habit, and that they are being successful in this nefarious business. It has long been known, and it has recently been established by indubitable proof, that many medicines which are advertised as free from alcohol contain large percentages of that substance, and that other medical preparations widely advertised and used contain opium, morphine, narcotic and other dangerous and sometimes poisonous drugs. Some of the preparations sold at the soda-water stands in drug-stores in all parts of the country and used in immense quantities are very deleterious to health. It is not too much to say that a large number of people are taking alcohol under other names, and that the practice of using dangerous drugs has become alarmingly prevalent. In view of these facts and of the widespread adulteration of drugs, the effort to secure the passage of a statute requiring manufacturers of all medical mixtures which contain alcohol, narcotics, or dangerous drugs, except those for external use, to affix in all cases a label which, in plain English, shall give the composition of the mixture and the percentage of dangerous elements used in it, ought to be crowned with success. It is difficult to imagine why any honest druggist should oppose it. It is unnecessary for a State to await the passage of a National Pure Food law before protecting its own citizens. Indeed, excellent as is the bill now before Congress, it cannot under the Constitution apply to other than inter-State commerce and importation from abroad. This is, therefore, a matter that needs drastic State legislation.

Chemistry and the World's Food

Under this title Professor Robert Duncan, whose article in

The Outlook on "Modern Alchemy" many of our readers will recall, writes in "Harper's Magazine" of a serious danger threatening humanity, but which chemistry stands ready to avert. is nothing less than the rapidly diminishing amount of "fixed" nitrogen-that is, nitrogen united with other elements so that it is active and useful in the world's work. Of "free" nitrogen there is abundance, for over every acre of land, as Professor Duncan points out, there are contained in the air 33,880 tons of nitrogen. The problem is to transform "the free and useless nitrogen into the fixed and useful kind." Nitrogen is as necessary to plant life as oxygen to animal life, and upon it depends the growth of food products like wheat, and, indirectly, also of the world's meat supply. Now, the consumption of "fixed" nitrogen is much larger than its supply through natural causes. the land becomes exhausted—that is, deficient in nitrogen—we supply the need artificially. But here, too, with an increased demand there is a diminishing supply; of the natural manures only a small part is available, and even though the world shall realize the enormous waste in this respect now going on through the sewerage systems of great cities and otherwise, the problem cannot thus be solved; Peruvian guano was the first substitute nitrogen fertilizer used in quantities, but there is practically no more guano—the land has "eaten it up;" now we are using a by-product of coaltar distilleries (limited by the nature of the process, and not a hundredth part of what is needed) and Chili nitrate of soda or saltpeter; of the last, 1,453,000 tons were produced in 1900, three-quarters of which were used for plant-food, and, enormous as are the niter-beds, Professor Duncan estimates that in twenty years this source of nitrogen will be used up like the guano. Where, then, are the wheat-grower and cattle-raiser to turn for plant-food? One source was

explained some time ago in The Outlook, in an account of the process of "inoculating the soil "introduced by Professor Moore, of the Agricultural Department. Briefly, this consists in helping the development of the tubercles found on the roots of some kinds of plants, for these tubercles have the power of transforming and absorbing into plant life, to some extent, the free nitrogen of the air. This is, however, still in an experimental stage and applies only to a limited number of vegetable products—not, for instance, including wheat. Can, then, the fixing of nitrogen into useful form out of the atmosphere be accomplished by chemical process and with commercial success? On this problem great manufacturing concerns, especially in Germany, but also in America, have been at work for years, have employed men of the highest scientific skill, and have expended large sums. Several processes have given results, and it is now well established that nitrogenous plant-food can be made artificially. One such product, called by the Germans Kalkstickstoff, comes from calcium-carbide (the substance from which, when thrown into water, evolves acetylene), and is said by Professor Duncan to be an almost ideal fertilizing material. The illustrations which Professor Duncan presents with his article of plants raised with and without this fertilizer are very striking. Its introduction into general use will depend upon its cost as compared with the fertilizers now available; and as the latter increase in rareness and value and the world's demand becomes greater, it seems certain that this and other substitutes will be manufactured on a large scale and commercially. Professor Duncan adds: "It is demonstrated that we may look forward with a very reasonable assurance to the creation of as many factories for the fixation of elemental nitrogen as we have smelting furnaces for the fixing of elemental iron." Thus, he adds, "the disaster of which the world actually stood in imminently deadly peril has been averted." The whole discussion is fascinating in its analysis of the application through business sagacity of pure science to universal necessities.

The Moral Upheaval

One of the latest students of contemporary conditions in this country is Admiral Sir C. A. G. Bridge, whose comment on "A Great Moral Upheaval in America," in a recent issue of the "Nineteenth Century," is sympathetic, comprehensive, and intelligent. The writer stands far enough away from America to group together the phenomena which together express the promise of a new ethical life in this country. He groups together a series of facts which indicate, not sporadic revolts here and there against corruption, but a widespread revival of ethical enthusiasm and the generation on a great scale of ethical power. He finds the revolt against the boss and the machine, which has not only been effective in a number of States and cities, but is steadily spreading throughout the country, one phase of the movement against corruption. The investigation of the great insurance companies, pushed on, he says, "with almost relentless fervor," is another. It was not initiated, nor has it been conducted, to disturb in any way the financial stability of these great organizations, but to strengthen them by securing sound methods, protecting policy-holders, and preventing the improper use of gigantic sums of money. The report of the Armstrong Committee was a fine example of courageous thoroughness of method combined with a constructive spirit in the matter of legislation. In the movement against the laxity of divorce laws in different States Admiral Bridge finds another phase of the moral upheaval, and it is interesting to note that he does not make the mistake of rushing to the conclusion that the number of divorces in this country means disregard of the proprieties of life or a widespread degradation of the On the contrary, he affirms that "nothing is more offensive to Americans in general than anything tending to the degradation of the home;" and he finds significance in the fact that the kind of clever comment about marital infidelity and kindred subjects, which in other societies is accepted as a proper subject for humor, is frowned upon by the great mass of Americans. In the protest against brutality and commercialism in college athletics this English student of our conditions discovers another phase of the advancing standards of the country.

Whether the inspiration of these widespread revolts against corruption and low standards of personal and business conduct is to be found in the fact, as Admiral Bridge holds, that men and women scattered all over the United States, eager for purity of life in all its phases, have lacked leadership and cohesion and have now found a leader in President Roosevelt, may be open to dispute. It is quite certain that the universal confidence in the integrity of the President is an immense factor in the general movement, and that his conspicuous and aggressive integrity has given impetus and courage especially to young men in all parts of America. This influence is seen in the increasing numbers of young men of ability and character who are going into public life; and Admiral Bridge declares that "the opinion once widely held in England, and sedulously inculcated by a host of American writers, that in the United States decent people will have nothing to do with politics, if ever it was true, is now as much out of date as would be the opinion that scrofula can be cured by the royal touch." He is convinced that the proportion of men of intelligence, character, and independent circumstances entering political life in the United States is as great as in any other country, and that it tends to increase.

The moral upheaval, however, does not depend on any one man, nor does it owe its increasing vigor and its promise for the future to any single career. It is the result of forces which have been at work for years past, and of a growing sense of the necessity of what Mr. Kidd calls "civic self-sacrifice." Americans have long been restive under machine politics; of late years they have been ashamed of their subservience; at last they have become willing to pay the price of driving the boss out of public life and of separating the government of the country from its business interests. More than one "boss" of large ability (and it has happened many times that "bosses" have been lacking in moral

insight and vigor rather than in intellectual capacity) has discerned of late years the disastrous results of what Mr. Steffens calls "the system"—that is to say, the steady and growing seizure of the political life of the country for commercial purposes—and has deplored the tendency as one of danger. This is at the root of the greater part of our moral disorders in public and private life, of the failure of individuals and the inefficiency of the Government; and it is against this corrupt combination between business and government that the country has risen in revolt. It is weary of influence and pulls and backstairs management; of having Mr. Odell decide who shall be Governor of New York, and Mr. Aldrich make up his mind in advance what legislation shall be permitted to go through Congress. It has determined that the men into whose hands as trustees and directors great sums of money are placed shall not treat their positions as if they were mere opportunities for private speculation and moneymaking; that the men at the head of the party organizations shall not parcel out important positions as the spoils of politics without regard to public inter-In other words, it has determined that the United States shall lead a decent moral life; that the public shall manage its own affairs; that legislators shall regard its will and not the will of irresponsible masters: that the men to whom great interests are committed shall guard those interests sacredly, or shall suffer definite punishment if they are traitors to their trusts.

The moral upheaval in America is the truest and most beneficent kind of a revival of religion; for what is needed even more than the filling of the churches and the swelling of gifts for religious purposes is honesty in dealing, man with man; a deep and quick sense of responsibility of the public servant to the public that trusts him; and a quickened conscience on the part of every man who holds the relation of a trustee to a group of men or to the community. It is the social conscience which has been touched, and the revival now in progress means, not primarily the saving of individual men from their sins, but the redemption of great communities and the reinvigoration of the moral life of States.

If the investigations now in progress were to end in simple disclosure of evil conditions, they would serve no better purpose than the furnishing of sensational newspapers with material of the sort which lends itself to "scare" headlines; they must lay the basis for constructive moral action. The Outlook hopes, in its next issue, to indicate some of the results already attained which seem to it to mark the end of a period of agitation and the beginning of permanent reform.

Morocco

The decisive action of the Moroccan Conference last week makes a review of the situation timely. For centuries the military, political, and commercial worth of Morocco's geographical position at the northeast corner, so to speak, of Africa has been apparent. The history of the Moors, however, has contradicted their natural advantages; Morocco has always stood for barbarism rather than for civilization; and in self-protection it has often been necessary for the nations to consult together concerning proper courses of action. The country most affected by chronic Moorish disorder is naturally the neighboring Algeria, for the best part of a century under French control, and with an extremely creditable record. The Moroccan-Algerian boundary is many hundred miles long, and for much of the distance has never been surveyed through the shifting desert sands. Marauding Moorish bands have been accustomed to raid and pillage at pleasure; when caught, they often claimed that they were not in Algeria.

An international Moroccan conference of all the European Powers was held in 1880 at Madrid, and the United States Government was represented. In April, 1904, however, France, as the Power chiefly interested, entered into agreements with England and Spain by which, on proper guarantees, France was empowered to introduce, if she could, certain reforms in Morocco. England and Spain were naturally parties to these

agreements because they are both Mediterranean Powers.

While these agreements practically gave to France a free hand in Morocco, they received, in general, favorable comment from the press. In March, 1905, however, the German Emperor, in the course of a Mediterranean trip, touched at Tangier, the principal port of Morocco. and delivered an impressive speech to the representatives of the Sultan of that country, in which the political and commercial independence of the little empire was emphasized, and the Kaiser declared himself its champion. The German Government also informed France that the agreements were contrary to international principles; that, while France had special interests in Morocco, these did not carry with them special rights of interference with the sovereignty of an independent State; that, as one of the parties to the Madrid treaty, Germany had a right to be consulted: and that, if any reforms were to be recommended to or imposed on Morocco, all the Powers, acting in council, should agree upon them and not one Power acting alone, with the evident intention of turning Morocco into a French protectorate, and of repeating there the exclusive commercial policy which had largely kept the nations from trading with Tunis, Madagascar, and some other French colonies. As a result of long negotiations, France declared that she had always respected and would respect the Sultan's sovereignty; that she never intended to close Morocco to foreigners; that the increasing danger to Algeria compelled her to take vigorous measures, not only to protect her own subjects, but also the many travelers from other nations; that it was her right and duty to protect in the best manner and by every possible way; finally, that she had no hesitation in placing this programme before an international conference.

Such a conference met in January at Algeciras, the nearest European port to Morocco. Among the subjects considered, the principal ones were a proper control over contraband goods; a general tariff for Morocco; an international police; and the establishment of a Moroccan State bank. These points at

issue have now been settled, though neither France nor Germany gains all that those Powers desired to gain. France expected to make Morocco practically a French protectorate, as England has Egypt; the action of French agents in Morocco has confirmed this supposition. But while disappointed in this ambition, she comes out of the Conference with an international acknowledgment of her claim to special rights following special territorial, administrative, and financial interests in that particular sphere; the control of the police of four important ports, and the control, with Spain, of the police of two others; the sanction of the Conference to the French claim to a greater share in the Moroccan State Bank than is to be given to the subjects of any other Power. France has also gained a great point in keeping intact the Anglo-French friendship.

On the other hand, the extreme policy of the restless and energetic German jingoes—as announced by the German Colonial Society and by the Pan-Germanic League, but never confirmed by the Kaiser—was to get control of one of the Moroccan ports and also of important commercial concessions. The Kaiser's desire, however, as expressed, was, while preserving the Sultan's sovereignty, to establish the "open door," and, in general, to "internationalize" Morocco. The calling of the Algeciras Conference itself was a signal triumph for Germany. She succeeded also in giving united international emphasis to the Sultan's sovereignty and to commercial equality, in compelling the French to admit the Spanish to the control of the Moroccan police. which the former had hoped to have exclusively, in influencing the Conference to allow Spain two ports for her exclusive police control, and, finally, in compelling France to subordinate the entire police of Morocco to an inspector, who shall report to the diplomatic corps.

France and Germany have both made gains and losses by the action of the Conference. The world at large has gained a great point in the settlement of the dispute by an international conference at which all Powers interested have been represented. Not only is the peace of Europe preserved, but civilization is

advanced by the adjustment of international differences touching the sovereignty even of a savage State, not by a syndicate of Powers chiefly interested, but by a world tribunal.

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A Lenten Meditation

And when a third time the evil spirit had been repelled and the Christ had kept his consciousness of power in perfect integrity for the mission of revelation and redemption on which he came, suddenly the tempter vanished and ministering angels encompassed him. Then for the first time the stainless purity and beauty of his nature disclosed itself; for it is the company our spirits keep that makes us known to our fellows. The spirits of evil and of good throng about us on this mysterious journey we call life, and the affinities of our souls are shown in the selection of those to whom we throw open the doors and make ready the house. If spiritual things were suddenly made visible, we should see the door of every man's spirit approached by those who come with good or evil in their hands, and what we call character is simply a definite and deliberate selection and rejection become habitual. The Christ was not alone in this mysterious experience of temptation, nor in its outcome; in some guise, at some time, every man bars or opens the door of his soul to visitors from heaven or hell; and when one group departs from the closed door, the other enters. They come trooping in, the unseen visitors who encompass us; and what we are and are to be is settled by the barring or the opening of the door.

So searching were the temptations which assailed the Christ that when they found no place of entrance, and the stronghold of the spirit impregnable, they departed never to return. In those hours the spirit of evil lost the one decisive battle in the history of humanity; its forces were to be rallied a thousand thousand times; it was to win here and there brief triumphs, to waylay and make prisoners numberless weak, unwary, or willing spirits; but its hope of ultimate victory went down to rise no more in

the battle in the desert. The Christ had still his life of suffering, loneliness, and sacrifice before him, when the evil spirit left him never to return; but henceforth, whenever his real companionships were made visible to men, he was in the company of angels and they were ministering to him. For the spirits of evil are not shut within the place called hell, nor the spirits of good in the place called heaven; they walk beside us on every path, are about us in every kind of work, and dwell with us in every home. When the hour of transfiguration came, the Christ was not changed; the veil was drawn aside for a moment, and men saw him as he was. In like manner, if the veil were drawn aside, we should be seen dark or luminous, according to our natures, and in the companionship of the ministers of darkness or of light.

Temptation always forces a definition of aims and compels a selection of companions; and every temptation resisted involves a clearer view of what life means to us, and every closing of the door against evil an opening of the door to good. The Christ had become conscious of his relation to his Father, and of the mighty power at his command; under the pressure of temptation he was brought face to face with the alternatives between which every man must choose—the service of God or of self; and when, in that searching of his heart and testing of his spirit, he had made his choice, straightway peace and strength stood beside him. never again to leave him, even when a momentary mist of agony swept across his vision in the last terrible loneliness.

It is part of the mystery of evil that it evokes the good; that when it is driven from the door, good comes up the path and enters in its place. In spite of a thousand apparent triumphs, evil is the servant of good and prepares the way for its approach. If the door is opened, evil takes possession, and the home becomes an unclean place; but if the bolt is shot in its place, it is disarmed and impotent. Against the virtue of a man who has shut the door of his soul and barred it against the solicitations of temptation evil has no weapons, and stands with empty hands in the presence of that which it is neither able to understand nor to destroy.

When the Christ sent the evil spirit to its own place, he not only kept the integrity of his mission intact, but he unmasked the enemy for all time to come, and put victory in the hands of every man who chose to accept it. is the fate of evil constantly to thwart its own plans and invite its own defeats. For when the good man is assailed, he not only wins the day, but gains strength for the next day; more than this, he sounds the alarm and puts his fellows on guard. The solicitations of evil were not only repelled by the Christ, but they were compelled to disclose to him their own vileness and hollowness. and they drew from him those great words which have become the inspiration of all who fight against unright-It is the fate of evil not eousness. only to have the doors closed by the good man, but to evoke a defiance which rings far and wide with a resonance that sometimes wakes half a world out of its In every age, when evil has intrenched itself in society or government, it has assailed men with the temptation to ease and comfort through acquiescence and silence, and this pressure has opened their eyes, compelled decision, and set forces in motion which have swept like a devouring fire through dens of vice and destroyed in a day strongholds of iniquity which seemed to be impregnable.

When evil approaches great natures. not only are the gates closed but a bugle rings across the world and startles the idle and sluggish into action. When the Christ repelled the evil spirit, he not only closed the doors of his spirit against all sin, but he sounded a note of warning and victory that will vibrate as long as men are tempted. In the darkest and loneliest hour of trial, when a man seems to be fighting for his life in an awful solitude and beyond the reach of help, let him remember that an angel stands beside him waiting to minister to him if, by shutting the door against his enemy, he opens his house to the messenger of heaven; for we are always in charge of His angels if the homes of our spirits are open to them.

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The Spectator

If the Spectator had Times change. been traveling to the new Nevada gold diggings five years ago, when they were but just discovered, he would have gone in on a four-horse stage, à la Bret Harte, or a six-mule team, plodding patiently over the desert dust. Twelve or fourteen hours would have been necessary on the stage route, and half a dozen relays of horses. To-day the visitor takes a big automobile instead, and whizzes among the sage-brush and cacti as comfortably as on Fifth Avenue, making the trip from train to mines in six hours. The journey is more expensive than on Fifth Avenue, it may be remarked in passing-twentyfive dollars per passenger, "the most expensive regular travel in the United States," as the town boasts; but, then, that is only a part of the high price of everything in this desert land, where even ordinary laborers command four dollars a day. Aladdin's lamp has been rubbed in the desert, and water-works, ice plants, electric lights, trolleys, automobiles, telephone, and telegraph have appeared as if by magic, and have to be paid for at fantastic rates, accordingly. But who grudges the luxuries of civilization in a land where gold and silver underlie the streets? Not the modern Nevada miner, who, it may be added, is usually quite familiar with them, being a different miner from him of the old Comstock days.

The new mines are, actually, a part of the great Comstock "zone," their dis-The man who stumbled coverers assert. on them, and made Tonopah and Bullfrog and Goldfield and Searchlight and the rest a Mecca for the gold-seeker, was a believer in the theory that the Comstock lode continued somewhere through these Southwestern deserts. He was an active citizen, being both the district attorney and the superintendent of schools of Nye County, and as he traveled through the desert trails with a pack of six burros to visit an outlying camp, he took samples of a promising outcropping, like a true prospector. That was in 1900. the Pullman car and the automobile replace the burro, and the bad water,

the coarse food, and the desert hardships of the old-time prospector and miner are like a receding nightmare of the past. Yet in the old Comstock days these wonderful mines would have been worth nothing to the finder. They are not bonanzas in the old Nevada sense. treasure-chamber like that marvelous Arabian Nights one in the Comstock that made the fortunes of Flood, Fair, Mackay, and O'Brien can be shown to the visitor here. Bullfrog, the newest and some say the richest camp, is still not up to the old traditions at all. This desert ore is low grade. Worked in the old fashion, the more the miners worked, the more they would lose. cyanide process has changed all that, The Spectator was told that at least fifty million more could have been extracted with this process from the low-grade ore which the Comstock miners threw away.

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The Spectator realized this continually in mine and mill, as he was taken through them. Let no man go down in a gold mine nowadays expecting a romantic trip. It is as prosaic as a coal mine, and quite as damp and uncomfortable. The ore does not sparkle to any extent, nor is "pay dirt" a glittering affair. It is dug out, for the most part, like coal, from its seam, though the body of ore, unlike that of coal, is not usually very large or wide. Loaded into car or basket, it is drawn up on a framework resembling a coalbreaker, tilted out, crushed as it goes down, and dropped into cars—trolley or mule drawn—which take it to the stampmill or the smelter. The Spectator does not understand the technical processes of the stamp-mill, but he saw the stuff between the stamps and over "tables" where a stream of water deposited it on the mercury-covered sides and bottom as an amalgam. tables are cleaned every day, and golden results obtained. Everything in the mill is cleaned, and the gold is extracted even from towel and wash-basin, as well as from the tailings. Gold, silver, and copper all mingle in the ore, and though the copper is separated, the gold and silver are not, but compose together the pale-yellow metallic bricks, slightly over

ordinary size, which are sent from the mines to the San Francisco mint, in the end, to have the gold and silver separated and to be transformed into bars of bullion. The brick the Spectator saw and lifted weighed fifty-four pounds and was worth some twelve thousand dollars.

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Indeed, the old Bret Harte types were nearly all absent. The miners were young men, most of the successful mineowners and managers being under thirty. Dr. Osler would find his views justified in the Nevada desert. Some of these young Napoleons of the gold-fields have been miners in the Klondike and in South Africa; others never knew what a prospect was till they came here. One man was born in a mine, his parents having taken refuge there against Indians. The Spectator sat next a very pleasant and attractive woman at dinner one evening, who told him how she had walked to the Klondike in its early days, sharing the hardships of her husband, who failed there, but had won success in Nevada later. On the other hand, next day he was entertained by a young couple, the husband a mining engineer from the East, who had introduced some modern inventive ideas and was reaping the benefit of them, and the wife just graduated from an Eastern college. It is an interesting society, getting all the while more successfully civilized, yet containing too many men of the adventurous type to be by any chance dull. The desert dust, the desert heat, the desert isolation, are all parts of its environment, and the dry, stimulating desert air makes these energetic Americans, men and women, more energetic still.

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There is a field for energy, especially where the success of the miner is not yet assured. The newcomer of the slender purse, to obtain shelter and live, resorts to interesting inventions. The distillate oil-can, an oblong tin affair in which the oil for the engines is sold, has become recognized building material. Filled with the desert stone—for the Nevada desert is not sand, but fine stones, like a road not yet gone over by the roller—it becomes a substitute for

bricks, and builds up, without mortar, into thick and secure walls. Cut open and flattened out, then nailed shingle fashion, it forms a good roof, though given to unearthly rattling when the wind blows, and making a flurry of rain sound like a charge of cavalry above the house-For this reason, perhaps, holder's head. a far larger proportion of miners live in "rag houses" instead-frames with white canvas stretched on them like tents, but larger and more permanent. Such dwellings hang on the fringe of the stone and brick and frame buildings that adorn the town, and the dwellers in them confidently expect to have handsome houses of their own before they get through. Hope is the atmosphere of the mining town—as stimulating as the dry, brilliant air that bathes the glowing mountain peaks beyond the wastes of sage-brush.

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While the Spectator was there the unexpected happened in the desert-it rained. The wastes of broken stone, with their queer Doré-like vegetation of cacti and greasewood and Spanish bayonet and "Joshuas" (a sort of hedgehog or monkey tree whose name not the oldest miner can explain), were thoroughly moistened, and then a thing more unexpected still took place-the desert blossomed. Up from every foot of it sprang tiny plant and leaf and flower. As far as eye could see there was a gay, quickly laid fairy carpet of rainbow hues. Under the sapphire sky and the exquisite desert sunset it was a vision of beauty. then-rain and blossom were alike forgotten, and the bright, familiar bareness of plain and peak was resumed. But the Spectator hopes that it was only a prophecy of what will some day come to stay. when the mines that first brought man to the desert are worked out and forgotten. as in California, and yet the greater riches of the soil, worked, like the longdespised low-grade ore, by new aids of science, shall astonish and attract the farmer. At all events, to have seen for one day the desert blossom as the rose is to have caught, as in a parable, a glimpse of the vision of infinite hope, and to be attended by it down all the dusty ways of East and West hereafter.

CHINA IN TRANSITION

REASONS FOR CHINA'S WEAKNESS

BY GEORGE KENNAN

Special Correspondent of The Outlook in the Far East

MONG the first things that impress the observant traveler in - China are the poverty of the people and the weakness of the Government. In an Empire which comprises more than five million square miles of fertile and productive land; which contains three or four hundred million thrifty, temperate, hard-working people; and which has inherited an ancient and in some respects complex and highly developed civilization, one would naturally expect to find prosperity, wealth, and almost irresistible national power; but what one does find is a state of poverty which from the Western point of view seems to be only one remove from starvation, and a national weakness which is so great as to be absolutely pitiful. The common people—or an overwhelming majority of them-live upon earnings which would hardly keep American workmen in coffee and tobacco. while their Government is so feeble and incapable that it cannot command the respect of its neighbors, does not dare to resent or resist injustice, is compelled to tolerate foreign interference in its purely domestic affairs, and is wholly unable to defend its territory against the aggressive, land-grabbing nations of the West. With a population equal to that of all Europe, and a soil almost as rich and productive as that of the United States, China has a smaller national revenue than the Netherlands and is far less capable of self-defense than Turkey. Before we can forecast the future of such a country, form a judgment as to its power of self-regeneration, or estimate rightly its attempts at reform, we must understand the evils to be remedied and the reasons for their existence. How did China come to be in her present condition, and what causes have brought about

the poverty and weakness from which she is now suffering? When we can answer these questions correctly, we may be able to form a trustworthy judgment as to the suitability and adequacy of the reform measures which she is now taking, and to forecast in a conjectural way their probable result. I purpose in this article to point out what seem to me the principal causes of China's poverty and weakness, and then, in a later paper, I shall try to describe the methods of remedy and reform that Chinese rulers are adopting, and shall consider their probable efficacy and value.

1. The weakness of China as a State is due, first of all, to her lack of national unity and solidarity. She is generally and popularly supposed to be a homogeneous Empire, with a single despotic head and a strongly centralized form of bureaucratic administration; but she is in reality a weak aggregation of semiindependent principalities, each of which governs itself and merely pays annual tribute to the nominally supreme ruler at Peking. The Emperor, it is true, appoints the viceroys and governors of the eighteen Chinese provinces, and is supposed to direct and control them: but, as a matter of fact, he allows them so much discretionary power that they not only rule their respective dominions with the authority of semi-independent sovereigns, but often decide questions which affect the welfare of the nation as a whole, and which ought to be decided by the Emperor himself. An interesting illustration of this is furnished by the attitude of the southern and central viceroys during the Boxer outbreak of 1900. It was clearly their duty to go to the aid of the Emperor and assist him in preserving order and defending the capital; but instead of doing this

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they assumed the power and authority of independent sovereigns and entered into what was virtually a treaty with the foreign consuls at Shanghai. the terms of this treaty, which is historically known as the "Yangtse compact," they bound themselves to remain at their posts and preserve order in their respective provinces regardless of the plight of the Imperial Government. As Mr. Jernigan (our late Consul-General at Shanghai) justly remarks, "The fact that a viceroy could assume an obligation of such a sovereign character and carry it out only proves the weakness of the central power when it does not accord with the interest of a viceroy to recognize it."

The Chinese, as a people, seem to have no clear conception of the value of solidarity and political unity. one of the eighteen provinces organizes, equips, and controls its own army; every one has its own financial system and makes up its own budget; and almost every one coins its own money. In theory they are all subject to Imperial supervision and control; but in practice each of them is an independent administrative unit and has its own military, fiscal, penal, judicial, and educational machinery. It may readily be seen that such a system of government must tend to encourage localization, prevent the development of a truly national spirit, and obstruct every attempt of rulers and people to co-operate, broadly and effectively, in the attainment of Imperial ends. Take, for example, the working of this system in the field of military affairs. Every province has its own army, and every army has its own methods of organization and drill and its own distinctive equipment; so that one provincial force cannot possibly combine or cooperate with another for the accomplishment of a national purpose. How can an empire have any offensive or defensive power when eighteen different viceroys, with the assistance of eighteen Tartar generals, drill and equip eighteen separate armies in eighteen different ways? Lord Beresford says that in taveling through China and inspecting the troops of the provincial authorities he counted no less than fourteen different types of military rifle.

For another and an equally instructive example of harmful decentralization take the matter of coinage. Half a dozen viceroys, in different parts of the Empire, are now busily engaged in making money (in two meanings of the words) by minting ten and twenty cash pieces of copper. As the bullion value of these coins is much less than their face value, the manufacture of them is a profitable industry, and every viceroy is striving to get into circulation in his own province as many of his own cash as possible, and at the same time to keep out all competing coins of similar kinds and denominations made by the viceroys of other prov-In this inter-provincial struggle for illegitimate profit no attention whatever is paid to the currency requirements or absorbing capacity of the people who use the cash, and the over-production of irredeemable token money soon leads to depreciation. Bankers, money-changers, and speculators then try to carry these copper cash from a province where the depreciation is great to another province where the depreciation is less; and the viceroy of the latter, in order to protect the output of his own mint, arbitrarily stops the importation of them. the last four months the province of Shantung has boycotted the copper money of Kiangsi; Viceroy Chou-Fu, of Nanking, has addressed a strong financial remonstrance to Viceroy Chang-Chi-Tung, at Wuchang, protesting against the latter's flooding the country with irredeemable copper coins; and Vicerov Yuan-Shi-Kai, at Tientsin, has prohibited the importation of ten-cash pieces into Chili from any other province whatever. The fifteen provincial mints, meanwhile, are turning out, or preparing to turn out, token money at the rate of 1,745,000,000 pieces per annum, and the copper cash, which are the currency of the people, are depreciating in value so rapidly, as a result of over-production, that in a year or two the taxes and living expenses of a peasant family, computed in taels, will be nearly doubled. How can any country hope to attain a position of financial strength when it allows the necessities or greed of local officials to override in this way every consideration of sound national policy?

2. Another reason for the poverty and weakness of China is the almost universal prevalence of official dishonesty. A central government, in order to be prosperous and strong, must have sufficient revenue to maintain a large army and an efficient navy, to promote popular edu cation, and to carry on public enterprises and works; but it cannot possibly get money enough for these purposes if it allows its servants to steal four-fifths of the taxes. The Imperial Government of China long ago permitted, and still continues to tolerate, a system which makes it absolutely necessary for its employees to steal in order to live. When an official, of any grade, receives a salary which will not cover more than onequarter of his legitimate office expenses, he must, necessarily, either resign or steal. As a matter of choice, he usually adopts the latter alternative, and quiets his conscience with the reflection that if the Government had not expected him to steal, it would have attached to his office a salary large enough at least to pay for clerical assistance and stationery. Take, by way of illustration, the case of a viceroy. According to Mr. Holcombe, our late Secretary of Legation at Peking, the necessary official expenses of a Chinese viceroy—not including remuneration for his services—are at least \$50,000 a year, while his salary and legitimate allowances amount, in the aggregate, to only about \$6,000. What, under such conditions, is he to do? he be a fairly honest man, he probably makes a liberal estimate of his expenses and the value of his personal services, takes the necessary amount out of the provincial treasury by some indirect method of "squeezing," and forwards to the Imperial Government at Peking all that may happen to be left. If, on the other hand, he be a consciously dishonest man-as most Chinese officials are—he bribes his superiors, or sends them a sum which he thinks will be satisfactory, and "squeezes" all the rest. The latter method, of course, is the usual one, and it is practiced not only by the viceroys, but by most of the eighteen governors, seventy-five intendants of circuits, one hundred and eighty departmental prefects, thirteen hundred dis-

trict magistrates, and thousands of treasurers, tax-collectors, salt-examiners, village chiefs, yamen-runners, and petty officials of all sorts. The stream of money collected from the people in taxes diminishes steadily in volume as it flows toward the throne; and when it finally empties into the Imperial treasury at Peking, it has dwindled from a river of perhaps \$300,000,000 to a comparatively small brook of \$50,000,000. All the rest has been diverted by irrigating canals of official peculation and has been used for the refreshment of private The money thus diverted is not boldly and openly embezzled—it is taken indirectly by what is universally known in China as a "squeeze." A yamenrunner, for example, goes to a peasant farmer owning four acres of taxable land, and offers to certify, officially, that the farm contains only three acres, provided the owner will make him—the yamenrunner—a present equal to the tax on half an acre. As the tax on three acres, plus the tax on half an acre, amounts, in the aggregate, to a tax on only seveneighths of the land, the farmer pays the "squeeze" to the yamen-runner for the sake of saving half the tax on the acre not reported. The yamen-runner then divides the "squeeze" with the tax-collector, and the transaction is completed. The farmer has saved the tax on half an acre, the two officials concerned have pocketed the tax on another half-acre, and the Government has lost the tax on a whole acre. The amount in a single case is insignificant: but inasmuch as there are millions of such transactions, the loss of the Government in the aggregate is very great.

To take another class of cases: The land tax in China, although collected in copper cash, is assessed in silver taels, and a dishonest governor or district magistrate can always get a "squeeze" out of the rate of exchange. If he collects taxes from the farmers in cash at the rate of 2,400 to 1, and remits these same taxes to his superiors in taels at the rate of 1 to 1,200, he is able to pocket

¹ Yamen-runners are petty officials attached to government offices of all grades. They serve as messen gers or constables, and are generally detailed for the outdoor work of the bureaus or offices with which they are connected.



as much as he turns in, and he often does even better than this. In the province of Shangtung, a few years ago, the officials collected taxes in cash at the rate of 5,600 to the tael, when the rate of exchange was really only 1,500 cash to the tael. Such "squeezes" as this would hardly be possible if China had a stable currency, but in the present chaotic state of her monetary system the ratio of value between cash and taels is continually varying, and an ignorant farmer, whose taxes have been assessed in taels. may not know what sum he ought to pay in the copper cash which are the only currency he has. But even if he does know, he generally submits to the "squeeze," because, unless the demand is outrageously extortionate, it is safer to pay than to resist. In cases of this kind it would be just as easy, of course, for the dishonest official to rob the peasant farmer directly by doubling up his taxes without any reference to cash and taels: but such is not the Chinese method. Taking money without a pretext is stealing; but taking money with a pretext is merely a "squeeze." A theft is more or less disgraceful; but in a "squeeze" the robber "saves his face."

As the accounts of Government officials in China are never audited or published, there is no possible way of ascertaining the difference between the amounts collected from the people and the amounts turned into the various treasuries; but there can be no doubt whatever that a sum equivalent to at least three-fourths of the revenue of the Empire is annually "squeezed." Offices are continually bought, and the high prices paid for them show that they afford extraordinary opportunities for personal enrichment. The salary of the taotai, or intendant, of the Shanghai circuit is only 3,000 taels per annum, and yet it is reported that 100,000 taels have been paid for three years' tenure of the taotai's place. A prominent member of the Shanghai Municipal Council told me, a few weeks ago, that the Chinese judge of the Shanghai Mixed Court, who was dismissed last year, went into retirement with a fortune of \$1,750,000 gold, which he had made, in his judicial capacity, out of "squeezes." The sale of public offices

as a means of obtaining revenue is openly authorized by the Government, and no longer ago than last November, Chao-Erh-Shun, the Viceroy of Mukden, received permission from the throne to raise funds by the sale of positions and official ranks in the province of Fengtien.

That the policy of the Government in selling offices and permitting "squeezes" is absolutely suicidal there can be, I think, no question. Sir Robert Hart, the veteran chief of the Chinese Customs, told me when I was in Peking that the present land tax alone, if honestly collected and turned into the Imperial treasury, would suffice to pay generous and even extravagant salaries to the whole body of civil service employees; would maintain an army and a navy in a state of real efficiency; would provide for public education and public works on a liberal scale; and would then leave a large surplus for extraordinary improvements and miscellaneous betterments. He thought that this tax alone ought to produce 400,000,000 taels per annum, which is nearly five times the revenue that the Empire now derives from all sources. He had made an effort, he said, to induce the Government to try, in a single province, the experiment of paying adequate salaries and punishing severely every official who accepted a bribe or resorted to a "squeeze;" but he had met with no encouragement. During my stay in Peking, Baron Komura, the Japanese Minister of Foreign Affairs, came there, at the head of a special embassy, for the purpose of negotiating a new treaty. It is reported that when some of the high Chinese officials asked him one day what he thought they should do to be saved, he replied, briefly: "Enforce honesty in your administration and straighten out vour finances."

3. A third reason for the poverty and weakness of China is a moral deficiency which may be imperfectly described as a lack of civic virtue. The government of the Empire is far more liberal and democratic than that of Russia, and the people generally are cheerful, patient, temperate, and wonderfully industrious; but neither in the Government nor among the people can one find the characteris-

tics which have given power and distinction to the Japanese-viz., courage, patriotism, civic pride, loyalty, and great capacity for self-sacrifice. The average Chinese is industrious and easily governed, and to that extent he is a good citizen; but all the strings of his character are stretched over the bridge of self, and in office or out of office he would never think of sacrificing his personal interests for the sake of the public good. spends half a lifetime in the study of the Chinese classics, with a view to qualifying himself for a Government position; but his ambition as a public man is not to advance the interests of his country, nor even to gain personal glory and distinction, but mainly, if not solely, to get his hands elbow-deep into the public purse. The Chinese official may never have heard the saying, once widely quoted and commented upon in the United States-" The public be damned !"-but he does not fail to act in accordance with the spirit of it. If, at the end of his official term, he has succeeded in amassing a fortune at the public expense, he regards his career as eminently successful and satisfactory.

A little more than thirty years ago the distinguished Japanese patriot Saigo conceived a plan for the conquest of Korea, and in order to provide his Government with a reasonable excuse for declaring war, he proposed to sacrifice himself by going to Seoul as an Ambassador and allowing the hostile Koreans to put him to death. In a letter to Count Itagaki, asking the latter to get the Emperor's permission, Saigo wrote as follows:

If you are going to resolve on the despatch of an armed force in advance of an Ambassador. I have some doubts as to the advisability of such a course, for the Koreans will be sure to protest and demand the withdrawal of our troops, and non-compliance with this means the opening of hostilities. In that case the responsibility of taking the aggressive rests with us, which is contrary to the views we have entertained from the outset. Would it not be the wisest measure for us, therefore, to let an Ambassador Extraordinary precede any armed force? Should the Koreans offer us violence—as they are sure to do-that is certa nly a reasonable pretext for war. . . . I repeat that it will be far better for us that the sending of an envoy should precede any other action, and inasmuch as the Koreans will be sure to put him to a violent death, I ardently request you to use your best influence to obtain the appointment for me. Although I cannot prove myself to be as efficient an ambassador as Mr. Soyejima, yet I think I may be able to accomplish the easy task of sacrificing my life. Setting aside all ceremony, I beg you to do all you can for me.

With profound respect, SAIGO.¹

If there be a viceroy, a governor, or a mandarin in all China who is capable of writing such a letter as this and of sacrificing himself for his country in the manner proposed by Saigo, he has not yet come to the front. Japan, at the beginning of her wonderful era of transformation, had scores of such men—if not hundreds--and to them she is mainly indebted for her present greatness. China may yet bring forth such characters, but she has produced none thus far, and to the lack of them her present condition is largely due. As the Secretary of one of the foreign legations said to me in Peking, "What the Chinese need is not a change in their governmental institutions, but a change in their moral character."

4. One of the worst of the evils from which China now suffers is the lack of uniformity in her standards of value. Her finances are in an absolutely chaotic condition, on account of the instability of her currency and the constantly changing ratio between one kind of money and another. The coin in common use among the people is the copper cash, but the standard of value in all large mercantile transactions, as well as in the Government service, is the silver ounce. or tael. If there were only one tael, and if that tael bore some fixed and definite relation to the copper cash, the state of things would be no worse than it is in silver-standard countries generally; but there are more than seventy local varieties of tael, each differing slightly from every other; and the values of these taels, expressed in terms of cash, vary not only from day to day in time, but from district to district in space. In one village the tael exchanges for a thousand-cash string and a half, while in another village eight hundred cash make,

Private letters from Saigo to Count Itagaki, made public by the latter in February, 1906. (G. K.)

nominally, a thousand-cash string, and a tael can be had for a string and a quar-But the tael is not the only silver coin in circulation. The Chinese make or import four or five different silver dollars, and each of these has an uncertain value, in taels or cash, which also fluctuates widely in accordance with varying conditions of time and space. There is no uniformity even among the cash. A ten-cash piece issued by one provincial mint is not equal in value to a piece of like denomination issued by another mint, and neither of them will buy ten one-cash pieces separately. Ningpo, for example, a local ten-cash coin exchanges for nine separate onecash pieces, while in Tsingkiangpu a ten-cash coin will buy only seven separate cash. Then there are the paper notes of private Chinese banks and private foreign banks, which add still another complication because they are discounted at rates which vary directly with the distance from the place of issue. A Tientsin bank note may pass at par in Peking, but it will be taken only at a discount of five per cent. in Shanghai, and perhaps ten per cent. in Canton or Hankow. The same railroad company will sometimes accept a bank note at par in one of its ticket offices and cut it five per cent. in another. In my own experience, bills of the Russo-Chinese Bank were taken at par by the railroad ticket agent at Peking, while they were refused altogether by the ticket agent of the same railroad at Paotingfu, only a hundred miles away.

If a man should make a long journey through the Chinese Empire and come back with his pockets full of taels, dollars, bank notes, and copper cash, received at different times and in different places as change, it would take him at least a whole day to figure out what he had left and reduce it to the gold standard; and as for making an itemized expense account of his trip, it would be absolutely impossible. An expert Chinese mathematician, with an abacus and a whole sheaf of exchange quotations, couldn't do it in less than a week!

It is hardly necessary to say that this chaotic monetary system hampers trade, facilitates "squeezing," gives uncertainty

to all financial transactions, and gradually impoverishes the peasants, who have neither knowledge enough nor capital enough to take advantage of favorable fluctuations in the money market. They are completely at the mercy of people who know more, or have more, and their taxes and living expenses may be doubled in a single year by the operations of one provincial mint which is being run by the viceroy "for what there is in it."

5. A fifth reason for the weakness of China is lack of fighting ability. Although we in the West have a Hague Tribunal and innumerable peace associations, and although our civilization is nominally Christian, we do not hesitate, in the furtherance of our commercial interests, to push to the wall any nation which happens to be too weak to resist. The Chinese have never been a fighting race, and have never tried to cultivate the combative spirit; and their lack of defensive power has compelled them to submit to countless indignities and humiliations, and in less than a century has cost them Hongkong, Macao, Saigon, Vladivostok, Weihaiwei, Kiaochow, a large part of the Liaotung peninsula, and the whole of Korea. These calamitous results of military weakness have been due not so much to pusillanimity on the part of Chinese soldiers and sailors as to the general attitude taken by the ruling class toward the army and navy, and the treatment of army and navy officers by the civilian branch of the Government. The military profession in China has hardly been regarded as respectable, and military officers have always taken rank far below employees of the civil service, both in the provinces and in the departments. Up to last year a civil service official of the fifth grade might have an army officer of the same grade flogged publicly with a bamboo rod, and a viceroy might order the flogging even of a general or an admiral. Civil service employees could not be subjected to corporal punishment until after they had been reported to the throne and cashiered; but an army or navy officer, unless he held civil as well as military rank, might be whipped and disgraced by almost anybody. No selfrespecting Chinese, of course, would go

into a profession where he was sure to be regarded with more or less contempt, and where he might be subjected to such humiliating treatment. This reason alone would be enough to account for the weakness of the Chinese army; but to this cause must be added absolute ignorance of modern military science, an inadequate supply of modern weapons, complete lack of uniformity in organization, drill, and equipment, and a complicated system of fraud and theft in the military service, which, as Mr. Holcombe says, "almost surpasses belief."

After the battle of Pingyang in the Chinese Japanese war, a number of wounded Chinese soldiers were taken to a Japanese hospital, where one of them was questioned by a foreigner as follows:

"How does it happen that the sons of the gods are wounded in their afterparts only? It looks as though they had run away from the barbarians."

"We advanced all right," replied the Chinaman, "and according to military rules. Then we put on fierce faces, like Che-Kal-Yang the God of War, certain that the Wojen" (dwarfs) "would run—as they should have done if they had not been hopeless savages and unac-

quainted with Chinese characters. We rushed on them breathing fire, but they moved not. Then our general shouted 'Victory!' for we had paralyzed them with our boldness. But suddenly a long row of guns raised like an arm, and, immortal gods! such a dastardly way to fight I never saw! I know not why we were wounded in the back."

Even after their defeat by Japan the Chinese took no effective steps to reform or improve their military service. When Marquis Ito visited China nine years ago, he strongly advised the high Chinese officials whom he met to establish a military academy in every province for the training of officers, and to put all these schools under the direction and control of foreign instructors. "With well-trained officers," he said, "you can create a modern army; but without them it is impossible." The Chinese listened courteously to this advice, but took no action; and now, when Germany bullies them, Great Britain domineers over them, America sells them out to Belgium, and foreigners of all nationalities invade their territory for the purpose of exploiting their resources, their only weapon of self-defense is a mob of frenzied rioters.

JOHN BURNS, LABOR MINISTER

BY ENOCH KNIGHT

NO years ago, after a study at first hand of several figures in British politics, I wrote of John Burns: "He is, to my mind, better worth knowing than any other man in England." I had watched him with an interest amounting to astonishment during the bitter aftermath of the Boer War, when Chamberlain was breaking away from old ties, when the Nonconformists were holding their meetings everywhere, in the churches, in the street, and by the hundreds of thousands in Hyde Park, and when the licensing question was also nearing its crisis and was about to become another portent of the great political storm that was sweeping over England in the early summer of 1903.

I had supposed Burns to be a man of large build, rough and uncouth if not brutal in manner, as well as unlettered. Nothing could be further from the facts. Small, of gentle mien, simple as to dress, alert to catch every breath of knowledge from the world about him, and devoting his days and nights to study, this man, gray at forty-five, appealed to me as did no other man upon the crowded floor of the Commons.

Soon after making a slight acquaintance, he invited me to spend a day at his house in Battersea, across the river from Chelsea, where he had lived as a boy with a mother who could barely keep the two alive, and who felt herself rich when at last the boy found work

^{*} Korean Sketches," by the Rev. James S. Gale.

that paid the munificent wage of three shillings a week.

It is an old story how he persevered until he learned the trade of a machinist, with a journeyman's pay, and how at length he made a home in the neighborhood, and how he became a member of the London Council, and almost at once a member of Parliament, and how he has continuously held both these offices unchallenged and unquestioned by his supporters for going on fifteen years. And when I sat for a day in his workroom, which is the whole second floor of his narrow little house, and saw the books and pamphlets relating to every phase of social and economic questions, and how, as if by instinct, he could turn to chapter and verse to prove his word, I felt more than ever that he is best worth knowing of the public men of England, if one would go to the bottom of her vital interests.

One feels that the foundations of this man's life were sure. As if he realized that he was to meet hardships and danger, he early began to inure himself to bear them. With a boy's worship of the hero of his choice, young Burns studied and followed the rigorous training of Charles XII. of Sweden to endure cold and fatigue, and never was a more devout disciple. He never wasted, but conserved, every atom of his native strength. Avoiding all forms of dissipation, he preached, and still preaches everywhere, against the crime and waste of drink. While claiming that British workingmen are improving their estate, he pointed me to statistics showing the misery still existing in "the little boxes with slate lids," as he calls the tiny houses of even the better class of laborers, with families struggling to maintain life on "a fluctuating pound a week," as he put it. Burns's appeals are made for total abstinence, "but this must be supplemented by local or legislative action." His knowledge of the condition of the poor is simply marvelous. Even as I write, an election paragraph tells how he met Mr. Chamberlain's reckless assertion that a million workmen are inmates of charity institutions, etc., by proving from the records that there are just 213,000, and that many of these are temporary patients in the hospitals. This is set down simply to show his equipment for any discussion of the labor question.

And right here, too, is another notable thing. John Burns, while he champions the "laborite" movement, is exacting in his demands for obedience to the laws. Though twice arrested, and once held, as a disturber of the peace, many of the best men in London came forward to urge and to prove that personally he sought peace, and should not be held for violence that he could not avert.

How he was really regarded by Scotland Yard in the great dock strike is best shown by Burns's own account of that episode. Seven thousand starving men, on their march to Trafalgar Square, were stopped at the river by the Chief of Police, who barred their way. much parleying, Burns was sent for. He had always urged that workingmen had as much right as any other bodies of men to march in London streets, and that any violence must be deemed an incident and not a purpose. occasion, though not the promoter of the demonstration, every one turned to him for counsel.

"I went," said he, "to the Chief of Police, and asked that the men be allowed to march into the city. He refused. I asked him on what ground. He said there might be violence. I told him the men were there, and had a right to march, and violence would more likely come of refusal than of consent. don't know these men,' said the Chief, 'but I know you; and if you will put yourself in command of them, I will consent, for I can trust you.' I asked time to confer with the men, and passed down the line telling them how useless it would be to attempt to oppose the Chief, who could assemble a force of fifteen thousand policemen in an hour, but told them I would lead them if they would keep faith. So, putting myself at their head, we marched to Trafalgar Square, where scores of the weaker ones fainted from fatigue and hunger. Not a few of that great throng had been without food a day or more. One poor fellow begged the remaining portion of an apple which a bystander was eating, and afterwards

said this was all he had eaten for more than twenty-four hours."

The above is the substance of Burns's account of the greatest and the last demonstration in the famous dockyard strike. It made a tremendous impression upon London, even accustomed as the great city is to the sight of hungry Signs of sympathy soon appeared everywhere, with offers of help, and Burns was the hero now, upon the very spot where he had been twice arrested for espousing the workingman's cause. A saloon-keeper offered him a hundred pounds for the straw hat he wore that day, but Burns's only answer was his offer to give it to him if he would stop selling whisky. The old hat, costing a shilling at its best, along with the bludgeon with which he defended himself and wife and child from the mob angered by a speech against the Boer War, is a cherished souvenir of those rough years. The windows were broken in his little house on Lavender Hill, and for two nights he stood in the narrow doorway and faced that most unreasoning of all human gatherings, a London mob. That in two years he was stronger than ever with his constituents is only to recognize another by-product of mob spleen. How courageous was the stand Burns took against the whole South African policy is known of all men; and the "Orientalized Imperialism," whose advocates he challenged at every turn long ago, has lost both charm and character with a great body of the British common people.

The career of this man demands more than a brief moment's curious interest. It is worth study, and it will be a great pity if the labored efforts of certain London journals to discredit him as the new head of the Local Government No other man in Boards succeed. England knows the case of the people as well as he, and not another heart has been so often melted at sight of "that numberless, starving army at all the gates of life" that swarms in the great capital. Every case, and every table, and every inch of wall space in John Burns's little two-room workshop is burdened with books relating to the problems of human life—the life of the masses

who bear the heat and the burden of the Any one of these books is at his fingers' ends when wanted, and its facts are on his tongue's end when called for. Mr. Blaine once said to me, "I thank the Lord that the things which I happen to know, I know anywhere, any minute," which was the grand secret of his marvelous skill in controversy. I felt this to be equally true of Burns. His mind is not an attic littered with odds and ends, useful mainly for rainy-day reverie and reminiscence, but a well-ordered storehouse filled with seasoned dimension stuff, fit and ready for instant construction.

Nor is there a sign of demagogy about the man; and one feels assured that an honest as well as a mighty purpose is behind this equipment. He never caters to the passion or the prejudice of the moment to win favors or votes. When he speaks, he speaks the policy and doctrine of his life-work. He bids the workingmen remember that reform must begin with themselves, and that "the drinker and the skulker have no place in saving them from the condition

"Where home is a hovel and dull we grovel, forgetting the world is fair."

He says he has little faith in "the pauperizing palliatives" which the superficial slum worker relies on. Here is a sentence from a recent address of this preacher of righteousness:

The curse of the working class is the fewness of their wants, the poverty of their ambitions, overloading of a few sensuous tastes, and the absence of a varied set of elevated and healthy desires.

But John Burns is more than a worker in this special field. He is proud of England, as well as of his beloved London—of which he declares it is on the whole the best-governed great city in the world—and his grasp of general affairs is firm and sure. When the criticism of the personnel of the army was at its height in 1904, he spent a week with the men in camp, and bivouac, and on long forced marches to determine for himself the question of their endurance. It was done without a flourish or newspaper mention, and just as is the manner of this man of iron frame and purpose.

I am not a hero-worshiper, nor would

I attempt to make fine comparisons here. But I have spent much time in trying to get at the meaning of British politics these late troubled times, and I feel sure that John Burns has made himself a force whose influence is not even vet fully measured. It is not that he has risen from obscurity and been a leader these many years in Parliament, and the best-known home and world worker in behalf of the poor; but he has never essayed a gait that for a moment has carried him off his feet. He settled the dock strike because he saw deeper than his fellow-men. A gang of bosses had got control of the stevedore business, and had forced men to do this fastest and hardest work in all the world at starvation wages. The judgment and conscience of merchants and ship-owners had been stifled or overridden by the cruel taskmasters who were in control of the business. Burns appealed to this judgment and conscience, and he showed London these victims of wrong, many of whom went daily to their slavish task half famished. The case needed this object-lesson, and very soon a settlement was made upon a new bond of faith, which has never been broken; nor has the peace ever been broken by the thousands whose pitiful plight shocked even the dulled sense of a British public. Who else in all England has done such a work as this?

And yet it is only one example of his devoutness and sagacity. It will be remembered that Burns has been in the United States several times, but it was made plain to me that he was not an advocate of the methods of labor reform

he found, and he plainly indicated a fear that the worst of our social troubles are yet to come. And I have to confess that, though I am not a stranger to social and economic study, he put me to shame at some points of our several talks by the keenness of his insight into our condition and the absolute accuracy of his knowledge of our case. all was I impressed with his impatience with those who rely on party aid and political promises. I observe that his recent election address was condemned by some London journals for its criticism of government. This was not his manner in the interviews accorded to me. All extreme views of Socialism were sharply deprecated, and his distrust of all sorts of propagandists was openly expressed. But John Burns as a prophet is as interesting as John Burns as a worker. I asked him, at our first meeting, what Mr. Chamberlain's prospects were. He went on to express his belief that Mr. Chamberlain was too "smart" to be trusted by the people, and that he broke faith even with his fellows of the Cabinet by keeping from them the secret of his proposed resignation and springing it as a sensation by a stump speech at Birmingham. will be snowed under," were his words in the summer of 1904. Reminded of this prediction towards the last of the Balfour Ministry, he said, "And I want to tell you now that 'Joe' will not only be snowed under, as I predicted before, but he is a spent force in British politics." Whether this latter prediction is likely to prove true or not is another story.

WORK-DAY PRAYERS

BY CHARLOTTE PORTER

God of Love, God of Work! Touch me with fire! For the dross within me, fill me with ire!—
So with pure passion I cleave to my Star,
Speed my work, daily, toward the mark—far!

God of Love, God of Work! Breathe in me—air! Blue and breeze-swept spaces brighten my care!—So each swirl of effort leave my hand calm, So each heart meeting mine only feel—balm!

ENGLAND'S STRIDE TOWARDS DEMOCRACY

BY SYDNEY BROOKS

COUNTRY may be democratic in form without being democratic in fact. England has always more or less been such a country. That is to say, its political institutions and the logic of its political arrangements have always been somewhat in advance of its social instincts. In the United States it is just the other way about. America is far more of a democracy socially than politically. In Great Britain, on the other hand, we have the curious anomaly of a nation essentially aristocratic in its composition and penetrated with the spirit of caste, yet governing itself in accordance with the prescriptions of an extreme Radicalism—a Radicalism which Americans, who are the only genuine Tories left to the world of modern politics, would decisively reject. At bottom, therefore, England and the United States are approaching an almost identical problem from different standpoints. Both countries, as I see the matter, are engaged in an effort to bring their social and political theories into harmony, the difference being that in England the leeway which we have to make up is mainly social, while in America it is mainly political. It is from this point of view that the presence in the British House of Commons of fifty-odd Labor members seems to me to derive its chief significance. In other words. I reckon their advent as of really greater moment and as carrying with it wider implications in its social than in its political possibilities. Not that the latter are by any means small or negligible. They raise, on the contrary, a whole host of fascinating speculations. Any one who thinks himself somewhat of a political prophet may find in them material enough for all his ingenuity to work upon. In these fifty Labor members we have unquestionably a new and distinct party. Thirty of them are definitely pledged to act independently of

both the historic parties, and it is only a question of time before the remaining twenty (who at present regard themselves more as a wing of the Liberal party than as a distinct Labor group) join forces with their more resolute brethren. What is likely to be the effect on the party system, as a whole, of the rise of this powerful, able, and disciplined group, holding itself aloof, except for purposes of temporary co-operation, from Liberals and Conservatives alike, and playing the familiar Nationalist game of complete independence tempered by occasional and purely tactical alliances? Does it mean that our politics in England are slipping down the Continental incline? Will the British Cabinets of the future be like the Italian and to some extent the French Cabinets of to-day—less a homogeneous entity than a mosaic of sections, interests, and factions with representatives from nearly every quarter of the Chamber? What, again, is likely to be the influence of Labor on Liberalism? Is England about to witness the beginnings of that movement which on the Continent of Europe has nearly everywhere superseded the old school of Liberalism by a new and militant Socialism, and shows signs of splitting up country after country into a party of the Haves and a party of the Have Nots? Or will Liberalism once more display what we fondly think to be the supreme genius of the English people for politics by altering its focus in time and by taking the lead instead of being dragged in the wake of the novel and incalculable forces that have burst into political life? And, apart from these remoter speculations, there is the significance of the new Labor party in relation to the problems of the immediate present to be considered—its influence. for example, upon trade unionism, upon the House of Lords question, upon the personnel and procedure of the House

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of Commons, upon education, upon the conditions of public employment and public contracts, upon the aims and spirit of municipal socialism, upon the legal responsibilities of strikes, upon the unemployed problem, and upon the attitude of the working classes towards the army, the navy, and the Empire.

These are all questions of indisputable moment, and with some obvious claims to consideration. Nevertheless, as I began by saying, the social aspects of the new Labor party seem to me to have an importance equal to, if not greater than, its political aspects. I am disposed to see in it the first signs that England is at last and really becoming democratic. One of the mitigations of the British system hitherto has been the prejudice of the working classes in favor of Parliamentary representatives who are "gentlemen." That prejudice hardly explains why the middle and upper classes have not been swamped by the vote of the working classes; why the dominant ideals of the country have been those of the wealthy and cautious bourgeoisie; why social reform has somewhat lagged; and why, except in insignificant numbers, Labor has returned to Parliament no members of its own, and has shown until now next to no consciousness that seven-tenths of the voting strength of the country lay in its hands. Nearly all the reasons for these developments—not one of which was anticipated by either the opponents or the advocates of universal suffrage-may be summed up in the paradox that we in England are a democracy but not a democratic nation. We are a democracy presided over by a monarchy and ruled by an oligarchy. The House of Lords is patently and deliberately oligarchical. The six hundred and seventy members of the House of Commons are mostly rich men. has often been said that there is no place where a poor man feels so out of it as in the House of Commons. I doubt whether any legislature in the world can show so large a proportion of wealthy members as the British Parliament. a nation we are suspicious of the poor man in politics. That is undoubtedly one of the reasons why the Irish demand for Home Rule has not yet found favor

with the English electorate. The sort of candidate that the average Englishman of whatever grade in society likes to vote for must first of all, as I said, be a "gentleman." That is to say, if he has money and is ready to spend it; if he has position, social or commercial; if he has received the imprimatur of one of the great schools like Eton or Rugby and of Oxford or Cambridge; if he is known as a generous employer of labor, or as the relative of a Peer, or as an energetic sportsman—then there is no constituency in the land that will not be glad to get him as its representative.

The ordinary American has a good many political convictions. The one that most pleases me is that his next-door neighbor is only a little less qualified than himself to govern the nation. pleases me from its very oppositeness to our English theories. The candidate that most appeals to the English "man in the street" is a member not of his own but of a higher social class. duroy is attracted by tweed, tweed by broadcloth, and broadcloth by ermine. One result of this is that it is practically only the men of means and established position, the men of birth and the men of leisure, who get into Parliament. And getting into Parliament is an easy task compared with getting into the Cabinet. It is an all but invariable rule that a Minister should belong to the "governing class "—that is to say, that he should be a member of the Peerage and its offshoots among the great landowners and county gentlemen, or else one of the comparatively limited number of wealthy persons of mercantile, manufacturing, and professional activities who are admitted into society. It is very little of an exaggeration to say that the governing center of the British Empire is the West End of London. To reach Cabinet rank in England you must have been accepted and indorsed by Mayfair. There are, of course, exceptions to this Outsiders of superlative proficiency in the arts of political success, like Disraeli and Mr. Chamberlain, have occasionally forced themselves, in spite of the bitterest opposition, upon both society and the Cabinet. But it remains the fact that you will scarcely ever find in England a poor man in a high political position without influential connections and first-rate social backing. I doubt whether it would be possible to give a single instance of an English Premier who had not passed most of his life in the innermost recesses of London society, who was not closely connected by ties of marriage or birth or of long and intimate association with the most exclusive sets in the capital, and who did not instinctively turn to men of his own social standing in forming a Cabi-That has always been our English way of doing things, and it is not by any means a bad one. It puts men of good breeding, upright character, fair capacity, and a certain impressive stateliness in charge of affairs; it provides a class that is pretty well equipped for public business; and while it encourages favoritism, it discourages corruption. But it is essentially oligarchical. It takes a good deal of the seriousness out of public life; it reduces politics to an "affair of friends;" and it makes administration and legislation appear a game for wealthy amateurs and a field for the display of the smaller social arts. There are always four or five men in every British Cabinet for whose presence there is not the smallest justification except that they were born in the purple or near it, have always looked upon office as a birthright, and simply decline to be got rid of.

This sort of thing, and all that it stands for, would be impossible in a country that was really democratic in spirit and that had not confused its "values" and strayed from the pathway of reality. An American visiting England is at once made conscious of the profound atmospheric differences that distinguish the two peoples. He finds himself in a land saturated with flunkeyism, a land where the dignity of life is lower than in his own, a land where a man born in ordinary circumstances expects and is expected to die in ordinary circumstances, where life is one long battering at locked doors and floundering in blind alleys, where the scope of the individual's efforts is too largely traced beforehand by the accident of social position, where a man is handi-

capped in all cases and crushed in most by the superincumbent weight of caste privileges, "good form," and the deadening artificialities of an old society. is not the English way for a man himself to make his own career and to be judged and rewarded simply and solely for what he is and for what he does. There, unhappily, the conventions stifle, false standards are in the ascendant, and the worship of externals and appearances has grown to be a national disease. That is why a great many Englishmen hail the new Labor party, apart altogether from its political programme, as an inspiring omen. They see in its emergence the beginnings of a true social regeneration that will be independent of the legislation which it may or may not advocate.

If I have made my point clear, it will be seen to be little less than revolutionary that some hundreds of thousands of English workingmen should have broken away from the domination of caste and adventitious influences and should have voted squarely for representatives of their own social level. Of course they have done so in a class spirit and for class ends. That was only to be expected. Still, it remains true that for English workingmen to support their social equals instead of meekly accepting their social superiors is a sign in them of a new moral health. It implies an alteration of standards that can scarcely, for the good of England, be carried too far. It means that their attention is becoming concentrated more on the things that really matter in life and less on what Burke called its "solemn plausibilities." And the men they have sent to represent them in Parliament are men not merely of their own social class but of their own stamp of character. They are direct, hard-headed men of affairs, unfettered by tradition and equally dissatisfied with both the historic parties and with the antiquated procedure of the Assembly in which they intend to make themselves felt. They go to the legislature with what is almost a new conception in English politics—they go to legislate. They do not go to make speeches for the pleasure of making speeches, or to advance purely personal or professional interests, or to use Parliament as a social ladder. They go to do things; and the House of Commons at present is inclined to be a conspiracy for doing nothing. I do not really very much care what measures they propose so long as they import into the artificial atmosphere of our English politics, as I believe they will, a new earnestness, a new reality, and a new efficiency. I look to them to test the worth of men and things by standards that may, and no doubt will, offend many conventions, but that will also receive the approval of all who hate

cant and shams. I look to them to restore those juster proportions that the conditions of English life and politics have tended to distort. I look to them, in short, to initiate an influence and an example that will grow at once more intensive and more extensive, that will prove the most powerful of all forces in the remaking of England, and that will eventually help the people to become as democratic in their daily life and social instincts as they long have been in their political forms and institutions.

SCHUMANN AND THE ROMANTIC MOVEMENT

BY DANIEL GREGORY MASON

HE story of the life and work of Schumann forms one of the most enlightening documents in the history of romanticism in music. Were there no other romantic composers, we could almost construct the type from this one individual. His youth reveals clearly all the traits of the born romanticist: the delight in a richly sensuous tonal basis, the interest in specialized expression and in allusions to extramusical ideas and objects, the free rein for fancy, the capricious subjectivity, the attitude of lordly indifference to tradition; and his later years show no less clearly the tendency of the sincere romanticist to subject himself to discipline in the interests of a broader and more universal ideal. He who would understand romanticism, both its glories and its shortcomings, should give his days and nights to Schumann.

In Schumann's life a happy, careless, rather unregulated boyhood, divided between dreamy introspection and high animal spirits, led naturally into a youth of eager enthusiasms and earnest but intermittent study. There was much desultory reading and piano-playing, initiation into the congenial atmosphere of such romantic authors as Hoffmann, Byron, Heine, and Jean Paul Richter, clever but impatient dalliance with poetic and musical composition. The earliest

piano pieces, characteristically, were fanciful sketches of personal friends. Then came the death of Schumann's father, and the decision of the young poet's guardian that he should study But by 1830 Schumann had got his own way, and started off to Leipsic to become a concert pianist. A year later he managed to cripple his right hand irremediably by a mechanical device which his impatience suggested as a short cut to virtuosity. His attention was thus forcibly concentrated on composing, and during the decade of 1830-1840 he produced an extraordinary series of pianoforte works.

The first thing one notes about these early pieces is the liveliness of their author's fancy, his tendency to connect all his musical impressions with thoughts and interests of an extra-musical char-His Opus 1, for instance, consists of Variations on a theme the notes of which spell in musical letters the name Abegg (A-B-E-G-G), a pseudonym given by Schumann to a lady whose beauty he had admired. This entirely factitious and rather childish mode of referring from musical to extra-musical experiences seems to have had a special charm for Schumann. He wrote in the album of Gade, the Danish composer, a theme spelling "Gade, ade" ("Gade, farewell"); his opus 72 consists of six

organ fugues on the name B-A-C-H; and the Carnival is founded on a theme spelling A-S-C-H, in honor of a lady who lived in a town of that name.

The fanciful machinery is even more elaborate in the Davidbündlertänze, op. 6. Conceiving it as a part of his artistic duty to oppose the philistinism which pervaded music, Schumann dramatized the conflict as a struggle between the Davidsbund, or club of Davidites, and the forces of Philistia. His fancy played about this central conception until it had evolved a whole company of Davidites, individualizing each one. Several were merely single aspects of their creator's complex temperament. Florestan was the impassioned Schumann, Eusebius the dreamy and tender Schumann, Raro the philosophical mediator between the two. Others indicated friends, as Felix Meritis, Mendelssohn; and Chiarina, Clara Wieck, who afterwards became Schumann's wife. fictitious characters were constantly used for literary purposes by Schumann in the musical journal which he edited, the "New Journal of Music;" but what specially interests us here is their use in the Davidsbündlertänze. Each dance is signed by an initial, F. or E., signifying Florestan or Eusebius. There are even "stage directions," as, at one place, " Florestan stops, his lips trembling painfully." There are two mottoes, one an old proverb and one a musical motto of Clara Wieck, with which the composition begins; and the whole ends with a "March of the Davidites against the Philistines," in which the latter are symbolized by the old German Grossvatertanz. The same tendency to look through music to something else is shown in other works, such as the Kreisleriana, which is descriptive of a character in one of Hoffmann's tales, the Phantasiestücke, which have such highly fanciful titles as "Soaring," "Whims," and "Why," and the Faschingsschwank, in which is hidden a political joke.

All these tricks and whimsies are significant because of the light they throw on the romantic nature of Schumann's youthful interest in music. He is at this period inveterately subjective, personal, and allusive. What he aims at is by no means an objective, impersonal beauty, such as the Greek tradition stands for in art, but rather the charming presentment of very intimate, individual feelings and sentiments. Self-revelation is the ideal; and the works it produces are necessarily rather illustrations than monuments. possessing more interest and discursive suggestion than abstract beauty. this is not only in keeping with the romantic spirit, but a natural result of Schumann's previous musical training. He lacked the discipline, and the competent technique which discipline gives, that are requisite to the production of perfect and serene works. His youthful activities had been too miscellaneous and unorganized for the attainment of high musicianship. What he gained in versatility he lost in concentration.

There is, accordingly, a lack of sustained musical power in all this group of his compositions. The curve of his melodic flight is short and constantly renewed. There are few long, deliberate climaxes; a lack of restraint and reserve power makes itself felt. Even the sonatas, op. 11 and 22, are rather bundles of lyrical pieces, embedded as it were in a matrix of improvisation, than large coherent structures. On the other hand, all the fascinating and magical beauties of romanticism are here in generous meas-The richness and the variety of the sensuous effects are amazing. mony is massive, solid, and fresh. rhythms are nervous and vigorous. The melodic phrases are short but seizing, fragments of delicious tunefulness that, once heard, cannot be forgotten. invention is as unflagging as it is wayward, and the decoration is of an Oriental luxuriance. In a word, if there is something left to be desired in scope and control of imagination, there is such ceaseless play of fancy that our bewitched ears hardly have an opportunity to discover what they miss.

At about his thirtieth year, however, Schumann's artistic ideal underwent a gradual but radical transformation. We see him in the compositions of this time paying less and less attention to those

In German there are more musical letters than in English. H is B-natural (B being B-flat), S is E-flat, etc. Several composers have written fugues on the name of Bach.

purely personal whims and fancies that had at first dominated his imagination, and beginning to work very earnestly toward objective beauty and impersonal expression. The fictitious characters, the mottoes, the stage directions, the whole elaborate machinery of allusion to extra-musical interests, are forgotten, and the interest of the music itself becomes all in all. There had been already. among the works of his "storm and stress period," single compositions in which the dramatic interest was wholly subordinated to the musical, as, for example, the great Toccata, opus 7, the Allegro, opus 8, and the Novelettes, opus 21; but now what had been only occasional in the days when fancy and a self-involved emotional life absorbed him grew to be normal and constant, and he became for the first time a liberal and devoted artist.

Of the causes underlying this important change, the most fundamental was doubtless simply increasing maturity. Youth is naturally and innocently egotistical; the young man of sensibility loses himself in day-dreams and whimsical fancies, which have no basis in experience, and no reference to anything beyond themselves; age brings a sense of the values of real life, sobers and domesticates the passions, and enlarges the interests until they spread from the self to all humanity. In an artistic nature this general change of attitude involves a change of artistic ideal; poignancy, intensity of expression, become less valued than justice and proportion, the merely self-expressive comes to seem trivial, and whimsicalities are discarded as interfering with the serenity of a universal beauty. Schumann's change of attitude was simply an unusually striking case of what happens to every perceptive mind when experience has been sufficiently assimilated.

The story of Schumann's courtship of Clara Wieck has an important bearing on this question of the development of his character. It has been fully and vividly told by Mr. Richard Aldrich in a magazine article. Suffice it to say here that the marriage was stubbornly opposed for years by Clara Wieck's father, who

seems to have desired for himself all that Clara could earn as a virtuoso: that Schumann endured Wieck's unreasonable tyranny with wonderful patience, and tried all possible ways to win his consent; and that finally the lovers were obliged to take the matter to the courts. and were married against Wieck's will in 1840. It is not difficult to realize how the long devotion and unswerving loyalty, the doubt, anxiety, and suffering, and the final courageous exertion of will, involved in this courtship, must have matured the young musician who until then had been absorbed in musical dreaming and in random love affairs. When at last he was happily married, the romantic fickleness lay far behind him, and it was with clear and far-seeing eyes from that time forth that he looked upon life and music.

Another influence to the same end was the purely musical influence of Bach. As early as 1829 Schumann made a thorough study of the "Well-Tempered Clavichord," and from that day Bach became for him a main source of inspiration. In 1832 he writes in a letter: "I have taken the fugues one by one, and dissected them down to their minutest parts. The advantage of this is great, and seems to have a strengthening effect on one's whole system; for Bach was a thorough man, there is nothing sickly or stunted about him, and his works seem written for eternity." By 1845 we find Schumann literally taking the contrapuntal forms of Bach as models for his own compositions; among his chief works of that year are the Studies for Pedal Piano, the six Organ Fugues on the letters B-A-C-H, and the four Fugues for Piano, op. 72. The importance of this enthusiasm can hardly be overestimated. Of all composers Bach is the most purely and deeply musical, the most thoroughly founded on natural tonal laws, the least infected with extraneous ideals and meretricious methods. His art is quite objective and universal; he makes no concession to vulgarity or to insensibility, and his taste is as pure as his skill is impeccable. That Schumann the artist was as powerfully influenced toward health and nobility by Bach as Schumann the man was influenced toward

^{1&}quot; Music," Vol. 18.

wide sympathy and generous ideals by an increasing experience of life, no one who studies his activity after 1840 can doubt.

His very method of working, after he married and settled down to regular conditions, is significant of the change of attitude we have been tracing. Scarcely any other composer has pursued his calling in so precise and orderly a way. One after another he took up the various media of composition, mastered each so far as he was able, and laid it aside to turn to the next. The year 1840 he gave up almost entirely to song-writing, as was natural to one who had at last found happiness after years of doubt, anxiety, and waiting. In 1841, turning to the largest forms, he wrote three symphonies, and began his single but incomparable piano concerto. In 1842, after shutting himself in his study with the quartets of Mozart and Beethoven, he came forth with the three Quartets, op. 41, the Piano Quintet, and the Piano Quartet. His first large choral work, "Paradise and the Peri," was written in 1843, and others succeeded it from time to time. It was in the midst of this systematic attack upon Parnassus that the first symptoms showed themselves of that terrible brain disease which overshadowed his later years, which marred many of the works of his last decade, and which finally killed him in 1856.

In the songs, chamber-music, and orchestral and choral compositions of the mature Schumann we find, in spite of the advance in scope and mastery they represent, essentially the same qualities that give so indefinable a charm to the youthful piano pieces. Romantic ardor, warmth, glowing enthusiasm—that is the constant character of Schumann's music. Delicate sentiment, insurgent passion, and the magical beauty that transfigures both, are found no less in the "Manfred" Overture, written in 1848, than in the "Papillons" of 1830. There is the same abounding nervous force and manly vigor. There is the same mysticism, introspection, tendency to become rapt in thoughtful meditation. There is the same richness, too, of sensuous effect—the full, sonorous harmonies, the organ chords, the shimmering veils of dissonance, the

sudden vistas of new tonality. But added to all these there is in many of the later pieces a new vigor, a fuller virility, an austerer and more solid beauty, due largely to the influence of Bach. literal imitations of Bach's manner, to be sure, are not wholly successful; the body is caught, but the spirit evaporates; and the unwonted restrictions of the style cause awkwardness and a repellent angularity. But in the more lyrical compositions the Bach influence is most happily efficacious. Free polyphony, the canon, the sequence, and the dissonance used as a harmonic rivet, give such piano pieces as the Etudes Symphoniques, and such larger compositions as the finale of the great Piano Quintet and the cathedral movement of the Rhenish Symphony, a strength, an emotional intensity, and an artistic dignity that pure romanticism never attains. The more we study Schumann's true masterpieces, the more we realize how worthy a student he was of the greatest of masters. It was with a legitimate pride that he said, "I daily confess to this high power, to purify and to strengthen myself through him."

On the other hand, it must be confessed that Schumann never fully mastered the lesson of Beethoven. The supreme artistic glory of the great symphonist is the result of a perfect flexibility in the phraseology, and of a complex but truly integral organization in the entire structure of an extended work. Schumann fell far short of him in both respects. The brief scope and lyrical character of his themes, and his tendency to become the slave of a rhythmical formula, too often led him to cut all his phrases on the same pattern, and to repeat a given rhythm as a wall-paper or a carpet repeats a given figure. An extreme case is the theme of his first published work, the Abegg Variations, which consists of a two-measure phrase reproduced sixteen times; Mr. Hadow points out that "in the opening movement of the quintet the first four bars contain two clauses, upon which are built the whole of the first subject and the transition; while the first two bars of the second subject contain the clause upon which the whole of the succeeding melody is constructed." And even in

the symphonies, where variety of phraseology is most to be desired, analysis will reveal, through long stretches, a break at the end of every eight measures. The weakness in respect of the larger elements of structure is equally noticeable. In many of his piano works, as, for example, the "Novelettes," the "Arabeske," the "Kreisleriana," he makes no attempt at sustained development, but adopts a mosaic type of form, in which the several parts make no pretense of interrelationship. The discursive habit of mind of which this type of form gives evidence was invincibly established by the time he turned to chamber and orchestral composition, and it made his larger works take the shape of bundles of detached pieces.

So much of adverse criticism must perhaps be conceded to the devil's advocate; but, after all, it leaves Schumann's real claim upon our interest unimpugned. He is, first and last, in symphony and quartet, as well as in song and piano piece, a romanticist. He wins us by the freshness and sincerity of his emotion, by the sensuous delight of his harmonies and rhythms, by the brief but perfect moments of beauty of which he holds the secret. The musical landscape he spreads before us is picturesque rather than sublime, but once we have felt the solicitation of its brooks and trees and meadows we shall often gladly forget for a while the wider sweep of mountain scenery in our eagerness to wander there.

THE STRUGGLE AGAINST SOCIAL DESPOTISM'

THEN some despot like the Sultan of Turkey gives an order which results in a massacre, we Americans are rightly horrified. When an autocrat like the sovereign of the Congo permits a system of commercial exploitation to sacrifice African lives to the spirit of gain, we Americans wisl. that we could do something to interfere. Our humane instincts are creditable; and they are naturally aroused when we can see in some such simple form the desire for power or wealth thus crushing any people. In the meantime, before our very eyes, there are whole classes of people in America who are as truly subject to the tyranny of death, disease, want, vice, and crime as any Armenian or Congo native to his master. It is true, our humane feelings are stirred for those whom we see suffering or destitute in our own land; the puny, sickly child we send to a hospital; the consumptive working-girl we sometimes send into the

country; the unruly boy we put into a truant school; the drunken man we try to reform; but for the wrongs which such as these suffer we have no one to blame. When we hear of an Armenian massacre, our first thought is not to establish hospitals for the wounded, but to demand that the massacre cease; yet when we learn that thousands of the children of the poor die from diseases which spare the children of the well-todo; that thousands of others live only to be crippled, defective, inefficient; that young women earning wages are left to struggle unprotected against the allied forces of hunger and vice, and appalling numbers of them are forced to succumb to the one or the other-we have no sultan or king whom we can call to account, we see no murderer with sword or gun whose hand we can stay, and we ignore the fact that the responsibility rests upon ourselves.

Three books have recently been published which tell part of the story which literally millions of people in this prosperous land are enacting in lives confronted with destitution and death. Happily, these three books, frank and serious as they are in stating the cruelty

¹ The Long Day. The Story of a New York Working Girl as Told by Herself. The Century Company, New York. \$1.20, net.

The Butter Cry of the Children. By John Spargo. The Macmillan Company, New York. \$1.50, net.

Some Ethical Gains Through Legislation. By Florence Kelley. The Macmillan Company, New York. \$1.25, net.

of conditions and in placing the blame for those conditions upon the social system under which we live, are alike in suggesting to the reader constructive measures. They are not by any means revolutionary tracts, or essays in complaint; they are rather the records of three people who have known intimately the life of those that bear the heaviest part of the burden of industry, who have told what they have seen, and who are concerned, not with relieving symptoms, but with curing evils.

"The Long Day" is a bit of autobiography. The unnamed writer tells what she has experienced as a workinggirl in the city of New York. Few novels have such sheer narrative interest as this book; fewer still combine with such interest so vivid portraiture. The book abounds, too, with descriptive writing of no mean order. It is full of sounds and sights, of moods and atmosphere, of real people and real experi-That it is imaginative cannot be denied; but it is far from being imagi-The author frankly says that she has manipulated her material; but she has molded it skillfully. No one who knows the life in the crowded city can escape the conviction that here that life is pictured from the workingwoman's point of view as it is. This, moreover, is not the story of an investigator; it is the story of a girl who heard ringing in her ears the refrain "Work or starve."

Not the least interesting and valuable portion of the book is the final chapter, in which she states her conclusions, first as to the cause of the wretchedness she saw and experienced, second, as to the The primary cause she gives remedy. is the fact that working-girls do not know how to work; that is, they do not understand, and have never had the chance to understand, "the general principles of intelligent labor." It is worthy of note that the author found in Booker T. Washington's "Up from Slavery" the book which explained to her "what was the real trouble with myself and all the rest of the struggling, ill-paid, wretched workingwomen with whom I had come in contact during my apprenticeship." It is an impressive fact that, in looking for a remedy, this working-girl, who apparently

saw only the worst side of institutional religion, concludes that "a live and progressive church—a church imbued with the Christian spirit in the broadest and most liberal interpretation of the term can do for us, and do it quickly and at once, more than all the college settlements and all the trades unions that can be organized within the next ten years could do." But it is to the Church as a solver of social difficulties and the proclaimer of a social gospel that she looks. Among immediate specific needs she gives an important place to self-supporting, well-conducted lodging-houses for workingwomen.

As "The Long Day" deals with the social problem as it affects women, so Mr. John Spargo's book deals with it as it affects the children. The volume is an attempt to discuss the statement made by Mr. Robert Hunter in his volume " Poverty " concerning underfed children in the cities. It is, however, much more than this. It is a picture of the terrible burden which the children of the poor bear at the behest of society. It is not necessary to enter into the detailed statements of the book. The destruction and distortion of child life through lack of nutriment is grievous beyond words. More conservative figures than Mr. Spargo's cannot erase the shameful fact that society permits scores of thousands of children to die, and thousands of scores of other children to be blighted for life, in order that rich men may be saved trouble in making money, that dividends may be possibly increased and taxes may be possibly reduced. The experience of Rochester, New York, in reducing the infant mortality for July and August by one-half through the single measure of improving the milk supply indicates how many children are sacrificed to social neglect. The inexcusable economic extravagance, to say nothing about the inhumanity, of child labor is also forcibly expressed. The whole problem, however, is stated when Mr. Spargo points out that the evil will be eradicated only when every child is given a chance to obtain a share of the inheritance of the ages, and is relieved of that curse of want which to-day condemns countless children of the poor from their birth.

Mr. Spargo believes that the complete remedy will come only with Socialism—that is, "the socialization of the means of life." Among remedies "involving no fundamental change in the social structure," however, Mr. Spargo suggests the prohibition of the employment of women for a certain period before and after childbirth, public instruction in duties of motherhood, municipal day nurseries, municipal control in detail of the milk supply, public provision of food and careful medical inspection for all school-children, and more rigorous child labor laws.

Of Mrs. Florence Kelley's volume entitled "Some Ethical Gains through Legislation" it may perhaps justly be said that among the three books here reviewed it is the most successful in making clear the principle upon which all rest-the principle of the solidarity of society. Ot the three it will probably best repay careful study. Although its title is constructive, it is very far from being an indiscriminate record of what is good in present social conditions. It is rather a brief critical examination of the halting progress that has been made by the United States toward greater social welfare. The first two chapters cover the same field as Mr. Spargo's book, but in a different way. Besides stating conditions, they tabulate the provisions of the laws of the States on the subject of child labor. Two chapters are devoted to "the right to leisure" that is, to restriction in hours of labor.

In a chapter on The Right of Women to the Ballot appears, in spite of its brevity, one of the broadest arguments for woman suffrage we have seen. The last two chapters deal with the protection of purchasers. Whether the reader agrees with Mrs. Kelley in all her statements or not-and there are several points at which others equally concerned for social progress would take issue with her—he will receive two impressions from this book: one is an increased sense of the responsibility which rests upon society for insuring to every member of it a fair chance, and, conversely, the responsibility upon every individual for doing his share of society's task; the other is an increased sense of the function of law, not to make men good, but to express the ethical convictions and fix the moral practices which society at any stage of its evolution reaches.

The reader of these three books will find in them, not only an explanation of what Dr. John Graham Brooks calls the "social unrest," but also an indication of the direction in which people who best know the conditions are looking for cure. In "The Long Day" he will find a dramatic portrayal of one aspect of those conditions; in "The Bitter Cry of the Children" he will find an appeal on behalf of the least of those who suffer; and in "Some Ethical Gains through Legislation" he will find a brief, terse, but readable review of recent progress toward better things.

Comment on Current Books

The collaborated his-The Biography of tory has passed the an English Prelate experimental stage, and now we are face to face with the collaborated biography. It is improbable, however, that the fortune of the latter will be that of the former. At any rate, as exemplified in the recently published life of Frederick Temple, Archbishop of Canterbury, the plan seems foredoomed to failure. This biography is the work of seven of the late Archbishop's friends, each of whom deals with a special phase of his career. Thus, the school-boy and the undergraduate are shown to us by Dr. Wilson, Canon of Worcester; the civil servant in the Education Office, by Dr. H. J.

Roby; the Head Master of Rugby, by Mr. F. E. Kitchener, himself a master at the famous school; the Bishop of Exeter, by Archdeacon Sandford, who perhaps more than any of the other writers reveals the man and his work; the Bishop of London, by Archdeacon Bevan; the Archbishop of Canterbury, by Bishop Browne and Archdeacon Spooner; and, finally, Archdeacon Sandford gives a supplementary account of the Archbishop's career and personality as exhibited through his letters. This method obviously has advantages, particularly in insuring a complete record and a survey from varying points of view. But the disadvantages are more numerous and more weighty. In the

present instance the record is far too full. Every writer appears to have endeavored to incorporate into his part all the facts and information available, important and unimportant; so that the sense of proportion is lost and no definite impression of the qualities and achievements of the Archbishop is left on the reader's mind. Indeed, the biography would have been richer in actuality and informativeness had it been compressed, as it easily might have been, into a single volume. More serious is the inability of the writers to secure that detachment of vision necessary to a correct estimate of their subject. Archbishop Temple's life was undoubtedly noble and inspiring; but to present it as they have presented it is to give rise to exaggerated ideas of his place in the public, if not the ecclesiastical, history of his times. In fine, what we have here is, at most, a copious but fragmentary collection of materials from which a close and neither prejudiced nor prepossessed student may some time derive the facts for an adequate and convincing biography of the late Primate of All England. (Memoirs of Archbishop Temple. By Seven Friends. Edited by E. G. Sandford, Archdeacon of Exeter. 2 vols. The Macmillan Company, New York. \$9 per set.)

A woman of experience and Childhood common sense talks with other parents about the best ways of training children in this excellent little book. Introduced by G. Stanley Hall, Mrs. Theodore W. Birney is sufficiently indorsed to insure readers, who will immediately agree with her wise suggestions. The emphasis she places upon the family as a closely bound community, whose interests are mutual, is very important, in these days of what might be termed tangential family life. It is to be hoped that her plea for a system of allowances for children in order to train them financially will be heeded. The truth of the Spanish proverb she quotes is evident in this relation: "You can plan your garment as often as you choose; you can cut it but once." (Childhood. By Mrs. Theodore W. Birney. The Frederick A. Stokes Company, New York. \$1.10, postpaid.)

The Conquest of Canada

An American "definitive" edition has now been published of Major William Wood's "The Fight for Canada," which was reviewed in some detail in our issue of September 10, 1904. Further comment is unnecessary, save to remark that Major Wood has carefully revised his work and has included several additional notes, not the least interesting of which touch on the dispute concerning the authenticity of the tradition of Wolfe and Gray's "Elegy." We would

remind our readers that this book provides not only the latest but the most authoritative account of the Quebec campaign, being based entirely on original sources, some of which have hitherto been inaccessible; and that in its pages justice is for the first time done to the part played by the naval forces in the struggle which terminated French influence in the New World. (The Fight for Canada. By William Wood. Little, Brown & Co., Boston. \$2.50, net.)

A few years ago we in-The Christ of America were charmed by English Poetry the lectures given by the Dean of Ely upon the noble Cathedral of St. Etheldreda, whose history and beauty he unfolded in a spirit of devout loyalty. In his Hulsean lectures, before the University of Cambridge, last year, Dean Stubbs displays the same mastery of his subject and the same power of illuminating discourse. Believing that Personality is the mightiest force in the world, and that Christ is the supreme Personality of all history, the lecturer shows plainly that this claim to supremacy throughout all human thought and action ought to affect the moral character no less than the mental attitude of every baptized disciple of Jesus. Accepting Shelley's dictum that poets are the most representative, most prophetic, most clear-sighted and deep-hearted men of their time, the four lectures are devoted to an analysis of four periods in English history, and four poets are chosen as representing the idea of the great Personality. They are called as witnesses to the Personality of Christ and to the spirit of his religion, and he is shown as the mighty figure in the way, before men "very man and very God." Cynewulf's poem, "The Christ," is analyzed as representative of the eighth and ninth centuries. William Langland, at the close of the fourteenth century, reflected his time in "Piers Plowman." Of course no question could arise but that Shakespeare in the sixteenth and Browning in the nineteenth century best convey to us the great influence of Christ as seen through the minds of the poets. It is a keen intellectual pleasure to read these scholarly and most graceful discourses, stimulating as they are to our own thought. An added luxury is to be enjoyed in the excellent form of the bookperfect print upon tough, light paper. (The Christ of English Poetry. By Charles William Stubbs, D.D. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. \$2, net.)

Daniel and His Prophecies In these lectures, recently given at the summer school in connection with the Episcopal Church, Dr. C. H. H. Wright, a British

scholar of some distinction, in his argument for the traditional view of the book of Daniel, has the advantage both in learning and in temper of some whose writings we have lately noticed. He agrees with them, however, in stigmatizing the modern view as "rationalistic"—a term of orthodox reproach for the dissatisfaction of reason with reasons it deems inconclusive. The conclusiveness of Dr. Wright's reasons for the belief he defends is less evident to us than to him. Not finding it in the historical portion of Daniel, he finds it in the prophetical, though this, as he admits, has been made to serve a variety of interpretations. Accepting as historical the stories of the three who passed unhurt through the furnace, and of the angel who protected Daniel from the lions, Dr. Wright says that their credibility rests mainly on the credibility of the book itself, and this in turn "has to be proved from the truth of the prophecies." The interpretation of these, introduced by a new translation of the book, based on the Revised Version, occupies the major part of these lectures. What the Hebrew editors of the Old Testament thought of the book of Daniel appears from their placing it, not among the books of the prophets, as in our Bibles, but in a later collection along with Ruth, Esther, and Ecclesiastes. Even Dr. Wright admits that a variety of interpolations occur in the book, and that the closing prophecy " in its present form" cannot be proved to be earlier than B.C. 164. But in the first, or historical, part of the book we find the term "Chaldeans" used in the sense it carried at that late date—a guild of astrologers—whereas in Daniel's time, four centuries earlier, it denoted an imperial nation. What Christian interest is served by pertinaciously reproaching with "rationalism" those whom such evidences convince, and why this should be favorably regarded by "a number of the highest dignitaries of the Church of England," is as mysterious as the meaning of "the thousand three hundred and five and thirty days" of prophecy. (Daniel and His Prophecies. By Rev. Charles H. H. Wright, D.D. Little, Brown & Co., Boston. \$2.50, net.)

The Dynasts

The second part of this elaborate attempt by a novelist of very high rank to show with panoramic breadth, in the poetic spirit and in dramatic form, the scope and significance of the great Napoleonic struggle, and to bring into clear light the heroic part played by England in that struggle, deepens the impression of the bigness, so to speak, of the idea, the force of imagination behind it, and the entire inability of Mr. Hardy to do what he has attempted to do. No one but a man of genius could

evolve such a conception as that which underlies this great drama, and no one but a great poet could adequately realize that conception. Now, Mr. Hardy is a man of genius, who has written a few novels that have put him in the front rank of English novelists; but he is not a poet; and "The Dynasts," in spite of certain great qualities, is a lamentable failure because it is not poetry. There is an occasional lift of wing in a phrase, an occasional touch of poetry in a sentence; but, as a whole, it is like a great balloon which lies collapsed upon the ground. There have been many instances of the waste of time and strength in our time by men of great gifts who were attempting to do something for which neither their gifts nor their training fitted them; and among these attempts "The Dynasts" must surely find a first place. It is absolutely hopeless as a poem. (The Dynasts. By Thomas Hardy. The Macmillan Company, New York. \$1.50.)

A high ideal of Ethical Principles marriage is the of Marriage and Divorce starting-point of this monograph by Mr. Louis F. Post. "Each of the parties to a genuine marriage must be in love with the higher intellectual qualities and the deeper moral impulses of the other." It may occur to the reader that this is rather the ideal of marriage, and that genuine marriage short of this comparatively rare ideal may yet exist. Mr. Post, however, argues that without such unifying love marriage is essentially no better than concubinage. Genuine marriage is not created by the formal ceremony that is requisite to declare it; it exists before such declaration; it dies, if the love that constitutes it dies; it is reasonable and also conducive to moral interests that there should be a conventional release from the remaining conventional bond. But the rights of the persons immediately interested and the rights of society itself must be duly provided for. Mr. Post, therefore, insists on a "reasonably liberal" divorce law, though conceding to the churches full freedom to rule as they judge right in their separate sphere. Divorce having been formally declared, any legal prohibition of another marriage belongs, in his view, to "a system of meddling paternalism," and is both immoral and provocative of immorality. It should be said that the emphasis of Mr. Post's argument is rightly laid on the ideal conception with which it begins and ends. "Marriage love is not complete in any case until, aglow with mutual association and service, it radiates outward in democratic service to others." (Ethical Principles of Marriage and Divorce. By Louis F. Post. The Public Publishing Company, Chicago. \$1, net.)

Time has dealt hardly Spirit of His Dramas with Euripides, of Euripides and the dramas only seventeen have come down to us entire. Professor Decharme, of the Paris Faculty of Letters, believes that until a recent period modern critics, misled by Aristophanes, a personal enemy, have underrated him both as a man and a poet. In this work he would reveal to us the true Euripides. School-boys have long been taught that he stands among the Greek tragedians the third in rank, next to Æschylus and Sophocles. Modern poets from Dante to Browning have shown his effect upon them. "No other Greek poet except Homer," says Professor John Williams White, of Harvard, in his Introduction to the present translation by Mr. James Loeb, "has made so deep and lasting an impression on ancient and modern literature." Dr. White regards him as "an interesting example of an unusual type, an elderly man with an open mind." As an independent thinker and an innovator he did not escape in his time the fate of such. But as such he wrought effectively by his advanced views for the emancipation of thought among his countrymen. What these views were, as bearing upon religious traditions, philosophy, society, and politics, is the subject of Part I. of Professor Decharme's work. Part II. is devoted to a critical study of Euripides's dramatic art, with especial regard to points of controversy, and to new discoveries and criticism. Consequently the work appeals largely to critics of literary art. They will agree at least in this, that Euripides is the great leader of the realistic school, in all the heights and depths of which his genius moved and still moves upon men's hearts. (Euripides and the Spirit of his Dramas. By Paul Decharme. Translated by James Loeb, A.B. The Macmillan Company, New York. \$3.)

In this authorized translation Future Life of a noteworthy book by M. Louis Elbé, of Paris, ancient wisdom and modern science are summoned to testify, and are found to agree. Part I. records the beliefs and customs which among the most unlike peoples from primitive to modern times attest the general conviction of a subtle element in man which outlives his physical organism. Part II. finds that science, up to the limit of its competency to affirm, affirms the probability of that survival which faith, reaching further, asserts. The reader is introduced to the recent theories and experiments of French savants, especially mentionable among which are the researches of M. de Rochas, showing that sensitivity is "essentially distinct " from the physical body, and can be externalized from it. In this highly interesting section of the work the scientific conception of the immaterial ether figures largely. M. Elbé concludes that consciousness passes over into future life, but is there transformed, and that the moral attainments here made are conserved. It is rather curious to find this devout Roman Catholic, who believes that an agreement between science and religion will be effected by an infallible decision of the Pope, committing himself to the materialistic doctrine that all our choices are necessitated to be what they are, and that consciousness is illusory in affirming that any liberty of choice exists. (Future Life. By Louis Elbé. A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago. \$1.20, net.)

The Golden
Greyhound

This belongs to what may be called the preposterous school of romance, that in which nothing matters—least of all common sense—provided there be a treasure, a villain, and a girl. And this, it may be added, is a particularly silly example of its silly class. (The Golden Greyhound. By Dwight Tilton. Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Company, Boston. \$1.50.)

Hearts and Creeds An unusually good story by Anna Chapin Ray, whose art has steadily improved from a modest and yet admirable beginning. A willful beauty, confirmed in the Church of England, yet entirely undisciplined in character, marries a French-Canadian Catholic. The recognized cleavage in Canada between English and French residents, in social as well as in religious lines, is clearly elaborated in the development of the story. Two attractive Americans, brother and sister, a Parisian, and a real Englishman are introduced to complete the international company. Life in Quebec, politically and socially, passes before us in vivid panorama. The struggle between the deeply religious devotion of Lelen and the pettish obstinacy of his Protestant wife, culminating in the baptism of their child, does not show that wife in an enviable light. But other characters in the attractive story reclaim it from tragedy, and two most happy marriages recall us to life as it really is—a mingling of gold and dross. The pictures by Mrs. Stephens are really beautiful. (Hearts and Creeds. By Anna Chapin Ray. Little, Brown & Co., Boston. \$1.50.)

History of the Parish of Trinity Church New York Dr. Morgan Dix here brings the history of the ancient parish down to 1862,

when he became its ninth rector. The period

covered by this, the fourth, volume includes with the thirty-two years of the rectorship of his predecessor, Dr. Berrian, the last three years of Dr. Hobart, dating from 1827. The noble typographic form of the work, compiled by order of the Corporation, comports well with its dignity and wealth among New York's institutions. A variety of incidents that attracted much public interest in their time occur in this record. Great but transient excitement was caused by the refusal of nine clergymen of the vicinity to attend the consecration of the new church in 1846, as a protest against the Romeward tendency discovered in the request to wear a surplice and scarf on that occasion; so strong was the Puritan spirit not long ago. (History of the Parish of Trinity Church in the City of New York. Edited by Morgan Dix, D.D. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. \$5, net, per vol.)

Holland In this volume, as in former books upon Japan and Russia, Miss Singleton intelligently combines excerpts from well-known writers, such as Edmondo de Amicis, F. S. Bird, Freeman the historian, and a dozen or more others. Together they give an excellent idea of the country, its history, its people and their customs, and the book is naturally particularly full on the side of description. There are many well-chosen photographic illustrations. (Holland: As Seen and Described by Famous Writers. Collected and Edited by Esther Singleton. Dodd, Mead & Co., New York. \$1.60, net.)

This book by Dr. Jesus: An Charles Van Norden, Unfinished Portrait of Sacramento, a veteran Congregationalist minister, now retired from the pastorate, is a fresh sign of the changing time. The Christology of the creeds is, in his view, mythological; the teaching of the New Testament goes not so far. Sociologically, both Protestant and Roman Catholic Churches would amaze the Master whose name they bear. Of the three antichrists-dogmatism, ecclesiasticism, and capitalism-while the two former have become like Bunyan's decrepit giants, Pope and Pagan, the third now succeeds to the plenitude of power, rendering worldly the devout and unchurching a great social class. However just Dr. Van Norden's criticism of the churches, in which he has not gone beyond the facts apparent on one side, it would be much more just had equally apparent facts on the other side been recognized. The social aspects and obligations of Christianity are now being pressed to the front as never before, and (though much remains to be done) with steadily increasing energy and

effect. To say that "two-thirds of the church edifices should be sold, and at least half of the educated ministers and priests allowed to seek other employment," is more vehement than judicious. Fewer and better, undoubtedly, both of churches and ministers, would be for the credit and influence of both. The true line of betterment Dr. Van Norden well discerns. Instead of contenting itself with trying to pluck individuals out of the world's evil, the Church must also war against the world's evil, devoting itself to the imperiled social interests with which the yet unapplied half of the Gospel of Jesus is concerned. Then, as we understand the somewhat enigmatical title of the book, the portrait of Jesus, to exhibit which in convincing impressiveness is the mission of his Church, would no longer be unfinished. (Jesus: An Unfinished Portrait. By Charles Van Norden. Funk & Wagnalls Company, New York. \$1, net.)

Miss Lillie Hamilton The Joy of Life French has won for herself an enviable place as a clear-eyed commentator upon every-day life. This delightful little book of unpretentious essays bids us remember that joy is a possible possession for us all. She discusses such topics as the cultivation of ideals, mothers and daughters, friends of the family, generosity as a force, and the manner of receiving, and the eve lights upon many pungent, sensible, quotable sentiments-exactly the sort we would like to hand over to our friends-perhaps to be returned by them on our next birthday, after the manner invented by Elizabeth of the German Garden and her bosom friend. Altogether this is a pleasant, helpful, hopeful little book. (The Joy of Life. By Lillie Hamilton French. The Frederick A. Stokes Company, New York. 80c., net.)

Maid of Athens
A rather foolish story founded upon the love of Byron for the Maid of Athens to whom he addressed the verses so long popular with lovelorn swains. None of the several attempts to rehabilitate Byronic incidents in fiction has been successful, either artistically or morally. (Maid of Athens. By Lafayette McLaws. Little, Brown & Co., Boston. \$1.50.)

Paul and Fiammetta

Kate Douglas Wiggin was quite right to
bring about the introduction of Mrs. Harker's
natural and lively English children to the
American lovers of her own Rebecca, Timothy, and Polly Oliver. There is genuine
fun in the doings of Paul, Fiammetta, and
their playmates, and although they can be
mischievous on occasion, they are never vulgar or "tough." As the Introduction says,

\$1.25, net.)

the book is thoroughly English, yet with all its local color it sounds the human and universal note. (Concerning Paul and Fiammetta. By L. Allen Harker. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. \$1.25.)

The Seven Follies of Science

of Science

The Science of Science because they were insoluble by their nature are here described in detail. Such "follies" were: squaring the circle, perpetual motion, the elixir of life, the transmutation of metals. These and a few less well known are examined by the author and present some curious aspects of study. (The Seven Follies of Science. By John Phin. D. Van Nostrand Company, New York.

The Snare of Strength

An Australian novel abounding in local color. Mining, politics, and love-making divide the interest about equally. While the book is defective in proportion and in literary art in some respects, the author has a genuine knowledge of human nature, and often writes acutely and with real grasp on his characters and their motives. (The Snare of Strength. By Randolph Bedford. Herbert B. Turner & Co., Boston. \$1.50.)

The Story of Queen

Queen

Henrietta Maria

Several attempts have been made to tell the story of the life of Henrietta

Maria "la reine malbau

Maria, "la reine malheureuse," who contributed so largely to the working out of the fatal destiny of the Stuarts; but no one has hitherto ventured to present it with the fullness to be found in the latest biography, a bulky, two-volume work by I. A. Taylor. It is unlikely that the experiment will be tried again. The facts necessary to a correct understanding of Henrietta Maria's character and her misguided efforts to re-establish Catholicism in Protestant England may be sufficiently set forth in remarkably small compass; and the endeavor to expand them can result only in a superfluous survey of movements and events with which Henrietta Maria herself had comparatively little to do. This is the case with the present "Life." Seeking equipment for the task in hand, the author has explored innumerable memoirs and documents, and has, quite properly, become, as it were, saturated with the material; but, unfortunately, also has insisted upon the reader going through a like process of saturation.

Nothing is too trivial, too insignificant to be excluded, and we consequently have an astonishing mixture of biography and annals, in which the figure of the bigoted and unhappy mother of the last two Stuart kings recedes vaguely into the background. There is about the work a certain freshness of interest, due in part to the facility with which the Royalist point of view is apprehended; and, although dimly, a juster perception of the qualities and motives of Henrietta Maria is afforded than by most writers. But the final verdict must be unfavorable. The narrative is, as has been said, unnecessarily extended; it is also discursive, and otherwise bears marks of an unaccustomed hand, and it is animated by an exaggerated sentimentalism which affects almost every personage discussed. We began the book with high anticipations; we closed it in the certainty that there is still ample room for a biography of Charles I.'s Queen. (The Life of Queen Henrietta Maria. By I. A. Taylor. Two volumes. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. \$7.50, net.)

Their Husbands' Wives or "novelettes" touching on marital felicities and infelicities. The list of writers includes Mark Twain, Elizabeth Stuart Phelps, Emery Pottle, Grace Ellery Channing, George Hibbard, and Abby M. Roach. (Their Husbands' Wives. Edited by William Dean Howells and Henry Mills Alden. Harper & Brothers, New York. \$1.)

This volume of selections Thirty Songs represents eleven composers, and it is interesting to note that the compilers include the late Edward MacDowell and Adolf Jensen in this group of "Masters." Mr. Finck, who is well known to all interested in music as the musical editor of the New York " Evening Post," is one of the compilers. His collaborator in this work, Mr. Bentley, is Director of Music in the public schools of Washington. Naturally, individual taste might suggest the addition of other songs or the omission of some here included, but it will be noted that the editors sensibly make no claim of absolute superiority, but give the volume a title which justifies all its contents. (Thirty Sterling Songs. By the Great Masters. Selected by Henry T. Finck and Alys E. Bentley. Allyn & Bacon, Boston. \$1.)

Letters to The Outlook

PRIVATE CAR LINES

To my mind there is no difference between the private car lines on every railway running into New York and the Armour private cars operated from Chicago. The owners of these private car lines are out to make money for their own private interest, not to benefit any one else but themselves. That this state of affairs should be allowed is entirely the fault of the Legislature which granted permission to the various railways to be built; that permission was given to benefit the country at large, and before any railway could be built that permission had to be obtained; this proves that the Legislature is master of the position, and the Legislature, having made a bargain, should have seen that the parties with whom they dealt carried out their part of the bargain properly. If the public has been hurt by these various car lines, it is the fault of the Legislature. It seems very strange, but nevertheless it is a fact, that there is not a single line of railway running into New York but what has some private car line. Who owns these private car lines? It has been stated, and I believe it is more or less correct, that these private car lines were started by some of the largest shareholders of the various railways, and started with the express purpose of receiving part of the profits on that particular railway to the detriment of the regular shareholders.

It is a well-known fact that some of these railways coming into New York now are not paying any dividends on their ordinary shares, and that in other cases where dividends are being paid, much greater dividends could have been paid had the full return for the work done gone into the coffers of the various railways; but their partner, the private line, has eaten up a lot of their profit. It is sufficient for such private car lines to even have their name on any through bill of lading, even if the goods are not in their own car, for them to receive, for a distance between Chicago and New York, \$12.50 per car out of the \$60 to \$90 received by the railway. Then, if the goods are in their car, they get a further large proportion of the freight money, merely handing over to the railway, their partner, the haulage fees, which is all the shareholder gets out of the business. If a shipper in New York wants to send a carload of any particular kind of merchandise over any two lines of railways, and he asks for the freight rate, say, from New York to

Milwaukee, or any such similar place, he is at once referred by the freight clerk of the railway to those particular car lines which are able there and then to give a through rate to those places.

With the knowledge that these private car lines are not working for the public, it can be at once seen that even the staffs of the various railways are so manipulated that they are unable or are not allowed to quote a through rate. You must apply to the private car lines, and, as all railways have their private car lines, there is no "kick" coming from any railway; the only people dissatisfied are the general public, who are being simply "milked" for all they are worth; and the men who ought to see that these charges are just and proper between their lines of railway and the public have their hands tied or their eyes closed; but their pockets are still open, because they are receiving a portion of these illicit charges from the private car line.

It is a well-known fact that there is a large quantity of merchandise charged considerably more for a shorter distance than for a longer distance. There are many places in this country two to three thousand miles from New York that pay a less charge than a place a little more than half-way. For this condition of things the private car lines are largely answerable, and until the private car lines are put out of business the question of rates cannot be properly adjusted.

New York. W. N. WHITE.

THE CHRISTIAN ENDEAVOR IDEAL

The correspondent whose letter you print in The Outlook for March 10 writes so forcibly about Christian Endeavor, but at the same time gives utterance to so many misconceptions of the Society, that I am sure the editor will allow me a few lines for a reply.

"After a quarter of a century," he says, "it becomes evident that Christian Endeavor has not learned to adjust itself to present and changing conditions."

Does he mean that the more than fifty thousand pastors of Christian Endeavor Societies are still living in a former decade? It is they that determine what the sixty-seven thousand Christian Endeavor Societies shall be. It is absurd to suppose that Dr. Clark and his co-workers could determine it if they wanted to.

Or does he mean that the central organiza-

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tion, the United Society of Christian Endeavor, is behind the times? If so, it is doing its best to catch up. Its Outlook Committee-in whose work The Outlook should sympathize—is this very week sending out, at considerable cost, an elaborate set of questions. A copy is sent to every pastor of a Christian Endeavor Society in the United States and Canada. These questions take up fully and frankly a large number of important points regarding the Society, and call for the experiences and wisdom of the pastors on these matters, and any other matter that any one may wish to bring up. The members of this Committee are Professor Howe, of the Washington and Lee University; President Landrith, of Belmont College; Dr. Floyd W. Tomkins, Dr. Clark, Mr. William Shaw, Dr. Teunis S. Hamlin, Professor H. B. Grose, Dr. E. F. Hallenbeck, Dr. F. D. Power, Dr. D. J. Burrell, and myself as Chairman. This Committee is not hypocritically trying to work in a special plea under the pretense of seeking information, but it really wants to know what the pastors of the country think best to be done about the conduct of the Christian Endeavor Societies; and the results will be weighed fairly, published honestly, and used sincerely as guides to further action.

It would be easy to take up your correspondent's statements about a decline of interest in Christian Endeavor, especially in the societies that have been longest in existence, and show how untrue those statements are. A misapprehension far more important than this, however, is the writer's assertion that the Christian Endeavor Society is based upon "a wrong conception of the nature of the Christian life."

The difficulty in your correspondent's mind lies, evidently, with the form of pledge or covenant which is sent out by the United Society as a suggestion for the use of pastors who do not care to prepare a different form. Why is it that so many obstinate men will have it that the United Society prescribes a pledge for Christian Endeavorers? From the start it has been proclaimed in every possible way that every pastor was at liberty to write his own pledge, put in just what he pleases and leave out just what he pleases. "Why all this legislation?" your correspondent asks. There has been no legislation. If there had been, the pastors would not submit to it. The United Society has no authority to legislate, and never has assumed such authority.

Up to the present time the United Society has required as an essential for enrollment that the local societies use some kind of pledge or definite agreement—just the kind

that the pastor thinks best suited to the local needs. Thus far the more than one hundred Christian leaders, from more than thirty denominations, that make up the Board of Trustees have seen no indication that any but a very small minority wished them to take any other position. The questionnaire now made by the Outlook Committee will show whether the Trustees are right in that feeling. A smaller questionnaire, consisting of more than two thousand ministers, taken at random, which I made several years ago, shows an enormous majority that wished the United Society to continue to require from the societies some form of pledge.

It would be very easy to show that the Christian Endeavor pledge sent out by the United Society as a suggested form is not at all the legalistic document portrayed by your correspondent. I do not know a Christian Endeavor leader anywhere who would not readily agree with every word he writes about the need of absolute sincerity in promise-making and promise-keeping, the folly of exalting the letter above the spirit, the need of loyalty to moral convictions rather than conformity to rules. The ideal of Christian Endeavor is, and always has been, precisely that "natural and normal life" which he urges, and exactly that "natural expression of the heart, not manifesting itself exclusively or primarily in public testimony, but in all the varied activities of life." If there is any way to urge that ideal upon our young people that the Christian Endeavor leaders have not tried, they want to know it, and they will try it. An experience of thirteen years as editor of the Christian Endeavor organ has brought me in contact with many thousands of Christian Endeavorers, and I know, what any one else may learn, that they are as free from formalism, as devoted to realities, and as eager for wide and practical services, as any set of Christians on earth.

Boston, Massachusetts.

[The correspondent concerning whose letter Mr. Wells writes objected, not to any particular form of the pledge which the Christian Endeavor Societies use, but to the principle of requiring a pledge of any kind, or rather of laying down the acceptance of a pledge as prerequisite to a Christian lite. It is not to the form of law that he objected, but to the spirit of legalism.—The Editors.]

SHAKESPEAREAN RESEARCH

Concerning the article "A Shakespearean Find," by W. J. Rolfe, in your issue of February 17, may I be allowed a word? This new "item," apparently authentic, and interesting enough as showing the ease with which

Amos R. Wells.

the "myriad-minded" "Shake-Speare" could write to order an "impresse" for a noble patron, as it is said he did a play by royal command, is nevertheless but another of those "scraps of information," as Emerson calls them, so assiduously gathered and put forth with expert authority by Halliwell-Phillipps in his "Outlines of the Life of Shakespeare," a copy of which, second edition, London, 1882, is now before me. These things, however, are not at all elucidative of the tangle in which the personality and work of the "William Shagspere" of the Marriage Bond, the "Shake-Speare" of the Quartos, the "my cozen Shakspear" of the Thomas Greene Diary, the "Mr Shakspeare" of this new "find," and the "Mr William Shakespeare" of the 1623 Folio, and other variants, has been handed down to our bewildered but questioning age. All will, however, heartily concur in Mr. Sidney Lee's implied hope that "documents which are yet to be discovered" will furnish the much-needed light.

In the study of this important and interesting question it is well to adhere closely to ascertained fact, and when making citations it is but proper to be strictly accurate. In this connection Professor Rolfe seriously errs. He says: "Fourteen years earlier (in 1599) his father had obtained the honor of a coat of arms from the College of Heralds, and he and his son thus became 'gentlemen.'" On page 573 of the "Outlines," among the various items of the "Documentary Appendix," will be found this:

"XII. Draft of a grant of coat-armour proposed [italics mine] to be conferred on Shakespeare's Father in the year 1596. From the original manuscript preserved at the college of arms, the interlineations being denoted by Italics" The document is given in full and is thus commented upon in the text, p 87: "There is preserved at the college of arms the draft of a grant of coat-armour to John Shakespeare, dated in October, 1596, the result of an application made no doubt some little time previously. It may be sately inferred, from the unprosperous circumstances of the grantee, that this attempt to confer gentility on the family was made at the poet's expense. This is the first evidence we have of his rising pecuniary fortunes, and of his determination to advance in social position."

Respecting Professor Rolfe's "grant" of 1599 the same high authority again furnishes "documentary" evidence, p. 589:

"XIX Draft of a grant of coat armour proposed [italics mine] to be conferred on Shakespeare's Father in the year 1599. From the original manuscript preserved at the college of arms, the interlineations being denoted by Italics."

Again quoting the document in full, the distinguished author and compiler comments upon it on p. 116 of his text, thus:

"Towards the close of this year, 1599, a second attempt was made by the poet to obtain a grant of coat-armour to his father. It was now proposed to

impale the arms of Shakespeare with those of Arden, and on each occasion the most ridiculous statements were made respecting the claims of the two families. Both were really descended from obscure English country yeomen [italics mine], but the heralds made out that the predecessors of John Shakespeare were rewarded by the Crown for distinguished services, and that his wife's ancestors were entitled to armorlaf bearings. Although the poet's relatives at a later time assumed his right to the coat suggested for his father in 15%, it does not appear that either of the proposed grants was ratified by the college [italics mine], and certainly nothing more is heard of the Arden impalement."

In this connection it may be profitable to inquire how the same hand could sign such ill-founded statements in support of a claim for a grant of "arms," and again in his will testify to his supreme aspiration to found a "family," and endeavor to provide for so doing, and should (Lear III., 6) pen such a sneer: (Fool, log.) "No, he's a yeoman that has a gentleman to his son; for he's a mad yeoman that sees his son a gentleman before him." And again, in "Winter's Tale," V., 3, where Autolycus, the Shepherd, and the Clown bandy the phrase "gentleman-born," and the Clown says: "But I was a gentleman born before my father: for the king's son took me by the hand and called me brother, ... and so we wept: and these were the first gentleman-like tears that ever we shed."

A rapidly growing number of earnest students profess to have a clear understanding of these curious contradictions, are ready to give a rational explanation, and are able to advance substantial "foundations of belief," but that's "another story," and a long one, not possible here.

I may, however, perhaps be allowed a concluding word in attempted disabuse of another misconception founded on the supposed "gentility" of the bearer of the assumed " coat-armour," and his honored sepulture among the "gentry" in Stratford church. The impression seems to be widespread that this high honor of burial and monument was accorded by the authorities of town and gown as a special testimony to the worth and achievements of a distinguished townsman. Not to speak of the antipathy against the profession of actor, to which the deceased belonged, or the repressive legislation affecting those who followed the calling and were classed as "vagabonds," as all tending specifically to deny and withhold such privilege I simply quote again from the "Outlines" of Halliwell-Phillipps, p. 171: "His remains were buried in the chancel, the selection of that locality for the interment being due to the circumstance of its being the legal and customary burial-place of the owners of the tithes." S. M. B.

Montreal.







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The Outlook

Volume 82

Saturday, April 14, 1906

Number 15

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THE OUTLOOK is a Weekly Newspaper and an Illustrated Monthly Magazine in one. It is published every Saturday—fifty-two issues a year. The fourth issue in each month is an Illustrated Magazine Number, containing about twice as many pages as the regular weekly issue, and many pictures.

PRICE.—The subscription price is Three Dollars a year, payable in advance. Ten cents a copy.

POSTAGE IS PREPAID by the publishers for all subscriptions in the United States, Hawaiian Islands, Philippine Islands, Guam, Porto Rico, Tutuila (Samoa), Shanghai, Canal Zone, Cuba, Canada, and Mexico. For all other countries in the Postal Union add \$1.56 for postage.

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The Outlook

SATURDAY, APRIL 14, 1906

Control of Control

The Pan-American

Programme

Last week the programme of subjects

to be considered by the forthcoming Pan-American Conference at Rio de Janeiro was unanimously approved by the Bureau of American Republics. The programme was prepared by a committee of which Mr. Root, Secretary of State, is chairman, and included the highest diplomatic representatives from Brazil, Argentina, Chili, Costa Rica, Mexico, and Cuba. Among the subjects for consideration are the reorganization of the Bureau of American Republics on a more permanent and efficient basis; a resolution recommending to the different republics the extension for a further period of five years of the arbitral treaty for pecuniary claims agreed upon at the previous Conference; the creation of a committee of jurists, to prepare for the consideration of the next Conference a draft of codes of public and private international law; a resolution embodying the principle that a naturalized citizen who renews his residence for a period exceeding two years in the country of his origin, without the manifested intention of returning to the country where he was naturalized, be considered to have renounced his naturalization in the latter country; the development of commercial intercourse among the American republics, with special attention to the greatest possible dissemination of statistical information; the simplification and co-ordination of the customs and consular laws; uniformity in patents and the international registration of trade-marks; sanitary police and quarantine; copyrights; and, finally, the Pan-American railway. More interesting as world questions than any of the above, however, we note: First, a resolution affirming the adherence of the American republics to the principle of arbitration for the settlement of disputes arising among them, and expressing the hope of the republics taking part in the Conference that the International Conference to meet at The Hague shall agree upon a general arbitration convention that might be approved and put in operation by every country. Secondly, perhaps a still more important reference to The Hague in the Rio de Janeiro programme is found in a resolution recommending that the forthcoming Peace Conference there be requested to consider the extent to which the use of force is permissible for the collection of loans or debts of a public character.

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The latter proposal involves The Drago what is popularly known as Doctrine the Drago Doctrine. republics to the south of us earnestly desire that this shall be definitely engrafted upon recognized international law at the next Hague Conference. The first Foreign Minister in our time to emphasize this doctrine, namely, that force shall not be used to collect public debts, was Dr. Luis Drago, the Argentine Minister of Foreign Relations, but the first great Minister to bring it forward as a practical plan was Alexander Hamilton, nearly a century ago. In principle it is entirely sound. It enters into the Rio programme only to the extent of permitting consideration of a recommendation to a world conference as to how far force may be used by a foreign Power in the collection of debt, the question proper being left for settlement at The Hague by a vote of all the world powers as well as of the Central and South American republics themselves. Unlike the procedure followed in calling the first Hague Conference, at which the Western Hemisphere was represented only by this country and Mexico, the other American republics are also invited to the second

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President Roosevelt originally called the second Hague Conference, but instantly stood aside when it was intimated that the Czar wished the honor. Perhaps unintentionally, the Czar has taken a strange way to show his appreciation of President Roosevelt's courtesy. He has called the Hague Conference for July, the very month for which the Pan-American Conference had long been announced. It may be that the Russian Foreign Office was in ignorance of the call for the Rio meeting; we notice, however, that though the Czar's attention has been drawn to that fact, he has not suggested deferring the Hague Conference. This seems doubly unfortunate, for the Russian Government has also been informed that the instances above mentioned are to be referred after discussion to The Hague, which, of course, could not be done unless the Rio Conference preceded the other. Furthermore, the American republics are, in general, sending their ablest men to Rio; in many, perhaps in most, cases it had been expected that these men would also proceed to The Hague, as being peculiarly well equipped to present the two questions at issue before that body; the particular inconvenience to this country is manifest, as Secretary Root would not be able to keep in close touch with both Conferences, as he had intended. It has been suggested that the Czar's call has been also supported by the German Emperor, who would not willingly have the Drago Doctrine recognized or even discussed at The Hague; also that it was devised to prevent the South American republics from taking part in the Hague Conference. But these rumors have been credibly and officially denied in Germany, and it is probable that this conflict in the dates of these two important international councils will be satisfactorily arranged.

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Peace Between Hungary and the Crown

Last week the Hungarian coalition leaders,

fearing a period of absolutism if the elections were not held on the date prescribed by the Constitution, compromised with the Crown. In this the advantage

certainly lies with the latter. The Magyars, or Hungarians, a minority in Hungary, outnumbered by the total of all the other races, have hitherto held political supremacy, and have insisted upon the use of the Hungarian language and flag in the Hungarian contingent of the Imperial army. Francis Joseph, the Emperor-King, has refused this because it would impair the Dual Empire's integ-On the consequent refusal of the Hungarian Parliament, controlled by the Magyars, to vote supplies, Francis Joseph declared that he would favor universal and equal suffrage, an announcement which not only carried satisfaction to the practically disfranchised non-Magyars, but also brought disintegration and dismay into the ranks of the Magyars Confronted by a virtual themselves. defeat, and influenced meanwhile both by the sovereign's firmness and by the people's impatience, the Magyars compromised as follows: The Emperor-King assents to the formation of a new Magyar Cabinet, to carry out the elections this week under the old law, and to hold a session of Parliament in May. session the Magyars guarantee to pass the budget, the new international commercial treaties, to maintain in every way the existing condition of things between Austria and Hungary, to permit the passage of a bill providing for universal suffrage, and then for Parliament to terminate its labors, allowing the election of a new one under the universal suffrage system, the Cabinet to be re-formed conformably to the desires of the parliamentary majority. As a result of this happy outcome the Emperor-King asked Dr. Alexander Wekerle, a former Hungarian Premier, to form a Cabinet. Dr. Wekerle has satisfactorily succeeded in his task. including in his Cabinet such strong men as Count Apponyi, well known in this country, and Francis Kossuth, a son of Louis Kossuth, the great leader of 1848. The choice of Dr. Wekerle is particularly auspicious because, unlike the statesmen just mentioned, he has figured little in the contest between Francis Joseph and the Magyars. Few Ministers have more fully commanded the confidence of the people, largely because it was seen that his plans excited the opposi-

tion now of the great Magyar nobles, now of reactionary Roman Catholics whom the people distrust. Dr. Wekerle's achievements as Finance Minister of the Empire and the two great civil reforms he has accomplished—namely, the establishment of civil marriage and liberty as to the religious education of children of mixed marriages-are a warrant for believing that he will be an admirable Prime Minister in the opening of the new era of Hungarian politics and progress based upon popular suffrage.

On Saturday of last Democracy Triumphs week and on Monin Russia day of this week the electoral colleges in many of the fifty-one provinces in European Russia elected members to the new National Parliament-about one-half of its entire membership. The result was an overwhelming victory for the Constitutional Democrats. Few reactionary candidates were elected, and even the "Octoberists "-so called because they are content with the reforms outlined in the manifesto of October 39, 1905—scored but seldom. Earlier in the week the strength of the Constitutional Democrats had become so manifest that a combination or "block" of all their opponents had been formed first with reference to the St. Petersburg primary election. The "Octoberists" and Progressive Economists combined with the Law and Order, Trade and Industries, and Conservative parties, but while the " block " received one vote, the Constitutional Democrats, on the average, received two. In St. Petersburg, as throughout Russia, considering the fact that the voters were exercising the right of citizenship for the first time in their lives, there was little confusion, but the St. Petersburg election was disgraced by the Government itself. No sooner had the Constitutional Democrats elected Mr. Miliukov and Mr. Hessen as delegates to the Provincial Convention than the Election Commission annulled the action on the ground that these men were under indictment in connection with the suspension of a newspaper of which they were editors. The Commission thereupon replaced them by Conservative candidates who received scarcely a tenth of the vote cast for those unseated. The action of the authorities of course aroused resentment in Radical circles, particularly as the Commission had taken no exception to the candidates before the balloting. The legal standing of the elected Constitutional Democrats should have been defined before the election, if they could not properly act in a legislative body. As it is, the two men to whom the Commission has given certificates are not only not the choice of the people, but are men whom the people distinctly repudiated. This injustice will only intensify and encourage the Liberals and Radicals to follow up the sweeping character of their general victory. We hope that this victory will ultimately result in the Emperor's issuance of a Constitution.

Less startling than

Democracy Triumphs in Finland

the triumph of democracy in Russia is that in Finland; but it is quite as significant, because it is a long step towards the restoration of Finland's ancient liberties. The new election law has now been completed, and, it is believed, will be entirely satisfactory to the Finns. It is virtually a new constitution. It provides for a Diet of one chamber of two hundred deputies. elected for three years by the various districts. Suffrage is granted to all adults twenty-four years old, regardless of sex, only public charges and criminals being excluded. There will be annual sessions of the Diet, lasting ninety days, beginning February 1, 1907. The Diet will elect its own president and vice-presidents, who must subscribe to an oath to protect the rights of the Emperor, as Grand Duke of Finland, and the Diet, according to the fundamental laws of the Grand Duchy. The sessions are to be opened and closed by the Emperor or his deputy, who will submit the Imperial programme for legislation, the budget, etc., and the bills introducible, covering all subjects except the fundamental laws and the organization of the land and sea defenses. Bills which pass their third reading become laws without the approval of the executive or Emperor. The sessions will be public, and both the Finnish and Swedish languages may be used in debates.

(A)

This is an age of organ-English ization and combination. Trades Unions The combinations of capital have in some cases become monopolistic and are being properly dealt with But labor by legislation and the courts. has an equal right to organize. justified that right by the achievements of labor unions in raising, not only the standard of wages, but the condition of workingmen. As to the status of trades unions themselves, the question has for some years been a particularly interesting one in England. It has been now newly defined by a bill introduced in Parliament in fulfillment of pledges given to the Labor party, which did so much to put the present Liberal Government into power. The bill is a direct outcome of the Taff Vale case, which arose from the great strike in the Welsh coal-mining district in 1900. The Taff Vale Railway Company contended that the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants had indulged in malicious molestation, intimidation, and other unlawful acts for which the railway asked damages. The Society, backed by the trades unions, bitterly contested the suit. which was fought through the different courts, the decision being finally made in 1902. It held that the Amalgamated Society was responsible for its own acts or for the acts of its agents, and was liable to be mulcted in damages for actual injury done. Ever since this decision established the financial responsibility of unions for damage inflicted in their behalf, English labor leaders have been seeking legislative immunity for union funds. In explaining the features of the Government bill the new Attorney-General said, in the House of Commons, that the usefulness of trades unions is curtailed because their undoubted right of "peaceful persuasion" had been cut down to the point of extinction, and particularly because funds contributed to provide against sickness and lack of employment were

now held liable to meet claims based upon the repudiated acts of unauthorized officials. The bill therefore provided that no act of the trades unions should be held to be unlawful if such act is lawful when committed by an individual, set forth in express terms the right of peaceful picketing, which, the Attorney-General said, was an essential part of the right to strike, and defined the law of agency as applied to trades unions, making it impossible to claim redress from union funds for any act unless it was clear that the act was authorized by the governing body of the unions. In regard to the demand for the complete immunity of trades union funds from attack, the Attorney-General declared that he did not think it right to create a special privilege for the proletariat.

Cries from Is Labor to be Laborite benches a Privileged Class? showed that precisely this special privilege was demanded. The Laborites announced their unvielding opposition to anything short of complete immunity for union funds. In this opposition the Laborites were supported by the Irish. Together they decided instantly to test the opinion of the House with a bill which they had prepared, unless the Government measure were extended as they desired. To the astonishment of many, the Government capitulated. On the following day the following indefensible amendment was added to the bill:

No action shall be brought against a trades union . . . for the recovery of damages sustained by any person or persons by reason of the action of any member or members of such trades union or other association.

Under this bill, so amended, unions would not be held in damages for acts committed either by their unauthorized or by their authorized agents. The Attorney-General's fear that a special privilege for the proletariat might be created will probably be justified if the bill, now amended by his own Government, should pass. It would put trades unions in a position free from responsibility, one enjoyed by no other individual, corporation, or community in

England. The new Government apparently does not know its own mind as regards labor. The Premier's vacillation is due, not to the fact that with the Liberals proper he could have been beaten by the Laborites and the Irish together, but by reason of the fact that, whereas the eighty Irishmen remain eighty in Parliament after Parliament, there is little limit to the possible increase of the fiftyfour Laborite members. It is just possible that even so far as a present vote is concerned the Premier may have feared a victorious conjunction of hostile elements through the assistance to be given by Conservative-Unionists to the Laborites. However this may be, one principle is clear: that the right of organization and combination carries with it a corresponding responsibility. Neither capital nor labor should enjoy the privilege of combination and escape the responsibility.

The

Disaster and

emergence of fourteen men from the Human Sympathy mines at Courrières, in the Department of Pas-de-Calais, France, three weeks after a thousand and more miners had been buried within them by an explosion, and several days after all attempt at rescue had practically ceased, aroused last week the anger of the populace against the officials of the mines, and particularly against the engineers who conducted the work of salvage. The belief is widespread that a great number of the entombed miners have slowly starved to death because the officials neglected to put forth every possible effort to save life. In the French Chamber of Deputies charges of the most serious nature were made against the mining companies. It is difficult to determine whether these charges have any foundation in fact. The Minister of Public Works has promised a Government investigation. In contrast with the inhumanity implied by these charges, there was evoked by the disaster an impressive display of human sympathy and co-operation. At the very time when the relation between the Government of France and the Government of Germany was strained by the difficulties in the Moroccan question, Ger-

mans were hastening over the border to give help to their French fellow-men. The disaster which befell those French miners obliterated national differences.



Scenes of terror and mani-Vesuvius festations of titanic and in Eruption elemental fury accompanied the violent eruptions of Vesuvius last week and on last Sunday. Fortunately, little loss of life is so far reported, but one or more towns have been partly destroyed, some villages have been abandoned, and hundreds of poor peasants and villagers have been driven helpless from their homes and their little belongings. It is impossible as yet to give the present eruption its relative place in importance with the twenty-five or thirty outbreaks large enough to be especially chronicled in history since the appalling disaster of 79 B.C. which overwhelmed Pompeii and Herculaneum. The London "Times" correspondent asserts that the lava flow has exceeded any for two centuries; on the other hand, Professor Blaserna, of Naples, says that he considers the eruption less alarming than those of 1872, 1892, and 1894, and holds that Naples has nothing to fear except the discomfort of the ashes. It is worth noting that Vesuvius, after some years of comparative inactivity, burst into violence in 1902, just after the Martinique disaster, and has been sporadically active ever since. The present outbreak has been marked by the creation of one or more new craters, by terrific explosions throwing up huge incandescent rocks three thousand feet in air, by incessant rumblings, and by trembling of the earth for a great distance; while a great river of lava, five hundred feet wide, destroyed the funicular railway and the hotel, drove Dr. Mattucci, the director of the observatory, from the place and probably destroyed the observatory, invaded and partly overwhelmed the town of Boscotrecase, injured some parts of the towns of Ottajano and Torre Annunziata, threatened Boscoreale and Pompeii, and drove away in very real danger the people of many hamlets on the side of the mountain or near its

foot. An eye-witness gives the following description of the scene on Saturday:

Along the road I met hundreds of families in flight, carrying their few miserable possessions. The spectacle of collapsed carts and fainting women was frequent. When one reached the lava streams, a stupefying spectacle presented itself. From a point on the mountain between the towns I saw four rivers of molten fire, one of which, two hundred feet wide and over forty feet deep, was moving slowly and majestically onward, devouring vineyards and olive groves. I witnessed the destruction of a farm-house which was enveloped on three sides by lava. Immediately overhead the great crater was belching incandescent rocks and scoriæ for an incred-The whole summit was ible distance. wreathed with flames, and a perpetual roar was heard. Ever and anon the cone of the volcano was encircled with vivid electric phenomena, amid which a downpour of liquid fire on all sides of the crater was revealed in magnificent awfulness. In the evening there was a frightful shock of earthquake, which was repeated at two o'clock on Sunday morn-Simultaneously the lava streams redoubled their onrush, and men, women, and children fled precipitately toward the sea. The lava had invaded the road behind them.

Ashes fell in quantities as far as Capri and Sorrento, and in Naples there was a general exodus from the shore to the heights, and very decided uneasiness despite the distance and the assurances of the scientists. The King and Queen have visited the disturbed district, and by their presence and sympathy have encouraged the sufferers.

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After the Russian Government Ownership war a congress of Railways in Japan of representatives from Japanese chambers of commerce passed resolutions concerning hoped-for progress in finance, foreign trade, home manufactures, and transportation. the last-named domain one of the resolutions declared for a more specific "control of all the railways in the Empire as to their business methods." The Imperial Government itself has also its own matured plans for promotion of commerce and industry, and among them exactly this proposition for railway con-It would realize it by taking over the railways not owned by it—about twothirds of the total mileage. The first Japanese railway, built over thirty years ago, was constructed by the Government, not so much because of any prepossession favorable to Government ownership as because private capital was lacking. The lack continued for several years, but when railway-building by private companies began, it progressed twice as fast as did Government building. The estimated cost of nationalizing the privately owned lines is put at about two hundred and fifty million dollars, and would pay a handsome profit to the present owners. According to the Government's plan, the State is to acquire the privately owned railways by compulsory purchase if necessary, on the principle of eminent domain. As to payment, the Government's principle is, apparently, to pay to the present companies their prospective profits for twenty years, this being ascertained by multiplying by twenty the average yearly profits of the three years preceding the Russian war. No cash is Stockholders are to be paid in bonds bearing five per cent. interest and redeemable within forty-five years. The net revenues of the railways are to be devoted to paying interest on and redeeming the bonds. With characteristic Japanese caution, the transaction is to be effected, not all at once, but gradually, so that there shall be no market disturbance. This plan, when presented in a bill before the Japanese Parliament, passed the House of Representatives without amendment by a vote of 243 to The purchase should amply repay the State, both from the evident military and strategic value of the railways and also from the "control of their business methods," in view of the increasing commercial importance of the railways. As to the latter factor, it is estimated that after the extinction of the bonds the yearly net profit from the railways to the State will equal their gross receipts at the present time.

Chicago's Municípal Ownership Battle

The people of Chicago, on April 3, by a narrow majority, approved of Mayor

Dunne's proposition to issue Mueller Law certificates for the purpose of acquiring street railways, but failed to carry by a three-fifths vote the proposition to operate street railways. The vote

on the ordinance authorizing the issuance of certificates was 110,008 for to 106,669 against. The vote on the question of municipal operation was 120,911 for to 110,260 against. The latter proposition fell more than 17,000 votes short of the three-fifths requisite for adoption. city, therefore, may proceed to acquire street railways as soon as the validity of the ordinance shall be established by the courts and the certificates can be sold, but it cannot operate. It is cause for surprise that the proposition to operate should have received a larger vote than was cast in favor of the ordinance looking to mere acquisition and owner-The explanation is to be found in the detailed criticisms of the particular ordinance under consideration. The victory of Mayor Dunne was only partial where he and his friends had confidently expected it to be decisive and complete. Two years ago the Mueller Municipal Ownership Law was adopted by the vote of 153,223 to 30,279. At the same time, on a public policy proposition, the people expressed themselves in favor of municipal ownership by the vote of 121,957 to 50,807. A year ago, when Mr. Dunne was elected Mayor on the issue of immediate municipal ownership by a plurality in excess of 25,000, the people, by a vote of 152,135 to 59,013, opposed the granting of any street railway franchises whatever. In view of these figures, the closeness of the vote on April 3 last is significant. Of course the concrete proposition is bound to provoke more opposition than the general questions, such as the people have been voting on heretofore. But there is more to the dwindling majority for municipal ownership than this. Mayor Dunne's appointments and conduct of affairs generally have not been such as to inspire confidence in his administrative capacity. Mr. William Kent, who voted for the propositions, and who has long been identified with the progressive movement in Chicago, had this to say the day after election: "The votes do not show that Chicago is reactionary or willing to go back to abused and abusive private franchises; neither do they show that Chicago is tired and unwilling to continue the long

fight for justice and public rights. If my talks with many honest men who voted differently from my vote prove anything, they prove that Chicago wants evidence of executive capacity before undertaking tasks of such vital moment. Chicago pauses and hesitates and asks for a sign of official appointments that mean capacity to manage immense in-Chicago asks of Mayor Dunne terests. more proofs of executive efficiency than have yet been given, and if these proofs are given Chicago will take new courage to push on into new fields of democracy." A considerable negative vote was inspired by the desire of opponents to injure Mayor Dunne politically. Former Mayor Harrison, the day before election, came out in an interview favoring the general policy of municipal ownership, but opposing Mayor Dunne's particular proposition, in which he was seconded by officials of the Democratic party. Wards in which these leaders were active gave adverse votes. Some Republican organization leaders also worked against the adoption of the propositions. Under the circumstances it is perhaps surprising that the propositions received so large a vote as was cast for them. Undoubtedly the outcome will have a sobering effect upon Mayor Dunne, and may lead to the calling in of wiser counselors than those now surrounding him. Shortly before election Mayor Dunne announced an immediate plan of procedure that involves utilizing some one of the existing companies as a construction company to rehabilitate the properties and operate them on a revocable license until the city shall be able to take them over at an agreed valuation.

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Direct Vote for a Senator held on March 28 in Arkansas afford a striking illustration of the possibility of modifying the Federal Constitution without the resort to the formality of an amendment. In other years the Arkansas voters have expressed their Senatorial preferences at the polls, but the members of the General Assembly have been held to be bound only by the vote of their home counties. A candidate might receive a majority of

the popular vote and still be defeated. At the last Democratic State Convention it was decided that the nomination for the Senatorship this year should be made at the general primary election, and that the candidate receiving the highest number of votes should be declared the party nominee. The two candidates, Senator Berry and Governor Davis, were asked to give the State Committee a written pledge to abide by the result of the primaries. In addition, the Committee secured pledges from most of the legislative candidates to cast their ballots in the Legislature in accordance with the expression of the party opinion. Therefore the indorsement of Governor Davis at the recent primaries practically insures his return to the United States Senate. A similar plan has been adopted by several other States. The trend of popular sentiment seems to be toward forcing Legislatures merely to ratify the decision of the people in the election of Senators, precisely as it has forced the electoral college to become merely a ratifying body. Apparently the Constitution is much more likely to be modified by such local arrangements than it is to be formally amended against the will of a hostile Senate.

High License The Ohio Legislature raised the saloon tax of the State in Ohio to \$1,000 during the session just closed, after one of the bitterest temperance fights on record, being the culmination of a series of new liquor laws enacted throughout its deliberations. Ohio has been near the bottom in the matter of taxing saloons, with a minimum tax of only \$350. It is estimated that the increase will add over a million dollars to the revenues of the State, and at the same time reduce the number of saloons by five thousand. Most potent in securing the passage of this law was the terrible mob spirit shown during the late Springfield riots, which necessitated the calling out of the State militia at a cost of \$25,000 to the State. second time in the past two years Springfield had been the scene of riotous disorder incident to the shooting of a white man by the negro element in Springfield's toughest quarters. Houses were burned

in return, homes destroyed, and some of the negroes, filled with fear and anxiety, were driven from the city. The citizens of Springfield attribute to the presence of low dives and cheap saloons in the negro quarters and in certain white sections their disgrace, and petitioned the Legislature to enact the \$1,000 license bill as a means of prevention of another similar outrage. Ten years ago, in spite of such appeals, this anti-saloon legislation in Ohio would have been wellnigh impossible, with the saloon influence at high tide in political affairs. then anti-saloon measures have been enacted with each succeeding session by increasing majorities, until the liquor power has largely vanished from the reckoning of the lawmakers of Ohio. is particularly evident at the session just closed in the enactment of four bills. including the raising of the saloon tax. The search and seizure law, which gives the right to officers to enter any place where there is any suspicion that liquor is being sold contrary to law, was passed for the benefit of those communities that had voted "dry" under local option laws, but were being infested with "speakeasies "and "blind tigers." The "Jones S remonstrance" law for residence districts in towns and cities, and the "Roberts dance hall" law, prohibiting the sale of liquors in the same place where a public dance is held, complete the list of the new anti-saloon measures. The wisdom of the Temonstrance law, as well as of other provisions of the local option system as it exists in Ohio, has been questioned by some thoughtful and public-spirited people; but whatever the specific defects of these laws may be, their general effect has been wholesome.

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Kansas Oil Rate
Complaints

The complaint of the
Kansas independent
refineries and oil-producers regarding railway rates was considered important enough to warrant a
hearing by the Inter-State Commerce
Commission. This was lately completed
at Kansas City. The independents introduced much testimony to the effect
that while rates inside the State of
Kansas are, under the maximum freight

law, low enough to give liberal profits, the refineries cannot compete for business outside the State because of the high rates in effect beyond the State line. As an example it was shown that from Neodesha to Kansas City, Kansas, the rate is nine cents; to Kansas City, Missouri, half a mile farther, seventeen cents. It is claimed by the independents that rates have been raised on out of State shipments since the Kansas law took effect, making the cost of delivering oil so great that the independents cannot compete with the Standard, which makes part of its shipment through its own pipe lines, thus saving on freight. The railways admitted the high rates-with explanations. They claim that money is lost on the Kansas rates and that it would be injustice to extend those rates outside the State. The Commission asked for figures to sustain the roads' claims, and has taken the matter under advisement. The hearing emphasizes the difficulty lying in the way of independent oil refining and production if there is obstruction from transportation companies. The Standard Oil Company is said to have over \$10,000,000 worth of crude oil stored in the Kansas-Indian Territory field, all purchased at fifty cents a barrel. It is building and filling a 35,000-barrel tank each day. The independents are consuming about 3,500 barrels a day, mostly from their own oil wells. Of the 55,000 barrels produced daily in the Southwestern oil field only 12,000 barrels are credited to Kansas. the remainder being in the Indian Territory and Oklahoma, where the Standard is in full control. The Kansas investors in oil stocks have received no dividends for a year, and there is no immediate prospect of one. The contest, far from being finished, is only begun, and more drastic legislation may be expected when the next session of the Kansas Legislature meets. It is a safe prediction that the Kansas independents will not surrender though they may fight a long time before they secure sufficient advantage to resume profits on their investments in the oil field. It is probable, too, that some exaggeration appears in the ex parte statements of both sides, and that professional agitators and politicians have

taken advantage of the situation to make capital for themselves. But back of it all is a very real and earnest struggle for the maintenance of an important wealth-producing industry, and the success of the independents in conducting a profitable business, despite the opposition of the Standard, means a great deal to the people of the Western oil field. The decision of the Commission will do much to determine the future of the contest.



At its recent municipal Kansas City's election (April 3), Kan-New Mayor sas City, Missouri, was so fortunate as to secure for itself the services as Mayor of a man not only of the highest personal character, but also with expert knowledge of municipal affairs. Henry M. Beardsley, the successful candidate on the Republican ticket, is a lawyer who found time in the campaign to direct a canvass which raised nearly \$300,000 for a building for the Kansas City Young Men's Christian Association, of which he is President. For six years Mr. Beardsley has been a member of the upper branch of the Common Council, and for two years he has been President of the Board of Public Works. In this latter capacity he has directed the rehabilitation of the water plant, and has supervised other important public works in which many million dollars have been expended. He has been a close student of recent literature on municipal affairs, and is generally regarded in Kansas City as the bestinformed man on municipal subjects in the town. He felt that he could not afford to give up his professional work to become a candidate for Mayor, but finally yielded to the pressure of public opinion and to his sense of obligation to use his knowledge for the benefit of the community. Under instructions from Governor Folk, who controls the Kansas City Elections Board and the Police Commissioners, the town secured the fairest election in its recent history. The Governor himself visited the city on election day to see that his instructions were rigidly observed, and police interference at the polls and fraudulent voting, common in other elections, were

eliminated. The chief fight against Mr. Beardsley, aside from partisan opposition, came from the element that favors a lax enforcement of law. His vote was the highest ever polled by a candidate for Mayor in Kansas City. There was much independent voting. The Republican candidate for Auditor, and two Republican candidates for Aldermen, opposed by the Civic League, were defeated. The election was of unusual importance because the questions of a franchise for a company to supply natural gas and of a ten-year extension of the street railway franchises are to come before the new city administration for settlement.

Seattle and Municipal Ownership Seattle has lately elected William Hickman Moore

as Mayor on an independent municipal ownership ticket, defeating the regular Republican candidate by a plurality of but fifteen votes. The contest leading up to this result was marked by features significant of the rapid development of the sentiment in favor of municipal ownership. Seattle is normally a Republican city, the metropolis of a State which is overwhelmingly Republican in National affairs, which two years ago gave Roosevelt a majority over Parker of approximately three to one. Its city government has been continuously Republican in all its branches since 1898. A correspondent of The Outlook in Seattle describes the political situation and the recent campaign as follows:

Locally the Republican machine has come to represent chiefly the steam railroads, the street railway company which owns and operates nearly all the street railways of the city, and the liquor and kindred interests. The railroads are interested in having a "friendly" government on account of the fact that rapidly expanding business and facilities render it necessary for them to ask frequent franchises and other rights of the city, and also through the desire to keep down local taxation. The street railway company has sought to dominate politics as a means of preventing too strict a regulation of its business under its franchises, and as a means of securing additional franchises from time to time on favorable terms. The municipal ownership campaign was organized less than four months before the date for the election. The most active part in it was taken by certain leaders of organized labor,

with a large body of unionized workmen at their back. Consolidated with this faction was a Municipal Ownership League composed chiefly of business and professional men. Early in January these two organizations joined forces in calling a mass conven-tion for the nomination of an independent ticket to run on a municipal ownership platform. While that convention was open to all advocates of municipal ownership desiring to participate in it, it was actually attended by less than five hundred delegates. There was a lively contest in the nomination of a mayor, but all other nominations were made by acclamation, and there was so little of a scramble for places on the ticket that difficulty was experienced in completing it. The platform adopted was a declaration for general municipal ownership, and included a declaration denouncing the practice of ac-cepting political contributions from corporate interests. The Republican platform was to a large extent modeled after that adopted by the municipal ownership advocates, though it contained no declaration in favor of the municipal ownership of street-car lines, which plank in the independent platform became thereby the chief bone of contention between the parties. Both of the leading daily newspapers of the city refused to give active support to either party. A minor daily paper was subsidized by the Republican committee and circu-lated free during the campaign to every voter. Another minor daily paper remained independent and impartial, endeavoring to give the news of the campaign without color or prejudice. Unable to command the kind of newspaper support essential to their cam-paign, the Republican committee made liberal use of the billboards of the city, placarding them with declarations from the party platform, assertions regarding the abilities and capabilities of the Republican candidates, and veiled attacks on the integrity of the candidates of the opposition. These latter aroused so much antagonism that the members of the committee were forced later in the campaign to disclaim their authorship and shift that responsibility to the shoulders of a press agent. Seattle has already entered upon two important experiments in municipal ownership, one a gravity water system, and the other a water-power electriclighting plant, both of which have proven successful and highly profitable. These, together with the abuses and offenses of the privately owned street railway service, formed the chief line of attack. The Republicans attempted to shift the fight to the moral issue of an "open" or a "closed" town, but the independents met them on that ground with declarations even stronger than the Republicans cared to make lest they alienate some of their support of the wide-open element. Under the laws of Washington any city of the first class may, by popular vote, issue bonds for the construction or purchase of a street railway system or other public utility, the bonds so issued to be a lien only upon the

property so constructed or purchased and upon its earnings. In the recent campaign both parties pledged their councilmanic candidates to submit such a proposal to a vote at the earliest practicable time, and it is now anticipated that it will be submitted within a few months after the new Council comes in, in April. The people of Seattle won another victory in the recent election in the adoption by a vote of approximately eight to one of a charter amendment modeled after the Los Angeles charter provision, and reserving to the voters the power to recall from office a public official who does not give satisfaction to his constituents.

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The twenty-fifth anniver-The Tuskegee sary of the founding Anniversary of the Tuskegee Normal and Industrial Institute was celebrated by "a week of days," beginning on Sunday, the first of April, with special services in the great chapel, which seats easily the fourteen hundred students, the teachers and their families, and others who may choose to attend. was a sea of people all the week. main part of the programme was carried out on Wednesday and Thursday, on the arrival of the special train from New York bringing about a hundred men and women who are deeply interested in the wonderful work that has been growing with such unexampled strength and activity for a quarter of a century. The speakers represented both sections, both races, both sexes, and several denominations. To the Northern visitors present the most interesting features were the cordial indorsement of Tuskegee Institute and its Principal by such representative Southern men as Bishop Galloway, of Mississippi, and Dr. J. W. Abercrombie, President of the University of Alabama, and the addresses by negro speakers, both men and women, graduates of Tuskegee, giving account of their work for their race; one of the most interesting of these was the report by J: W. Robinson on the work of Tuskegee graduates in western Africa, carried on under the authority and at the expense of the German Government, for the promotion of the cotton industry there by the native population. Among the addresses from the North perhaps the most notable was that of the Hon. W. H. Taft on the significance and application

of the three constitutional amendments relative to the negro and his history. His speech was taken to represent the views of the Administration. In it he defended the right, and, we think, impliedly the wisdom, of attaching qualifications to the suffrage, provided they are not qualifications of race, color, or previous condition of servitude. Judging from the relative volume of applause which greeted his address and the contrary opinion of William Lloyd Garrison in favor of unqualified suffrage, the former opinion had the support of a majority of the negro audience. President Northrop's wholly extemporaneous address was a fine specimen of multum in parvo, and spontaneous and prolonged applause greeted the emphasis he laid on the idea that the material gains of the colored people are not the chief gains, but their increased ability to be of service to humanity in the highest and noblest This was in line with what was said by President Eliot, who, quoting Dr. Washington, added, "I could not find it possible to state in more precise terms the present needs of Harvard University than Dr. Washington has stated the needs of Tuskegee. They are the same for the two institutions: a considerable sum of money to be used at the discretion of the trustees to fill gaps and make improvements, to enlarge and co-ordinate the different branches of the institution. The real education which Harvard University has been trying to give for two hundred and seventy years is just the same thing that Tuskegee has been trying to give for twenty-five years: to teach youth the love of freedom, the love of truth, and the love of service. The two institutions have different histories, but their ends are the same." The music was good, the singing of the hymns by the great congregation of rich negro voices was inspiring, and the weather was simply perfect, so that in all these respects nothing more could be desired. Exhibits of all kinds, agricultural, historic, domestic, and academic, were disposed in different buildings and were crowded with visitors, while during certain hours of each day the academic and theory classes were in session and open to the

public. A pleasant incident in the celebration was the gift of a silver lovingcup to Booker Washington from the people of Mobile. His response was characteristically appreciative, as were his words with reference to his Tuskegee neighbors: "From the citizens of both races in my county I have been the recipient of marks of friendship. During all these years I have never received one personal indignity in word or act. Nor have I ever asked anything of black or white citizens which it was in their power to grant that I have not received." At the close of the week, after seeing and hearing everything that demonstrated the value of what Tuskegee is doing, there were many to echo the opinion of President Eliot that there should be at least one such institution as Tuskegee in each of the Southern States, and "in my judgment," said he, "the National Government, through whose action slavery was abolished, should take a hand in the establishment of these new Tuskegees. . . . Wherever throughout the country there are communities of colored people so populous that separate schools must be maintained for them, the National Government should give aid to the States that they may have competent normal schools."

.At the Convention of the Racial Student Volunteer Move-Self-Esteem ment recently held at Nashville, Tennessee, the colored delegates and the white delegates were seated separately. The arrangement occasioned no small amount of criticism. Some of the colored delegates, accepting this arrangement as an insult to their race, declined to attend the Convention. number of white delegates have interpreted it in the same way. One negro minister has written a letter calling the action of the officers of the Convention unchristian. The incident has now been made notable by an article published in the "Congregationalist" by a negro minister, to whose words we have in another instance had occasion to refer, the Rev. T. Nelson Baker, of Pittsfield, Massachusetts. He points out very clearly that to regard the separation of

the races as an insult to the negro is equivalent to an assertion that the negro is an inferior. From his article we quote the following sentences:

There is but one thing that will ever save the negroes of the South from the pity of all thoughtful people—and pity borders on contempt—and that is the growth of a feeling in the heart of the Southern negro that makes him as proud of being by himself as the Southern white man is of being by himself... It is hard to respect a person that is always whining and pouting because you do not want to sit by him. . . When the negro really feels as proud of being black as the white man does of being white, he will no longer feel humiliated by being seated by himself. . . . Booker T. Washington is just as great a man sitting apart with his mother's people as he is when he sits with his father's neonle

There is growing up among the negroes of this land a class of persons who spend their time and strength in talking and writing about their "manhood." This talk has the tendency to give one the same feeling one has in the presence of the woman who is always talking about how sacred she holds her virtue. Superiority, manhood, and virtue never speak of themselves.

Mr. Baker has no hesitation in declaring that the wrongs done the negro should be fought, but he makes it plain that he does not agree with those who put their faith in methods of fighting wrong which involve a disregard of the separation of the races:

Some would destroy the "Jim Crow car," so that white and colored can travel together; others would destroy the "Jim Crow negro," so that the so-called "Jim Crow car" would be the best car in which to travel. This is the longest way round, but it is the surest way home.

This constant protest against everything like race separation has a deeper meaning than at first sight appears. There is a class of negro leaders who in their blindness object to everything negro. They object to negro churches, and call them a great wrong against the negro; they object to negro schools, and feel that a great wrong has been done the negro child who has not been allowed to attend school with white children—and in their heart of hearts they object to the negro child.

The name negro smacks of reproach—so did the name Christian once, but to-day it is the name which is above every name. Names are what the owners of the names make them.

We commend these statements by a negro minister to those who, by protesting

against the separation of the races, are really urging the negroes to regard separation as a badge of inferiority.

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The troubles which have Zion in been smoldering in John a Ferment Alexander Dowie's community for many months past last week broke out into flames. The leader of the strange religious cult which is known as the Christian Catholic Church of Zion has been an autocrat from the begin-He has displayed great skill in ning. selecting from various sources the most effective devices for impressing with a sense of his power the sort of people whom he has succeeded in gathering together. Faith healing combined with time-clock devices for recording prayers, elaborate ritual skillfully combined with the informality of revival services, great industrial schemes combined with an arrangement by which the various undertakings are vested in him personally, observances of fasts and certain forms of abstinence combined with appeals to some of the crudest passions and desires for self-indulgence, a complicated organism combined with a retention of supreme power for himself, constitute some of the methods by which he has built up a city in Illinois and has created for himself a position which combines the function of an army general, an ecelesiastical patriarch, a religious prophet, a miracle-worker, a fortune-teller, and a corporation magnate. Financial adverses seem now to be the cause of this autocrat's present difficulties. to these are his physical disability, which has shaken the faith of some of his followers in the superabundance of his power to deal with the ills of the human flesh, and the suspicions of his subordinates in office that he is inclined toward polygamy. From the contradictory reports in the daily papers this much at least appears: that he is separated from his wife and son, and that divorce proceedings have been or are about to be commenced; that the community sympathizes with the wife; that the lieutenant to whom in his temporary absence he gave a power of attorney involving complete control of the property of the

community has used this power to deed the property to a different representative of Zion; and this action has been accompanied by a communication from the new leader informing him that he has been suspended from office. What he may accomplish by his personal presence when he reaches Zion it is impossible to say. At other critical stages in his career he has succeeded in rescuing himself from very grave difficulties; but now, with his most trusted lieutenants and even his wife and his son attacking him with bitterness and determination, he is in a position the only outcome of which appears to mean either his own retirement or the disintegration of the community he has constructed. The present condition of Dowieism illustrates the fact that superstition has within itself elements which bring it to destruction.



Our readers will recall a The Case of notable letter from the Dr. Crapsey Rev. A. S. Crapsey, published in The Outlook for September 2. 1905, and the correspondence to which it led. Charges of heresy were subsequently preferred against Mr. Crapsey, who is the rector of St. Andrew's Episcopal Church in Rochester, New York. These charges are based upon a volume written by him entitled "Religion and Politics," and on a sermon preached by him last December. His accusers aver that Dr. Crapsey denies the virgin birth of Jesus, his resurrection, his miracles, and generally his divine origin and character; in a word, the supernatural in Christianity. The charges were first brought before a Committee of Investigation which decided that the evidence did not justify a presentment. The "Churchman," which is unquestionably both the ablest and the most broadly representative organ of the Episcopal Church, affirms that "to the overwhelming mass of churchmen and non-churchmen this judgment will doubtless stand as representing common justice, no matter what the decision of the present court may be." Dr. Crapsey has, however, been presented for trial by the Standing Committee of the Diocese to which his parish belongs, and the case is set down by the Bishop of Western New York, Dr. William David Walker, for trial on the 17th of this month.

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Whether the Com-What is Fundamental mittee of Investiga-Christianity? tion and the "overwhelming mass of churchmen and nonchurchmen" or the Standing Committee are correct in their interpretation of Dr. Crapsey we shall not here consider. do this would require a careful and judicial review of his book. But, assuming for the moment that the Standing Committee are correct in their interpretation, two questions remain: Are the views attributed to Dr. Crapsey sound or unsound? If unsound, does the error disqualify him for the ministry? There are three views of Christianity entertained to-day: the first, that man is left to grope his way as best he can to the truth, and that Christianity is the best solution of the enigma of life which he has yet reached; the second, that God has appeared to a special chosen people and given to them the solution, and that Christianity is that specially revealed solution; the third, that God is and always has been man's Companion, that revelation is as universal as aspiration, that all religions are partial revealings of God to man and in man, and that Christianity is the supreme chapter in this history of perpetual revelation. The first view eliminates the supernatural, the second regards it as an episode, the third believes in it as universal. The Standing Committee attribute the first view to Dr. Crapsey; they themselves hold the second view; The Outlook, in common with an increasing number of Christians, holds the third. We are inclined to the opinion that this is also Dr. Crapsey's view, though by him not always clearly differentiated from the first. were it otherwise the question would still remain, Should he be excluded from the ministry for his error? We think The Church of Christ is not a school of philosophy, it is a reservoir of It should be large enough to welcome to its membership all who profess and call themselves Christians, and to its ministry all who, in the spirit of

Christ, are endeavoring to promote peace and good will among men. Christ has given his ministers both their mission and their equipment: "As my Father hath sent me, even so send I you. Receive ye the Holy Spirit. Whose soever sins ye remit, they are remitted unto them; whose soever sins ye retain, they are retained." Whosoever accepts this Christly mission, manifests this Christly spirit, and gives himself to this Christly task of delivering men from the pains and the bondage of sin, belongs in the Christian ministry, whatever philosophy he may hold respecting the true solution of the enigma of life.

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Eastman Johnson, who Eastman Johnson died at his home in New York City last week, was in his eighty-second year and was one of the patriarchs of American painting. He was born in Maine, taught himself to paint portraits, and in Washington, while still a very young man, painted portraits of John Ouincy Adams, Mrs. Madison, Emerson, Webster, Longfellow, Hawthorne, and many other prominent Americans. In 1849 he became the pupil of Leutze in Düsseldorf, and subsequently studied in Italy and Holland, spending four years in the latter country. On his return to Washington he opened a studio in Boston; his interest in Indians and his desire to study them for painting purposes led him to the shores of Lake Superior; in 1857 he became one of the group of artists and writing men who did their work in the old University building on Washington Square, New York. He became known early both as a portrait painter and as a painter of characteristic types—what the French call a "genre" painter. "The Old Kentucky Home "captivated the public imagination in 1858; other pictures which won their way to great popularity were "The Barefoot Boy," "Fiddling His Way," "The Old Stage-Coach," "A Sunday Morning," and "The Pension Agent." Among prominent men who sat for him in later years were Presidents Arthur, Cleveland, and Harrison, Presidents McCosh, Porter, and White, Bishop Potter, and a long line of

women of social prominence. Eastman Johnson was not in any sense of the word a great painter, but he was a very painstaking and faithful interpreter of life and character, both in his portrait and genre work. His technique was good without being brilliant, and he had an opportunity of recording the history of his time in a series of portraits which are likely to give his work hereafter something of the historical interest of that of Copley and Stuart. Like them, he came at a fortunate period, and he has caught and transmitted to posterity the features and in a certain sense the standards and ideals of a generation educated in common traditions. more sincere, straightforward artist has lived in America, nor one more devoted to his craft; and the great respect and honor in which he was held were recognition alike of his character and his talent. He was one of the very few survivors of the older generation of artists whose work was stamped by great simplicity, directness, and thoroughness of technique rather than the refinement and subtlety of the later methods, and lacking the atmosphere and imagination of the best work of the more recent men.

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Mr. J. Fred Wolle, who An Orchestra in created the Bach Festhe Open Air tivals at Bethlehem. Pennsylvania, and whose extraordinary ability to impart to others his own musical sensitiveness and intelligence gave to those festivals great distinction, has been performing this year a similar, yet different, service on the Pacific coast. He has established a series of orchestral concerts in the open air. These have been held in the Greek Theater, belonging to the University of California, at Berkeley. There, under the Californian sky, with the breeze blowing freely upon the audience and sounding in the branches of the trees, while the songs of the birds could be heard in the intermissions, modern orchestral music has been given under conditions resembling those under which the ancient Greek dramas were presented. At the second of these concerts, in March, there were present some seven thousand persons.

Although the orchestra which has been formed is not a large one—about sixty performers—it has received high praise. and has amply justified its existence. Mr. Wolle directs the performers in the open air in California, as he did in the Moravian Church at Bethlehem, without a baton. The whole of his lithe, sensitive, nervous figure he utilizes in playing upon the body of musicians before him. In Bethlehem he devoted himself to interpreting Bach. We question whether there is any other musical leader in this country who combines, as does Mr. Wolle, a minute technical knowledge of the intricate works of Bach with a profound appreciation of their emotional and, if we may be permitted the term, romantic-character. This union of musicianly knowledge with artistic sensibility is now exhibited in Mr. Wolle's interpretation of other masters. His power to arouse musical enthusiasm has again been demonstrated by the response which the Berkeley concerts have evoked. The undertaking has no commercial object. Its high and disinterested character is secured by the fact that it is under the auspices of the University of California. The University is fortunate in having Mr. Wolle in its chair of Mu-President Wheeler announced at the close of the first concert that "a permanent orchestra is assured to the University."

It is encouraging to note The Anti-Smoke the increasing interest Campaign in the work of the Anti-Smoke League and the increasing activity of the authorities in suppressing the smoke nuisance. The city of New York is almost free from black smoke, but all sorts of craft on both rivers still pour forth clouds that darken the sky and contribute murkiness to the landscape, while along the Long Island and New Jersey shores great clouds of smoke rise day by day. It is a matter of prime importance, however, that so far the Borough of New York has been successful in its fight, and that it still rejoices in skies which, for the greater part of the year, are as blue as those of Italy. The Department of Health has done good work in this direction; it is clothed

with ample powers, and what it needs is the support of a vigorous and persistent public opinion. The fight for pure air and clear skies is not waged against any kind of fuel; it is a fight to secure certain results essential to health and to beauty. Any kind of fuel may be used; all that the law requires is that it shall be used in such a way as to leave air and sky uncontaminated and unobscured. Beauty is a prime element in the attractiveness of great cities, an asset of the utmost value; but it is not for beauty alone that the Anti-Smoke League is contending; it is for utility as well. smoke-laden air involves an enormous loss to manufacturers and dealers in fine goods of every sort; it greatly adds to the expense of cleanliness for people of all degrees of wealth or poverty, and it is undoubtedly an element of irritation if not of disease. New York would be very short-sighted if it were to permit, by its carelessness and indifference, a nuisance to grow up against which Western cities are organizing and conducting extensive and expensive campaigns. Every citizen ought to be awake to the immense value of the air and sky of the metropolis; they are a part of the common possession of men and women of every class, and the whole city ought to be organized for their protection.

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As an outcome of the yellow Inter-State fever epidemic in New Or-Quarantine leans, and the conference of representatives of Southern States to promote more effective quarantine measures, a bill which puts under the control of the Secretary of the Treasury all quarantine stations, grounds, and anchorages, empowers him, under certain conditions, to establish quarantine stations, and provides penalties for any interference or obstruction with inter-State transportation of passengers, freight, and baggage properly passed upon by the Public Health and Marine Hospital Service, has been passed by the House of Representatives by an overwhelming vote. In spite of the opposition of certain Representatives from Southern States on the ground that Federal control of quarantine is an interference with

the rights of the States, the movement for National supervision has proved so far to be irresistible. The unseemliness of the squabbles between State governments on the subject of quarantine during the yellow fever epidemic of last summer, and the injury done by the attempt of local or State bodies to deal with a disease which had no regard for State or local boundaries, have supplied so complete an answer to all objections that even so vigorous a defender of the rights of the States as Mr. Williams, of Mississippi, has characterized this bill as a public necessity. It is to be hoped that the bill will meet in the Senate as prompt affirmative action as it found in the House.

Niagara and the Nation

The people of America have been swiftly coming, of late, to understand that they are the real owners of Niagara Falls, and that it is their duty, as well as their high privilege, to see that this scenic wonder is preserved to posterity undiminished in glory. The fact that it is possible to transmute its beauty into certain hundreds of thousands of horsepower for the enrichment of a few is widely accounted as of small consequence compared with the Falls themselves, which are now gravely jeopardized, and will in all probability be destroyed unless the people promptly claim their own. If New York City, with three million people, can afford the luxury of Central Park, which is estimated to represent a value of two hundred and twenty-five million dollars, the people of the United States and Canada cannot afford to count too closely the money cost of stopping now the work of commercializing Niagara, which has made such alarming progress.

The Outlook presented briefly last week the conclusions of the American section of the International Waterways Commission, and the recommendation to Congress that these conclusions be enacted into law pending an international agreement for making the arrangement permanent. Careful study of this report has led to a widespread convic-

tion that these recommendations fall far short of the necessities of the situation, and that to concede all that the Commission proposes will constitute a serious menace to the beauty of the Falls. Acting on this conviction, representatives of the American Civic Association and the Merchants' Association of New York presented to the President of the United States and to the Committee on Rivers and Harbors of the House of Representatives, a few days since, considerations which led to the recommendation of immediate action arresting at substantially the present point all development involving additional diversion of Niagara water.

The facts which it is important for the people of this country to bear in mind in considering this matter may be restated as follows:

The total quantity of water to be taken from the river by private works now authorized is 60,900 cubic feet per second, to which must be added diversions of 12,200 feet for the Chicago Drainage Canal, the Erie Canal, and the Welland Canal, amounting to a grand total of 73,100 feet. This amount is distributed as follows:

Cu	bic feet.
Niagara Falls Hydraulic Power and	
Manufacturing Company	9,500
Niagara Falls Power Company	17,200
Canadian Niagara Power Company	9,500
Ontario Power Company, not includ-	
ing Welland River Development	12,000
Electrical Development Company	11,200
Niagara Falls Park Railway Company	1,500
Chicago Drainage Canal	10,000
Welland Canal or its tenants	1,800
Erie Canal or its tenants	400
Grand total	73,100

This grand total is thirty-three per cent. of the maximum and forty per cent. of the minimum amount of water passing over Niagara Falls.

The quantity of water thus to be diverted is more than double the quantity which now passes over the American Fall, and is equivalent to the entire discharge of Lake Superior through the Sault Ste. Marie. The Commission says: "That this will in general have an injurious effect upon the Falls seems self-evident."

The amount of water at the present

time actually diverted from the Falls is but 17,800 cubic feet a second, which diversion "has had," in the language of the Commission, "an appreciable effect upon the Falls."

The recommendation of the Commission, transmitted to Congress, is that the Secretary of War be authorized to grant permits for the diversion of 28,500 feet a second and no more, as follows:

Cu	bıc feet.
Niagara Falls Hydraulic Power and	
Manufacturing Company	9,500
Niagara Falls Power Company	
Erie Canal or its tenants (in addition	,
to lock service)	400
Chicago Drainage Canal	10,000
This provision is predicated upon	
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dian action restricting the diversion of water to a total of 36,000 feet, as follows:

Canadian Niagara Power Company	9,500
Ontario Power Company	12,000
Electrical Development Company	11,200
Niagara Falls Park Railway Company	1,50^
Welland Canal or its tenants (in addi-	· <u>-</u> '
tion to lock service)	1,800
•	•

That is to say, the Commission recommends that legislative action be taken, concurrently with Canadian action, for diverting from Niagara Falls sixty-four thousand five hundred cubic feet of water per second, or nearly four times as much as is now diverted, notwithstanding the fact that the present diversion "has had an appreciable effect upon the Falls."

It seems perfectly clear to The Outlook that the recommendation of the Commission ought not to be adopted, but that the Secretary of War should be directed by the President to interrupt at substantially the present point all developments involving additional diversion; that Congress should enact at once a law to the same effect; and that the Secretary of State should be advised to bring to the attention of the Government of Great Britain this action, with a request for similar action on its part pending a final international adjustment of the whole question.

There is good authority for saying that this in general expresses the present views of the President and of those in Congress who will be most influential in dealing with the question.

What is important just now is that both the President and Congress should

be assured that the people of the whole country are behind them in this effort to save Niagara Falls for all the people.

The Searchlight: Use and Abuse

The past year will probably be known in the future as the year of investigations. The searchlight of inquiry has been turned in various directions, and the revelations of financial character, management, and condition which have come to light have held public attention almost to the exclusion of other matters of interest. A considerable part of the public have reached a state of mind which is not satisfied unless the searchlight, like that which flashes from some of the river steamboats, touching now a house, now a boat, now a group of people, now a bit of wood on one side or the other of the river, is continually bringing new objects within view and lifting the veil of privacy from men and enterprises in all parts of the country. There is danger that the searchlight may be overworked, as the phrase runs; that the use of investigation may be diverted from its proper channels; that what ought to be an instrument for moral reform and ethical reorganization may be discredited by the improper purposes to which it is put and the over-emphasis laid upon its use. The searchlight to discover the position of a ship and the possible dangers that surround it is of immense value; the searchlight used to amuse a crowd of passengers on the deck of a steamer on a pleasant summer evening may be diverting, but it can hardly be regarded as aid to safety in making the voyage.

The use of investigation to uncover conditions in order that evil things may be remedied, wrong things set right, inefficient methods discarded, evil-doers punished, has been admirably illustrated by the method and spirit of the Armstrong Committee, the members of which, indifferent alike to the antagonism of great interests and to popular clamor, relentlessly but dispassionately went, as far as time permitted, to the bottom of

the management of the life insurance business in this country, not for the purpose of supplying sensational newspapers with material for scare-lines, but for the purpose of laying the foundation for intelligent legislation. It was admirably illustrated a generation ago in New York City when the frauds perpetrated by the members of the Tweed Ring were traced step by step and brought to light. that historic instance, as in the work of the Armstrong Committee, the searchlight was turned on for the purpose of discovering how the interests of the public were administered; and in both cases the investigation laid the basis for reorganization and reformation. In order to strike at an abuse its nature must be understood; to reorganize a bad system its defects must be brought to light; to set an ethical revolution in motion the offenses against righteousness must be understood. Investigation of this kind cannot be too searching and thorough.

There is danger, however, that a habit of using the searchlight of investigation may be formed, and that method which ought to be used with the greatest discretion and for the highest purposes may lose its force and cease to be one of the most efficient instruments of re-Serious investigation for serious ends under intelligent direction, indifferent alike to the antagonism of great interests and to the clamor of the public, is of the very highest importance; but investigation for the purpose of securing sensational results to divert and amuse the public is a travesty of an invaluable method, a waste of a force for righteousness, and in the last degree demoral-If moral reformation is to be brought about, and the public and private business of the public placed on a sound basis, there must be substantial faith in general integrity, and a wise use of criticism and condemnation. Nothing could defeat the hopes of reformers more completely than to breed general distrust, the habit of speaking of all organizations and of all men of affairs cynically, the dissemination of the idea that everything and everybody is corrupt.

The American people are proverbially volatile. They lack, as compared with the English, for instance, the power

of concentration and of holding their attention on one movement until it has been carried to its end and a piece of constructive work entirely finished. The Englishman has the capacity of getting angry and storing up righteous anger as a motive power until the abuse against which he protests has been removed. The American gets angry and in a day or two either forgets or jokes about the offense which aroused his indignation. It is in the last degree important that the feeling of indignation, the sense of moral outrage, which have come as the result of the revelation of extravagance in the use of other people's money, the betrayal of trusts by men in whom everybody confided, the moral slovenliness and the cheap and shabby way of looking at life taken by men of high position, shall be converted into motive power, and that the righteous indignation of a whole people should vent itself, not in indiscriminate condemnation, but in clear, wise, curative legislation.

A period of investigation ought always to be prefatory to a period of constructive legislation and ethical reorganization. In the life insurance field investigation is not complete, but the period of investigation has already given place to the period of reorganization. It is not to tear down for the sake of entertaining a crowd of idlers, but to tear down in order to rebuild on true foundations and along sound lines of construction, that Americans must bend their energies.

Tuskegee

In 1880 the Legislature of Alabama established a Tuskegee State Normal School for colored people, appropriating for it two thousand dollars. It asked Hampton Institute to recommend a principal, and on the Institute's recommendation Booker T. Washington, a then wholly unknown colored young man of twenty-one years of age, came to Tuskegee to open the school. Last week Tuskegee Institute celebrated its quarter-centennial. A special train from the North and local trains from the South brought to Tuskegee probably not less than two hundred distinguished visitors. They came

to an institution possessing 2,300 acres of land, upwards of ninety buildings, over 1,200 pupils, over 150 teachers, an aggregate endowment, including its real estate, over \$2,000,000 in value, and involving a current expenditure of about \$180,000.

Dollars are, however, a wholly inadequate measure of the value of such an institution. From its gates six thousand men and women have gone out to carry with them a leaven of intelligent industry throughout the South, and some of them into distant lands. Nearly five hundred of its pupils have been trained in its Bible training school for direct Christian Upwards of two thousand are engaged in teaching. Out of their efforts have sprung sixteen incorporated schools animated by its spirit and extending its work; how many unincorporated schools we do not know. It is not known that a single graduate has ever been convicted of a crime. Of the anniversary exercises we give a brief account on another page. Doubtless interested readers can secure fuller accounts by addressing Mr. E. Scott, Mr. Washington's private secretary at Tuskegee, and making a small remittance to pay the cost of the report which will be published. Here we briefly interpret Tuskegee Normal and Industrial Institute as an object-lesson.

It is of course first of all a monument to the genius of its founder. Born a slave, receiving at Hampton not more than the equivalent of a high school education, devoting himself with singleness of purpose to the education of his race, inspired by faith in their capacity, proud to be known as a negro and identifying himself with the negroes, believing from the very beginning that it was both possible and indispensable to maintain the friendship of the whites among whom their lot was cast, believing, too, that the only way to secure respect is to deserve it, and that the first condition of deserving it is to be self-respecting and self-supporting, Mr. Washington has never allowed himself to be swerved from his purpose by flattery nor hindered in it by insults-and he has been the recipient of both flattery and insult from both whites and negroes. Greater educators than Dr. Washington there may

have been; but it would not be easy to find in the history of any race the story of a life more Christlike in its patient devotion to an unselfish cause than his has been.

Nor is this Institute less a witness to the possibilities of the Afro-American. The possibilities of a race are always measured, not by their averages, but by their leaders. We go not to the discouraged inhabitants of our deserted hill towns, not to the slums of our overcrowded cities, not to the lawless populations of our pioneer communities, to ascertain of what the Anglo Saxon is capable. We ask our schools and colleges for their graduates, our towns and cities for the best exemplars of their enterprise, our rural populations for their prosperous farmers; or we look to exceptional geniuses like Jefferson or Lincoln, like Fulton or Morse, like Lowell or Hawthorne, like Brooks or Beecher. Dr. Washington is a conclusive answer to the ignorant assertion that the negro is incapable of great things. Nor does Dr. Washington stand alone. No great leader ever stands alone. Dr. Washington has no more made Tuskegee than Dr. Eliot has made Harvard. Harvard could not be were there not scholars able to receive what Harvard has to give; Tuskegee could not be were there not negro pupils able to realize the vision which Dr. Washington was the first to see.

Nor is Tuskegee less a monument to the white people of the South. It was called into existence by the white people of the South. It received its first appropriation from a Legislature representing the white people of the State. It has had official and financial indorsement every succeeding year from the same quarter. Southern bishops, judges, legislators, and citizens eminent in private life have vied with each other in doing it honor and giving to it their So hearty, so unanimous, has been this support that Dr. Washington was able to say that he had never asked anything of his white neighbors which they had not cordially granted to him if it was in their power to do so.

It appears to us that Tuskegee is equally a testimony to the value of

democratic institutions and the democratic spirit. Dr. Eliot in his address said that Tuskegee had acquired more in the first twenty-five years of its existence than Harvard had acquired in its first two hundred years. It is true that during the first two hundred years of Harvard the country was poor, during the first twenty-five years of Tuskegee the country has been rich; during the first two hundred years of Harvard popular education was to some extent an experiment, during the first twenty-five years of Tuskegee it has been a National enthusiasm; that the education of Harvard for the first two hundred years was almost exclusively classical and literary, while the education at Tuskegee has been primarily industrial and commercial. But, making all allowances for these important differences, it still remains true that never before in the educational history of mankind have twenty-five years shown such phenomenal growth in any single institution, and that nowhere else except in America would such a growth have been possible. For the gifts of the State of Alabama have been chiefly valuable as a token of her good will; in the main, Tuskegee is the product of private benevolence. It is an educational edifice built up by spontaneous gifts, not even aided by subsidiary denominational or sectional or race pride. it is a living testimony to the value which a democratic country and a commercial age put upon education—that is, upon character. It is not just to call such an age and such a country sordid.

Finally, Tuskegee is a conclusive reply to those who have thought to exalt classical learning by disparaging industrial training. The men and women whom it has graduated and the work which they are doing, the more than a score of schools, large and small, which they have founded, and the leaven of intelligence which because of them is spreading through the community, constitute an unanswerable witness to the truth that the Christian spirit is not confined to ecclesiastical organizations, and that education is something more than reading, writing, and arithmetic, even though the reading be of Latin and Greek, the writing of essays, stories, and poems, and

the arithmetic be carried forward into logarithms and conic sections. Education is the development of the whole man; and practical education in the mechanic arts, if it fits the pupil for a life of useful and happy service, is higher than education in what are called the classics if it leaves him impotent for service and discontented with his life.

Dr. Washington asked last week for an endowment of six or seven millionsthat is, he wishes to treble the present endowment. His request is reasonable. Without any official position, he has yet become the superintendent of education for his race in the United States. More than that, by his ministry he has broad ened the public conception of education and done probably more than any other one man to give impulse to that industrial education which is to-day the greatest need of both races and both sections. The service which his educational campaigns have rendered to the North has been great; but it is no longer necessary, and it is time that he was relieved from continuing it. He could render the best future service to his country were he free to improve the quality of Tuskegee's academic work, to broaden still further its curriculum, both literary and industrial, and, above all, to push forward its extension work until in every community in at least the Gulf States there is a school guided by the same purpose and animated by the same spirit.

He Is Risen

Twenty-five years ago, when the movement of reaction against the easily accepted faiths of the past set in motion by the more exact and exacting methods of scientific thought was at its height, the story of the Resurrection faded for many into a noble tradition; one of those beautiful visions which have always hung like clouds about the horizon of the sad, stern world of actual life. A few of the thoughtless, who had never felt the tragedy of a life unlighted by the great hope of immortality, sneered; the cynical, who "knew the price of everything and the value of nothing," scoffed; but

to many of those who felt the intellectual influence of the time too deeply to resist the outgoing of the tide of faith, it brought passionate sorrow or despair:

"While we believed, on earth He went
And open stood His grave;
Men called from chamber, church, and tent,
And Christ was by to save.
Now He is dead. Far hence He lies
In the lone Syrian town,
And on His grave with shining eyes
The Syrian stars look down."

But the stone rolled back against the sepulcher with jeers or sighs, with cynical derision or with a sad sincerity of conviction, would not rest where human hands, working against human hopes, had placed it. Roman centurions could not keep the Christ among the dead; and modern doubt and skepticism have found themselves as powerless against that invincible life. The tomb is empty, the grave-clothes are laid aside, the stone has been rolled away, the Christ lives!

The question of the manner of his appearance and of the form he wore is immaterial; the glorious fact remains that he who banished sin and pain and care and sorrow overcame death also; that he who walked with men along the road of life and shared their lot walked also with them into the valley of the shadow of death and emerged again into the light unharmed and serene. Henceforth death has no sting of despair and no victory over life; both are incidents in an endless life.

The Christ cannot be kept within the bounds of mortality by any theory or explanation which the most learned or subtle can formulate; he stands outside every endeavor to account for his unique personality and career; theory after theory has been advanced and abandoned; no interpretation can bind him to the earth and hold him within the limits of its laws as men understand them. He has made no new manifestation of his power; he has added no new chapter to the brief and simple biography made by his immediate followers; but his critics themselves have become aware that he stands outside the circle of their arguments and proofs, and is still the one personality through whom the will of God shines with undimmed light and in whose life and death the supremacy of the immortal disclosed itself moment by moment over the mortal.

Science speaks of him to-day in another language; for the universe which it studies with such self-denying patience and noble integrity of aim is no longer the hard, material universe of twenty-five years ago. It has grown more marvelous, its laws have taken a vaster sweep, its forces approach every year more closely the confines of the spiritual, it grows day by day more and more what men used to call a miracle; and every decade it makes more room for the Christ, sheds a friendlier light upon his career, becomes more hospitable in its attitude toward him. The stone has been rolled back, not only from his sepulcher, but from the deeper mysteries of a world which once seemed the burying-ground of a race whose dreams mocked them with futile visions of a divine meaning in their fate.

There are few facts in ancient history which rest on a surer foundation of documentary evidence than the reappearance of the Christ after his body was committed to the tomb. There is no event, among all the events in this brief section of life which we call time, so overwhelmingly proved by the most convincing of witnesses: the deep-going and final change of mind and character in those who were in personal contact with him. When the stone was rolled against the sepulcher, the disciples were scattered like helpless sheep; one openly denied him, others fled from the scene of his agony, and those that remained were silent or heartbroken; and then, straightway, as if some tremendous revelation had come to them with a force which silenced all questioning forever, these timid, doubting, cowardly men became tireless teachers, eloquent witnesses, heroes and martyrs; instead of hiding their faith, they wore it like a shining robe, and went their several ways to death with songs of rejoicing. And one of the greatest of the company of men of genius, coming a little later not only to deride but to persecute him, was overtaken on the way by a proof so overwhelming that the fanatical hater became the greatest of the witnesses. and went about the world rejoicing in

all trial and steadfast in all suffering, that he might declare everywhere, "He is risen from the dead." And there remains also the long, unbroken tradition handed down from generation to generation, and incorporated to-day in organized Christendom; for the Church everywhere, by whatever name it is called, and all civilization that is Christian, has as its one characteristic message and central truth, "He is risen, He is not here."

The resurrection was not a singular and detached fact in the life of the Christ; it was only an incident. To men it was a demonstration of such tremendous significance that it seemed almost unbelievable; to the great invisible company who saw him from the spiritual side it was an incident in an unbroken Life.

It was predicted, however, from the hour when he lay in his mother's arms and angels sang his cradle song; it became clear in the loneliness of the wilderness, when the meaning and the work of his career broke like the dawning of day on the consciousness of the Christ; it gathered force and became visible in every word of certainty, every deed of love, every flowing of virtue from his garments, every outgoing of vitality, during those three years that ran like an oasis through the desert of the world; the most fertile, fruitful, and vital years ever recorded in the history of the race.

Beginning in earliest childhood, the stream of life steadily deepened and widened in him until it became a flood that swept all before it, obliterating the ancient boundaries set by death to human life and flowing with the silent majesty of irresistible power beyond the sight of In time the immortal spoke and acted hour by hour; through the Christ's mortality the immortal revealed itself day by day; in him the incredible became the solid fact, not when he rose from the dead, but when, in thought, word, and deed, he made men understand that they are the sons of God, made in his image and partaking his life. From the manger he was immortal because he was the Life; and his resurrection brought immortality to light and set it like an unquenchable torch in the vast buryingground of the world.

THE BOSTON FRANCHISE CONTEST

BY ROBERT A. WOODS AND JOSEPH B. EASTMAN

The reader of this article will be interested to compare it with that by Mr. George C. Sikes on "Chicago's Struggle for Freedom from Traction Rule," published in The Outlook for March 31. Taken together, these articles show in a striking way that the same pressing municipal problems are in our day to be found, though with varied phases, in all our great cities East and West, and that citizens everywhere must act with harmony and promptness if public rights are to be upheld.—The Editors.

N one side a great corporation, backed by wealth, newspapers, politicians, and powerful financial interests; on the other, a handful of resourceful citizens creating public opinion and concentrating it upon the public interests; a contest extending over three years; final victory with the citizens in every detail. That is the most significant thing in the recent political history of Boston.

The subway in Boston means more than most subways. It is the only underground system in the world which is directly connected with both the surface and the elevated systems. business section of Boston is a contracted space surrounded on three sides by sea and river, and partially blocked on the fourth by Beacon Hill and the Common. Its streets are narrow and crooked. and entrance to it must be made for the most part by two parallel thoroughfares-Tremont and Washington Streets. rush hours the dense mass of humanity overflows on the street itself, and the coming of the trolley-cars made the situation impossible. Long, snake-like lines of creeping cars left no room for struggling teams, and endangered the lives of foot passengers. Relief had to be found, and it came in the shape of the subway under Tremont Street—that is, a new street was laid out under ground, devoted to the exclusive use of trolley-cars and elevated trains, and the old street on the surface was cleared for its original purpose—travel by horse and foot. present time another underground thoroughfare is being constructed under Washington Street, which will still further ease the situation. As a result of all this, the subways have become the one essential factor in the transportation system of the city. They gather up the trolley lines extending for miles into the suburbs, and the elevated trains draining the vast districts beyond Charlestown and Roxbury, and concentrate in a small channel well-nigh the entire car service. They provide the one path for surface and elevated cars through the heart of the city. Whoever holds the subways is master of the transportation situation in Boston.

When the first subway was built, it was an experiment. Croakers predicted that its cool, damp depths would breed colds and pneumonia, that the public would respectfully decline to use it. The West End Street Railway Company, which owned most of the surface lines at that time, was given the chance to build and own this experiment, but very promptly and decisively refused. The city was obliged to build and own the subway itself; but the experiment completed was a different matter. There was then no question as to its success; and, moreover, the tracks had been ordered off Tremont Street, under which the main section ran. With no alternative in view, the West End Company agreed to lease the new subway from the

The Company was not only willing and ready to take a lease, but it emphatically insisted upon a tenure of fifty years, the full limit allowed by law, so radically had its point of view shifted. A few public-spirited men, however, began to realize the simple but essential

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principles involved in the situation. The subway was nothing more nor less than a continuation of the street, under the surface instead of above, to be sure, and used by one kind of traffic instead of many, but still a street and to be owned and controlled by the city like other streets. Its creation was of very particular benefit to the street railway corporation, which could afford to pay, and in justice ought to pay, adequate compensation for its use. Additional inventions of transit facilities might make it even more valuable property in the future, and this generation could not in good faith enter into any binding contracts which might tie the hands of future generations and prevent them from taking full advantage of their improved situation.

From this point of view, fifty years was far too long a tenure. The Legislature listened to the men who said so, and found their arguments convincing; for the West End Company had not prepared itself at that time to combat logic with more potent arguments. The resulting lease was the direct and substantial basis of all the subsequent victories over the corporation. It provided for a twenty-year tenure, with a rental of four and seven-eighths per cent. on the cost of construction as compensation—enough to pay the interest on the city's subway debt and provide a sinking fund which will give the city a highly remunerative piece of property, debt free, in about thirty-three years-but in no event was the rental to be less than five cents for every passage of a car through the subway, an important declaration of the broad principle of a toll system and a rental increasing with a growing business.

The formation of the Boston Elevated Railway Company and the facts attendant upon it were responsible for the main contest between the people and the corporation. It came about in this way: The West End Company was making too much money. To tempt a suspicious public with too great a show of declared dividends was distinctly dangerous; but a big New York financier saw the way out of the difficulty. He allied himself with a group of men in Boston, keen and shrewd and not too

scrupulous as to ways and means—men backed by an alliance of great banks and trust companies—the same alliance which has stood sponsor to most of the public service corporations in Massachusetts, and which at that time had a commanding influence with Boston newspapers, politicians, and financial circles. His plan was this: Form a company ostensibly to build elevated roads in Boston, lease the West End, guarantee a comfortable dividend on its stock, and let the rest of the earnings pay dividends on the stock of the new company. proof of this is clear and direct. It is found in the fact that the Boston Elevated stock paid four and a half per cent. dividends before ever a mile of its elevated track was in operation.

The execution of the plan was easy. Some of the West End directors fought bitterly against the New York influence creeping into the Boston transportation field, but the majority succumbed to the too tempting possibilities of the lease. With the cleverest legislative counsel and lobbyists in the State, and no public sentiment crystallized as yet in opposition, the Legislature readily yielded. From it they secured most sweeping and valuable amendments to an old and impracticable charter for elevated railways in Boston. Street railway locations in Massachusetts, with this solitary exception, are revocable at the will of the State or municipal authorities; but the complete set of locations for elevated railways which these amendments granted them were, if built upon, perpetual and irrevocable absolutely. That was the vital point in the highly generous concessions made by the Legislature.

The charter of the Elevated having been secured in a moment of public inertia, the fight between the people and the corporation centered on this point: to counteract the effect of this extraordinary grant to the Elevated Company and to keep the municipality in complete, ready, and effective control of the public utility of transportation. The subway was the vulnerable point in the armor of the Company. It was the only method of connecting the two ends of the elevated system—extending into Charlestown on the north and into Roxbury on

the south—through the heart of the city. With the first subway in municipal control and leased on short and reasonable terms, the city was master of the situation; but in the suggestion for a new parallel subway under Washington Street the corporation saw its opportunity. That could supply the connecting link. If it could in some way secure undisputed and permanent possession of this new underground thoroughfare, its control would be complete. The Elevated Company would be self-sufficient, with all the essentials at hand, and in a position to dictate terms.

If the Company had set out quietly and discreetly to seek this desired end, there is no knowing what a dozing public might not have allowed. But at the outset it made a blunder which proved fatal. Misled, perhaps, by the ease with which its plans had so far been carried through, it now made a move which stung certain citizens into action—the same band of men who stayed awake henceforth and persistently confronted the corporation through all its maneuvers until its final When the subway was completed, the tracks had been ordered off Tremont Street. The tracks and wires were removed, but, with an impertinent confidence in the forces at its command, the Company still allowed the poles to remain. In 1899 the Company ingenuously asked the Legislature for power to replace these same tracks. The excuse was that public convenience required the change. In reality, such a move would have brought back the tedious blockades and would have defeated the whole purpose of the subway. More than that, it would have made that subway no longer essential to the Company. That was the subtle underlying motive.

A majority of the legislators, as usual, bent pliantly to the wishes of their favorite corporation, but Governor Wolcott was induced to force a referendum on the measure. That last resort was granted by a small margin, and the men who fought for it and won their fight dealt the death-blow to the ambitions of the Elevated Company then and there, little as they realized it. The newspapers, almost as a body, were lined up against them, as well as the solid city machine;

but they were men who were confident that the voters of the city could tell the difference between a good business proposition and a bad one when the facts were presented to them clearly and simply. They were not blind enthusiasts. but successful business and professional men, and they organized their campaign on business principles. All the resources of advertising, personal literature, circulars at times printed in New York to avoid treachery, public meetings, and labor union influence, were used copiously and persistently; but the climax came when the men in charge of the movement made a bona-fide offer to pay the city \$50,000 a year for the privilege of maintaining tracks on Tremont Street-the same privilege which the Company wanted as a gift-with the additional guaranty of three-cent fares. an argument which a blind man could see, and there was no answer to it; the people saw its force, and responded in their votes. When all the returns were in and the votes counted, it was found that, notwithstanding the newspapers, notwithstanding the solid influence of the ward bosses, the sense of the people could be relied on. The Company's proposition was snowed under by a vote of 51,585 to 26,354. That very night the Elevated Company set a gang of men removing the offensive poles on Tremont Street. The shadow of that referendum vote hung over them in all their future fights, warned them back from extortionate demands, and inspired the people to alertness and confidence.

The next year the Washington Street subway was broached. There was no doubt as to the popular demand for its The old subway was overconstruction. crowded, and Washington Street was congested beyond endurance. An organization called the Citizens' Association introduced a bill in the Legislature providing for a new subway to be built by the city and leased on the same terms with the existing one. The elevated road began its campaign immediately. The officials of the Company quietly conferred with the members of the Association. "Let the city build this subway," they said, "and it will saddle itself with a burdensome property which no

one will rent. Circumstances compelled us to lease the Tremont Street subway; but now we have our connecting link and our hands cannot be forced; we cannot afford to and will not lease any more subways. Still, the city needs another, and we are willing to help the people out. We will agree to build the subway ourselves. We shall own it forever; but the municipality may, if it wishes, have a three years' option, thirty years after its completion, to buy it at cost; and we shall at the same time agree to take an extension of the Tremont Street subway lease to 1937." The members of the Citizens' Association were not fighters, but men of the ultra-conservative type. They accepted these arguments at face value, and substituted for their first attempt a bill in line with these suggestions. The new bill the Elevated Company promptly and cheerfully adopted as its foster-child.

The listless public was duly impressed with the substitute bill. The majority wanted the subway and were indifferent as to how it was to be obtained. A few. out of their past experience, had more foresight. The creation of the new subway would be worth thousands of dollars to the Elevated Company. It could afford to and would pay good rental, if driven to it. Moreover, what excuse could there be for weakly surrendering the one controlling factor in the transportation situation? The issue was plain, and they resolved to fight for it. proceeded to organize under the name of the Public Franchise League.

The men who comprised this League were the same men who had been opposing the Elevated Company from the time when the first subway was built. They were for the most part business and professional men of standing in the community, and of ability equal to that of the men they opposed. Among them were Louis D. Brandeis, one of the acknowledged leaders of the Boston bar, who at all critical points acted as unpaid counsel for the League; Edward A. Filene, head of a large and growing retail business; Laurence Minot, managing trustee for large real estate interests; B. F. Keith, proprietor of Keith's circuit of theaters; Dr. Morton Prince,

distinguished specialist, with a strong inheritance of public spirit from his father, a former Mayor of the city; George B. Upham and Edward R. Warren, who became interested in connection with their important and successful efforts to preserve the beauty of Boston Common; James R. Carter and Andrew G. Webster, two of the most prominent leaders in the commercial organizations of the city; Robert Treat Paine, Ir., former candidate for the Governorship of the State; Charles M. Cox, of the Chamber of Commerce; and Edward A. Adler, for several years Secretary of the League. The League was also in close touch with settlement workers. and through them with the trade unionists.

At the outset its members stood alone, but these men had beaten the Elevated once, and were confident that they could do it again. First of all, they put their case before the united commercial organizations of the city, and won them over. Thereafter they had behind them the name and influence of the Associated Board of Trade, and in the name of that organization a bill was introduced in the Legislature providing for the construction of the Washington Street subway by the city, with a lease on the same terms as the former one.

But the Mayor was a stumbling-block. He was a Republican Mayor in a Democratic city, anxious to make a striking first year's record by curbing the enormous debt of the city. Naturally, he looked askance at the proposed increase for the construction of the subway. Here was an opportunity for a strategic move, and the League seized it. Mayor Hart's opposition lay the chance for an impressive demonstration in force in full view of the people. The Mayor granted a hearing. The members of the League saw men personally, argued with them, and on the morning of the hearing sent them all special delivery letters. Each fancied that the success of the occasion depended upon him alone, and the Mayor's office was packed to the doors, not with casual onlookers, but with representative men of the city, whose names meant something, all strenuously opposed to the plans of the Elevated Company. At last Boston was awake; thoughtful citizens were alive to the meaning of the situation, in fighting trim, and ready for war. The people saw it, and the Company saw it.

But the Mayor was obdurate, for his political necessities ran parallel with his spirit of short-range Yankee thrift. The time had come to follow up the demonstration by a quick, hard attack on the weak point in the Company's defenses its blustering defiance of the city. The Elevated had loudly proclaimed that it would never lease the tunnel on the same terms with the old one; but perhaps there were those willing to step into the opportunity and take quick advantage The Committee on Metropolitan Affairs, which had the bills under consideration, received the personal pledges of eight well-known business men that a corporation with a paid-in capital of at least \$1,000,000 would be organized to take over the new subway at a rental of 4 7-8 on cost in case the Elevated Company failed to take advantage of its option. Philadelphia brazenly overlooked John Wanamaker's offer to pay millions of dollars for public franchises and gave them away for nothing; but Massachusetts politicians have never yet approached the level of degradation where it is possible to disregard cold, staring The bills went over to the next cash. year.

The winter of 1901 opened with the opposing forces apparently in statu quo. The Elevated Railroad, through the agency of the unsuspicious Citizens' Association, again presented its bill, and the Public Franchise League, in the name of the Associated Board of Trade, presented its counter-plan. It seemed that the old fight was to be waged over the same ground, with every inch bitterly contested. But the Elevated had been outflanked, and its intrenchments were untenable. Apparently fighting along the same lines as the year before, in reality the Elevated people were preparing for a fight in altogether different quarters. When the public hearings were closed, they suddenly swept aside pretense and came forward with a new proposition. The subway, which a year before the Elevated had wished to build

and own forever, it was now willing to build and surrender to the city free of cost at the end of fifty years. But it was just a year too late. The people were now wide awake and in no mood for compromise. They had begun to grasp the proper principles of a public franchise transaction, and this offer failed to include those principles. As compared with the Public Franchise League proposition, it meant a net loss of \$15,-000,000 to the city at the end of the fifty years. Moreover, it still ignored the essential principles—city ownership, short tenure, adequate rental, and the referendum.

The Legislature looked with warm approval on the new proposition, and were disposed to consider objection to so magnanimous a concession as almost The committee were at impertinent. first minded to send it on its way with no public hearing whatever. Petitions from the Public Franchise League and the Board of Trade for such a hearing were at first denied, but the smoldering wrath which such action aroused in the community was too dangerous to be invoked, and the hearings were reopened. Powerful arguments against the proposed move were made, but the legislative counsel of the Company, complacent in the astuteness of his move and the servility of the Legislature, contented himself with a perfunctory reply. With but two dissenting votes, the committee sent in a favorable report. The fifty-year term they reduced to forty, but in all other respects the original proposition stood unchallenged, and there was no referendum clause. That was the significant feature. With its customary arrogance, the Company even went so far as to boast that no referendum provision would ever again be part of a subway bill. Over the lack of that provision the fight came.

It was no mere argumentative contest, but bitter hand-to-hand fighting, and the year 1901 stands out in the history of the Massachusetts General Court in regrettable prominence. The Elevated Company and its agents worked untiringly and relentlessly. They bribed the cheaper members with jobs or otherwise, cajoled the friendly, and threatened to

ruin the careers of the upright. On the other side the campaign was no less strenuous. The Public Franchise League, the Board of Trade, the trade unions, and the one newspaper in Boston which consistently fought on the side of the public, the Boston "Post," stood together in the contest. It may be said here that in situations of this kind Boston has little occasion for pride in its newspapers. The principles for which the Public Franchise League strove are now accepted without question. Yet for three long years only one of the city newspapers could see that side of the question consistently and boldly. They apparently agreed with the philosophy of the proprietor of one eminently respectable newspaper in the city who has said, "The first duty of a newspaper is, not to protect the public interests, but to pay dividends."

The result, so far as the Legislature itself was concerned, was a foregone conclusion: but another factor saved the day. In the Governor's chair at that time was a prosperous manufacturer from the western part of the State. Governor Crane was no orator, nor did he waste words of any sort; he was eminently clear-headed, resolute, and determined to follow only that course which he considered for the business interests of the public. The step which he took brought him into National prominence and deeply endeared him to the hearts of Massachusetts. His mind once made up, he proceeded to put his conviction into execution. In the House the bill had passed triumphantly. Amendment after amendment safeguarding the public interests had been crushed with clockwork precision, with the help of an almost solid vote from the Boston Democrats. When it came before the Senate, so often the happy hunting ground of the corporations, the end seemed in sight. came the shock. Governor Crane quietly made the announcement that under no consideration would he sign the bill unless it contained a referendum clause, and perhaps not then. Consternation swept over the corporation crowd. With the Elevated lobbyists swarming all over the Senate reading-rooms, the corridors, and even the Chamber itself, the debate

went fiercely on. But it was too late to do anything except play the hand through, and the bill was finally passed by a vote of 26 to 13, and sent to the Governor. The veto message came quickly and decisively. It was a crisp, concise, and convincing argument. Governor Crane objected not only to the absence of the referendum, but to many other features. No consideration affecting the public interest, the Governor said, can justify the adoption of this extraordinary proposition, for there is no reasonable doubt that the subway can be built by the city and leased for a sum ample to cover interest and sinking Moreover, it not only binds this generation, but it ties the hands of the next. In 1922 all other special privileges of the Elevated road expire; there is no good reason why the public should not come into complete possession of its own then, and grant such further franchises as improvements justify. bill would insure the Elevated command of the situation for twenty more years. The tide of public opinion set strongly with the Governor, and the legislators felt its influence. Many of them hastened to "get into the band wagon." The veto was triumphantly sustained, and the Elevated had been beaten again.

During the following summer and fall the League kept up a steady campaign. Corporations and their legislative agents take no vacations, and in this case the reformers matched them in "eternal vigilance." The candidates for the Legislature were publicly questioned, as election time approached, as to their attitude on subway legislation, and the questions fulfilled their purpose of keeping the matter fresh in the public mind, and inspired that vague dread which has so much influence upon the minds of ambitious politicians. In the city elections a month later the League was to the front again. It was the year of the mayoralty contest, and Mayor Hart was up for re-election against Patrick A. Collins—the shrewd, cautious Yankee against the masterful Irishman. Collins came out flatly and emphatically for a city subway, and even Mayor Hart felt the influence of the growing tide of public opinion, and stated his belief that

conditions had so changed that the city could now afford to build its own subway. Collins was triumphantly elected, and it is his name which is associated with the subway history of 1902, as that of Governor Crane is identified with that of the year 1901. The Public Franchise League, through the Board of Trade, brought up its bill again, and the astute counsel for the Elevated repeated his yearly ingenuous argument, garnished with masses of intricate figures, to show that his Company could not afford financially to accept any such propositionfigures confusing and labyrinthine, but which were brushed aside by the counsel for the Public Franchise League with the statement of a few well-known, manifest facts. An attempt was made to confuse the issue by the introduction of a so-called "tunnel scheme." The city was to build a "subway" for surface cars, while the Elevated Company constructed and owned forever a deep "tunnel" for its elevated trains. It was cleverly planned and backed up by subtle and plausible arguments. For a time it seemed to confuse the minds of the committee, but Mayor Collins appeared before them, and in his bluff, leonine fashion settled that proposition in a word. "Tunnels and subways," he said, " are both holes in the ground, no more, no less, and the same arguments which make it wise for the city to own a subway apply to the tunnel as well."

Weeks were spent in long, tedious bickering over the terms of the bill and its exact wording, during which the attorneys for the Company, in a last desperate chance, attempted to defeat the spirit of the bill by subtle phrasing and ambiguous clauses, while Mayor Collins and the Public Franchise League were openly accused of holding up and needlessly delaying legislation. "Gentlemen," said Governor Crane when the complaint was brought to his attention, "you are perfectly right; don't give in an inch." They did not, and never had, for the session of 1902 ended with subway legislation in the Blue Book almost identical with that asked by the Public Franchise League three years back, in

1900—legislation calling for a subway built and owned by the city, a lease to the Elevated Company for twenty-five years at a rental of four and a half per cent., and a referendum to the people.

Three years of hard fighting and the corporation defeated in every important particular! The odds in favor of the Elevated Company had seemed overwhelming. On their side were ranged those supposed molders of public opinion, the newspapers, with but one exception, the dominant political machine of the city, and all the wealth and resources of great financial establishments. result may be ascribed immediately to the powerful influence of two courageous, public - spirited executives-Governor Crane and Mayor Collins; but behind them was a still more potent force.

That potent force was public opinion, created and directed by the Public Franchise League. This fact is of great significance in the present issue throughout the country between the people and the public service corporations. It was the members of the Public Franchise League who first recognized the public needs and dangers involved in the situation, who won Governor and Mayor over to the view for which they stood, who created in large part, marshaled, and brought into action the massive, intangible force of public opinion. Corruption breeds when the public is inert, and not when people are awake and alive to the issue at stake; and the Public Franchise League kept them awake. The League had among its officers men of ability and achievement, able to meet the men who controlled and directed the forces of the Elevated Company move for move. But they did more than that. They kept in close touch with the people, reduced the various propositions to simple terms which the man in the street could understand at a glance, and forced them on his attention persistently—and the people responded to the appeal. Therein lay the secret of their service and success. The public can, if it will, protect itself and maintain its rights against the greed of corporate wealth and power,

A MESSAGE OF PHILOSOPHY TO THE MODERN MAN

BY HENRY J. HASKELL

ITH the development of modern thought one age-old problem has received an emphasis that the church has not yet fully recognized. The terrible fact of the existence of evil has always appalled men. But it has become tenfold more sinister and menacing when viewed in the light of evolutionary history and of a psychology that dwells on the significance of environment in the making of character.

Job's problem in its more primitive aspects presents no insuperable obstacles to the modern man, however much he may shrink from facing it in his own person. He can understand how these afflictions which are but for the moment may work the far more exceeding and eternal weight of glory in the upbuilding of character. Thus he may reconcile himself to suffering and sorrow and bereavement as somehow having their place in a rational universe. At least he knows that they are externals, that they cannot destroy his real self, and even in his despair he may find consolation in crying out with Henley:

"It matters not how strait the gate,
How charged with punishment the scroll:
I am the master of my fate,
I am the captain of my soul."

But, in spite of the inevitable human interest in self, the emphasis after all has shifted and the sociological view-point constantly thrusts itself upon the modern He understands as never before the interdependence of individuals. What concerns humanity is his concern. And then what sickens him, and causes him to doubt to the bottom of his soul the existence of God, is his outlook upon a world apparently founded on waste and dominated by a blind chance. Then, indeed, he becomes Hegel's man who "has once feared, not for this moment or for that in his life, but who has feared with all his nature; so that he has trembled through and through, and all that

was most fixed in him has become shaken."

Thus, human history, always of deep interest, in the light of modern research has become the most moving of spectacles. Once it was a confused heap of fragments from which a few righteous individuals were plucked as brands from the burning, while the great mass of mankind went down into the pit to a deserved damnation through Adam's sin. Now it appears as a slow struggle of the race upward, in which countless imperfect lives have been sacrificed in order to produce this poor flower of civilization, and in which the present generation, through no merit of its own, is heir to the rich spiritual and intellectual heritage of the ages.

For tens of thousands of years, the spectator of to-day must reflect, humanity labored before it emerged far enough from its brute inheritance to see the glimmerings even of savagery. For other millenniums it slowly fought its way up to the present stage of progress. This slow development of which history is a record—what is it but a vast process of waste? These toiling myriads of the past—what has been their fate save a condemnation to a hideously stunted existence that seems to the modern viewpoint a veritable nightmare?

Where, the modern man must ask, is the justice in all this? Why should I possess this endowment of the twentieth century, this possibility of enjoying a Schubert song or a Corot landscape, this knowledge of the researches of Darwin and De Vries and Metchnikoff, this acquaintance with the meaning of human history, that was barred to my ancestors of a few generations ago, and which is out of the reach of the Hottentot to-day? What have I done to deserve this good fortune? Why is it given me and withheld from Alaric and Attila and Tippoo Tib?

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Moreover, a psychology emphasizing with Baldwin and Royce the overwhelming importance of imitation in the child's development brings out more vividly than ever the tragedies of the slums and of the homes of selfish wealth. Why, the modern inquirer must ask, why should one child's lot be cast in a tenement whose evil surroundings inevitably mean its moral ruin, or in a wealthy home where it is doomed to an empty existence equally destructive, while another's is in a cultured family where the training insures it at least a fair chance in life? He can understand the inevitableness of evil in a world of free moral beings, but that does not account to him for the victims of chance who become characters involved in damnation because of their vicious environment.

To many thoughtful persons in every community the church as vet brings no hint of a solution of these appalling problems. The minister's amplification of Bible passages, noble and appealing in themselves, is futile. To assure the man who sees the hideous side of the natural order that all things work together for good to them that love God, or that in a future life those who have fought with beasts at Ephesus shall receive their reward, is in vain. It is precisely the existence of God that he is questioning when he doubts the rationality of the universe. It avails nothing to tell him to trust in God's beneficence, if in his view that very beneficence is at stake, or to await a life beyond the grave if he sees no valid reason to believe in the existence of such a life, and if he traces back the lewish belief in the resurrection of the dead to the longing for the return of the faithful to the glories of the Messianic kingdom.

Yet modern thought has not raised these questions to leave them unanswered. The West as well as the East has reflected upon the Whither and the Whence, and has reflected to much greater purpose, though in America alone, at the hands of Professor James, and preeminently of Professor Royce, has the problem of evil received treatment at all commensurate with its significance. If the philosophical idealism of to-day does not provide a detailed answer

to its questions, it at least points the way toward a solution. If it does not offer a "scientific" demonstration of a future life, it is compelled to find an eternal order of which the world of time and space is only a transitory aspect.

With an elaborate rigor of argument that can be only hinted at here, it develops a theory of knowledge which involves the conception of the individual as a fragmentary manifestation of the divine life. How, it asks, can a man really mean any truth, intend to think of it, pick it out, recognize it, unless his deeper self already possesses it? And finally it says to the bewildered soul, Yes, the problem of the apparent dominance of chance over ideals is a hideous one, but each striving, suffering mortal is a finite expression of God, the World-Self. In all these struggles the Infinite partakes, and in the end he wins his perfection by triumphing over the evil. His victory, then, is the victory of all those who have striven with him for righteousness, no matter how feeble their strivings, and in him we mortals finally attain our perfection.

It points out, in the familiar metaphor of the cathedral, that every fragment of stone finds its place in the artistic triumph of the whole; that in those springing arches the topmost particle contributes no more to the perfection than does any other. Thus, it says, the primitive savage, who lived according to his light, finds his place in the eternal structure of the universe, and partakes of its excellence as do we. This was God's world in its significance when Cæsar's legions penetrated Gaul, just as much as it is in this age of electricity, and as it will be in the future, when electricity shall have been superseded. No fragment is lost, even when it has disappeared into what seems, to our poor circumscribed sight, the endless past. For time and space are mere limitations of our mortal poverty, and are transcended in the consciousness of the Infinite, of which we are a part, even as we ourselves may transcend them in hearing successive notes as a whole of melody. Eventually, when released from the restrictions of our narrow time-span and our finitude, this mortal, as Professor Royce has said, shall put on Individuality, shall become a complete individual instead of a mere fragment, and in the eternal order shall rest from its labors at one with God.

And the evil and sinister beings? To them, indeed, philosophy brings no message of honeyed optimism, no assurance that sin is mere ignorance and willful wrongdoing an illusion. With Amos it declares that for them the day of the Lord is darkness and not light. Yet it asserts that they, too, win whatever share in the universe belongs to them. are not independent personalities, isolated from the world of the Logos, with a set of intrinsic natural rights which they may proclaim as the colonies put forth the great Declaration. So far as may be, they participate in the life of the Infinite. But in so far as they are evil and their lives destructive they can belong only to the temporal order, not to the eternal. In the cathedral they may constitute the gargovles, whose only service is in the contrast over which the whole beautiful structure triumphs. Or, to use a figure from time instead of space, their lives may be remembered, indeed, by the Absolute as part of his life; but the memory will be like that of an evil dream which has had only a momentary significance, or of a passing temptation which has been overcome.

These are hints of some of the suggestions that modern philosophy, especially as developed by Professor Royce, has to offer to the soul that is shaken by a contemplation of the great problems that have been emphasized by the progress of thought. The minister who is unfamiliar with this philosophical idealism, who considers the questions of evil and immortality with no knowledge of Kant's work on the ideality of time and space, who has no clear notion of the relation of the individual to God, will be unable to help his more thoughtful parishioners toward a solution of the difficulties that beset them. He may never know why he fails to reach them, and they may not understand why he has no message for them. None the less must they turn elsewhere if they are to find a way of escape from the haunting fear of a universe that seems abandoned to the demons of chance. A few ministers there are who interpret the insight of the prophets in the terms of modern thought, but only a There must be more if the church is to fulfill its mission to the modern world.

OXFORD FROM WITHIN

BY JOHN F. HORNSEY

OW that the American Rhodes scholars are coming to Oxford in such numbers, it may be of some interest to their relatives in the States to know to what sort of a place their boys are going, what are its manners and customs, and, above all, what sort of ideas their sons are going to acquire there.

With this object in view, I intend to discuss, not the mere topographical details of the place, for these can be found in any ordinary guide-book, but its social and intellectual aspects. And this is no easy task, for Oxford has a social atmosphere peculiarly its own. It is different entirely, not only from American towns, but even from similar towns of the same size in England.

Originally the older colleges were semimonastic institutions, intended mostly for the education of young men for the priesthood, and this idea continued until the Reformation, when the course of studies was broadened, and has continued to expand ever since, so that now instruction is given in practically all subjects, including natural science, modern languages, political economy, psychology, etc.

The colleges themselves are constructed on somewhat the same style as monasteries. They are large buildings containing one or more quadrangles, and in some cases have large and beautiful gardens adjoining. The entrance is guarded by a porter's lodge, and the gates are closed at nine o'clock every

evening. Within each college is a chapel, whereat attendance at morning or evening service is compulsory on all students who are members of the Church of England. Other students are obliged to attend roll-call at 8 A.M. There is also within each college a dining-hall, wherein the students are bound to dine together a certain number of times weekly.

From the quadrangles a number of staircases lead up to the students' rooms, which are, in the main, comfortable and well furnished. Within the same college and upon the same staircase we have students of every kind. A theological man has rooms perhaps on the same landing as a medical or legal student. And thus these men, living under the same roof, become acquainted with each other, exchange visits, and naturally exchange ideas also. This, to my mind, is the essential advantage of the residential system in vogue in Oxford. In those universities where students of the same subject are accustomed to live together under the same roof the inevitable result is the production of narrowminded and pedantic men. But at Oxford the association of opposites and the mutual exchange of opinions leads to the formation of characters which are neither bigoted nor prejudiced.

Unless a boy comes from a large and well-known public school, such as Eton or Harrow, and has in addition considerable wealth, it would be foolish in the extreme to send him to one of the greater colleges, such, for example, as Christ Church or Magdalen, for the inevitable result would be either the temptation to live beyond his means and incur considerable debt or to occupy his rooms in college in solitude and loneliness.

Nevertheless, there is considerable intercollegiate sociability between the students, and it is the aim and ambition of most students to know and to be known by the greatest possible number of students from other colleges.

These acquaintances are made in many varieties of ways—on the football field, in the Common Room, at the Union, or elsewhere, and are generally followed by invitations to "tea" or "coffee after Hall."

There is one institution, however,

concerning which I ought to say a word or two. This is the "breakfast." It is not alogether a student custom, inasmuch as the "Dons" themselves are the greatest offenders. If ever there is an occasion when the average man feels least amiable, it is when he has to get up early, dress carefully, and, probably famishing with hunger, walk half a mile through the damp morning fog to breakfast with his tutor. Here he must smile and look pleasant.

These are some of the disciplines to which the student is subjected, and not the least among these are the invitations to afternoon tea with the wives of the "Dons." Here the chief difficulty which the average student has to face is to have a constant supply of small talk, which must not show any great intellect or individuality, for to show either quality on such occasions is a deadly offense. The first topic of conversation is generally that unfailing one, "the weather," which in Oxford usually provides food for comment for at least a quarter of an hour. I say "comment" advisedly, for conversation seldom exceeds a few fatuous remarks in the midst of an audible silence, each person meanwhile nervously balancing a cup of tea and a piece of bread and butter in his hands. Things begin to warm up, however, when the hostess introduces the subject of football, rowing, or some other sport, when the topic is taken up for another quarter of an hour, after which a second silence falls. It is now very amusing to watch the faces of the guests. Each one looks around furtively to see who is going to get up first, wish the hostess "goodafternoon," and take his departure. The anxiety displayed on all countenances is truly wonderful, and must strike any one possessing the least sense of humor as utterly ridiculous. At length one bold spirit arises and leaves, a great crowd now gets up suddenly and follows like a pack of sheep, and the levee comes to an end. During this time there is none of that vigorous, intellectual, amusing, or cheerful conversation which we are accustomed to associate with gatherings of American people, nothing of the "gemuthlichkeit" of the German, nothing of the witty repartee of the French. After such a deadly dull entertainment it is small wonder if some students come out with an irrepressible desire to shout, get drunk, and burn each other's furniture as a sort of a mental antidote.

Convention is the great idol which is worshiped in Oxford, and the constant desire to conform to certain little ways, manners, and customs tends to make all Oxford men alike. "I can always tell an Oxford man when I see one," I once heard a man say; "they are all alike as two peas in a pod." Despite this, however, I feel convinced that the really successful man who afterwards makes a name in the world is the one who, while tactfully pandering to the goddess of conventionality at Oxford, carefully conceals his intelligence for the world which always judges him by his merits.

One of the Oxford customs which must have struck the first American Rhodes scholars with surprise and not a little dismay is the lack of recognition after attending a social function. Your host of yesterday passes you in the street with a stony stare when he meets you the following day; but one must not be offended, for this is only "Oxford etiquette."

In illustration of the state of social affairs here the experience of a certain professor from a Western American college will be of interest.

Having accepted many invitations from Fellows and Dons to breakfast, lunch, and tea in the sacred precincts of various colleges, he thought it would be pleasant to return hospitality by inviting his former hosts to his lodgings in small groups of three or four. This he found did not meet with the views of his guests, who showed by their demeanor their unwillingness to meet each other; so he was forced to the alternative of inviting them singly.

In view of the Bishop of London's recent sermon on "drunkenness at Oxford" which has caused such lively comment in the papers on both sides of the Atlantic, it may not be amiss to make a few remarks.

On the experience of twenty-four years' residence in Oxford, four of which were spent as an undergraduate, I can safely

affirm that there is no more drunkenness among the undergraduates of Oxford than among any other body of Englishmen of the same age taken at random. Furthermore, I venture to say that not only the morality of the University, but the public morality in the city of Oxford in this respect is inestimably better than it was sixty years ago. I have this on the authority of a very old resident who died quite recently. This gentleman said that when he was a boy "nearly every tradesman in the High street was drunk before midday, and that a man who did not drink was considered to be a nincompoop "(whatever that might

Since the Rhodes scholars made their first appearance in Oxford I have heard of one significant incident. In nearly all the colleges it is an old custom for the second and third year men to entertain the freshmen by what is known as a "Fresher's Drunk." This orgy is held in the rooms of one of the Freshmen, whether the occupier wishes it or not. Last winter, however, one of the American Rhodes Freshmen was informed that on a certain evening there would be a "Drunk" held in his rooms, so that he had better prepare to receive the guests.

The Rhodes man quietly but firmly told his informer that he personally had no objection whatsoever to their having a "Drunk." but that it would not be held in his rooms. The Senior looked at him and gasped; for such independence on the part of a Fresher was almost unheard of before. However, it was determined by the "Drunk" Committee that, nolens volens, the Fresher should submit. But when the eventful evening came, and the "Drunk" Committee visited the Freshman's rooms, they were met by an assembly of the friends of that Freshman, all Americans, tall and muscular, like himself, who smiled pleasantly, and cordially invited them to come in. Needless to say, there was no "Drunk" held that evening.

In this manner the Rhodes scholars have it in their power to exercise an improving influence on Oxford student life which will be welcomed by all right-minded Englishmen.

There is no doubt that for many years

Oxford has been asleep, and Rhodes knew it. His act in the foundation of scholarships will not only benefit the University pecuniarily, by reason of so numerous an influx of students, but it will effect a much greater and more important object in initiating a progressive spirit into all departments. Another happy circumstance by which Oxford has already commenced to benefit is the election of Dr. Osler, of the Johns Hopkins University, to the Regius Professorship of Medicine. Under his influence and personality the students in that department have been infected with an enthusiasm hitherto unknown.

There is one other subject about I ought to say something. While in conversation with some American people the other day, I was asked if there was any danger of American students acquiring at Oxford ideas which, although proper to England, might be unconstitutional in America.

This fear is, I understand, held by not a few American people, who, having visited England, have observed a great many customs which they rightly attribute to the remnants of the feudal system, and to which, as republicans, they have strong objections. In answer to this I can only say that, if the Rhodes scholars of the future are chosen with as good care and judgment as the first contingents were, and with due regard to their ages—in not sending boys who are too young and impressionable—then Americans have little to fear from this cause.

On the contrary, the Rhodes men will be capable of discriminating between the desirable and the undesirable customs of the mother country, which have alike been preserved side by side by our conservative habits, and they will be enabled to carry back with them what is best among our manners, our traditions, and our laws.

GOOD FRIDAY

BY MABEL EARLE

"I am crucified with Christ."-Gal. ii. 20

Into Thy hands, O God!

The sun is turned to blackness in the sky;
I cannot see the way my feet have trod
Unto this Calvary.

Laughter and threats and wailing fade away,
Hushed in the gloom that lies above the lands;
Taunting and tears are ended for to-day.
Into Thy hands!

No more the thirst denied;
No more the crying, while earth staggers shaken,
Unto that Other, crowned and crucified,
"My God, I am forsaken!"
In His eternal fellowship of loss,
Mocking, and shame, and bitterness of bands,
The Crucified has looked upon my cross.
Into Thy hands!

Not now in death's deep peace,
Yet in the peace of suffering with Thee,
For tribulation which shall never cease
So long as life shall be,
For all the bitterness Thine own heart bore,
For all the pain Thy pity understands,
For life and death and love forevermore—
Into Thy hands!

THE SPELLING OF YESTERDAY AND OF TO-MORROW

BY BRANDER MATTHEWS

VERY one of us who has had to do with books is continually disappointed because some special work he wants to read or to consult does not happen to exist. There are many of these unwritten books which we would welcome gladly, whenever any author may see fit to write them. For instance, in my own study of the stage and of its allied arts I feel the need often of a solidly documented "History of Scene-Painting from its Origins to the Present Day." And in like manner, when I turn to the study of our own language, I am forced constantly to regret that no one has yet taken the trouble to prepare an ample and scholarly "History of English Orthography." The material for this history of our spelling is abundant and accessible; and although a chapter or two has been attempted, the long record of our ever-shifting orthography is not to be found in any single volume. Such a volume would be specially serviceable just now when there is an organized movement to persuade us to accept certain proposed simplifications of our spelling.

There is one immediate advantage which would result from our having in our hands a satisfactory historical account of English spelling, since even the hastiest study of its pages would convince us once for all that we need feel no veneration for certain of the most flagrant absurdities of our accepted orthography, as the worst of them are often comparatively recent, having no sanction of antiquity. There are many who instinctively dislike the accepted spelling of rhyme, for example, and of comptroller—two of the most obviously ridiculous of our current orthographies but who are too weak-kneed to take the liberty of simplifying either of these spellings, and who would be greatly gratified to be informed that these accepted complexities are only a few score years

old and that the words were originally spelt as they are pronounced, rime and controller.

The publication of this "History of English Orthography" would have a wider effect than this, for it would convince the average reader that there is not now any "standard" spelling for all the words of the language, and that there never has been any standard in the past. There is divergence of usage between writers of distinction to-day—as there always has been. There is disagreement in the recommendations made by the foremost dictionaries—as there always has been. There is no uniformity nowand there never has been any uniformity. And what we need to grasp most firmly is the fact, not only that there is not now a standard of spelling, but also and more emphatically that there has never been any authority to set up a standard. Spelling is like speech; it is the result of a tacit agreement to employ certain symbols; and every one of us reserves the right of individual judgment as to the symbols he will employ.

If any man insists upon the misleading spelling of comptroller, we can assure him that this orthography misrepresents the sound of the word, that it also suggests a false origin, and that there is an absurdity in combining a sturdy old English word with Frenchified complexities which mean nothing; but the culprit may retort that he likes to spell the word in just that way and that he proposes to do so for ever and ever; and what are we going to do about it? To this there is no answer except to admit the right of any individual user of the language to spell as he sees fit. This admission assures to the willful man the privilege of clinging to comptroller, while it also asserts the right of any one else to use the more logical, the simpler, and the older controller.

Other willful men may cling to metre,

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although they are in the habit of spelling its compounds diameter and ther-They may prefer to bestow a needless French tail upon programme, although they spell epigram without any such wasteful redundancy. They may have a fondness for another French termination in cigarette and aigrette, although omelet and epaulet and toilet have long managed to survive shorn of this appendix. And these willful men have each of them a right to this opinion and to this orthography, if they choose, for who is to say them nay? Who has any warrant to interfere? And, on the other hand, they have no right to object to those of us who prefer the simplest forms, and who write not only rime and controller and meter, but also tho and altho and catalog. We claim the same privilege that we grant to every one else. But it is only a privilege to be exercised with discretion; it is not a duty to be performed in accordance with law. There is not a right spelling of any word to be enforced upon every one; there is only an accepted spelling, which may be modified from time to time by tacit consent. And the "History of English Orthography" would show that countless modifications have taken place since the invention of print-

It would show that the English language, like every other language, has been vainly striving to make its spelling exactly represent its pronunciation, and that it has failed to succeed partly be cause the pronunciation of a language is constantly changing—and generally changing more rapidly than the spelling can be modified to conform to it. change in pronunciation—like that of either, which was eether half a century ago, and which now seems to be eyether -can spread very swiftly by imitation: but a change in spelling to correspond exactly with the new pronunciation meets with far more resistance, since the eye seems to be more conservative than the When the eye has long been accustomed to certain symbols as conveying a certain meaning, it is annoyed that these customary symbols should be disturbed. even when they are no longer accurately representative of the sound. This is why

"fonetic reform" is really impracticable, even if it is wholly desirable; to accomplish it there would have to be uniformity of pronunciation, or at least an absolute standard of pronunciation, which does not exist now and which never has existed. And even an approximate approach to phonetic exactness of orthography would call for so many alterations of the symbols to which our eyes are accustomed that we may dismiss it as impracticable, so remote from realization that discussion is futile. And yet we ought to seize every chance that offers to keep our spelling as near to our pronunciation as may be possible, or else the future of English orthography will be worse than the present.

And its present is surely bad enough. English, so a learned historian of our noble speech has recently declared, is now "the most barbarously spelt of any cultivated tongue in Christendom. We are weltering in an orthographic chaos in which a multitude of signs are represented by the same sound and a multitude of sounds by the same sign." And he then illustrates this confusion by drawing attention to the fact that one and the same sound is now represented by e in let, by ea in head, by ei in heifer, by eo in leopard, by ay in says, by ai in said, and by a in many. Here we have seven different symbols for a single vowel sound; and the most of these same symbols in other words represent other vowel sounds. Nor are the consonants very much more exact, as we see when we are reminded that one and the same sound is now represented by s in sure, by sh in ship, by sci in conscience, by ci in suspicion, by ce in ocean, by ti in notion, and by xi in anxious—again seven different symbols for a single sound.

Here is chaos come again—a chaos so widespread and of such long standing as to make it hopeless for any one to attempt a radical reform and to urge a rigorous representation of a single sound by a single symbol always the same. Our race is very conservative; it clings to ancient landmarks; it has a misplaced affection for all these multiplied and misleading symbols. The earlier movements for spelling reform failed to ac-

complish much, because their leaders did not take into account this indurated conservatism, which is unwilling to change even when the reasons for the change are overwhelming. Any future movement for simpler spelling can hope for success only in proportion as it reckons with prejudice and as it makes its approach along the line of least resistance. If we cannot be browbeaten by logic into accepting a single symbol for a single sound, perhaps we can be persuaded to strive for an easier simplification by leaving out superfluous letters of all sorts, which merely dilute our ordinary orthography, and which have often no right to be there, having been thrust in comparatively recently.

The spelling of English is now more foolish than that of German or of French (both of which have been emended of late), partly because English has, unfortunately, suffered more than any of the other modern languages from the evil influence of uneducated printers and of half-educated pedants. And it would be part of the duty of the author of the "History of English Orthography" to show the extent to which these two sets of foes had done damage to our spelling. The printers were the first in the field, and their misdeeds are at once easier to understand and harder to counteract. The earliest printers in England were not Englishmen; mostly they were Germans or Dutchmen, to whom English was a foreign speech.

Now, it is possible for compositors to set type in a language of which they are wholly ignorant, but they probably would be less careful and make more blunders in setting up books in a language which they half knew. "As foreigners, they had little or no knowledge of the proper spelling of our tongue," so Professor Lounsbury has recorded, adding that, "in the general license that then prevailed, they could venture to disregard where they did not care to understand." The result is that the spelling of the original editions of the masterpieces of Elizabethan literature is a marvel of typographic incompetency and of orthographic recklessness. The spelling is less accurate, it is more clumsy and more slovenly, than it had been when the

multiplying of books was left in the hands of the better-trained copyists.

So startling were the variations in the spelling even of ordinary words that a reaction was bound to follow. Toward the end of the seventeenth century and in the earlier years of the eighteenth an effort was made to bring order out of chaos. Unfortunately, this attempt towards uniformity was not guided by wisdom or by knowledge, but solely by chance and by caprice, since it was the work of the printers themselves, who knew nothing about the principles which should control the adjusting of spelling to pronunciation. A certain kind of uniformity was achieved in time by the acceptance of the standards set by the printers for their own convenience. This uniformity, from which our children are now suffering, was external, arbitrary, mechanical, and unscientific. In effecting it, so Professor Lounsbury has declared with characteristic plainness of speech, "in effecting it, propriety was disregarded, etymology perverted, and every principle of orthography defied."

It was a grave misfortune that the mismade spelling thus casually manufactured was accepted by Dr. Johnson, whose "Dictionary," published in the middle of the eighteenth century, gave it currency and authority. And if the English language has to-day the worst spelling of any of the modern languages, this is due largely to the influence of Dr. Johnson, and to the weight of his ponderous personality. If he had only known just a little more about the history of his own language, and if he had exerted his dominating influence against the more obvious absurdities and inconsistencies foisted into our spelling by the narrow pedantry of arrogant proofreaders, secure in a perilous half-knowledge-in fact, if Dr. Johnson had not only known more about English, but had also cared more—our orthography would be less unsatisfactory to-day and it could be more easily set right.

In his regard for Latin and in his ignorance of English as it had been before the printers came, Johnson accepted comptroller, ignoring the older controller. He allowed sovereign and foreign (as though they had something

to do with the Latin regno) instead of the older sovran and forrain. adopted debt, though the older form dett was better in every way; and a useless b was also permitted to disfigure doubt, which had earlier been free from it. He kept a Latin p in receipt, though he left it out of deceit. He spelt deign one way and disdain another. He was willing to leave a needless and misleading s in island, although it had been iland in Shakespeare's time. He seems to have supposed that the older English agast would look more ghostlike if spelt aghast. He saw no harm in delight, although the older form, representing more accurately both the sound and the origin, was delite. He cast out the Shakespearean ake for a labored ache. He made a wasteful and inexplicable distinction in the spelling of the final syllables of accede and exceed, of precede and proceed.

The more clearly we see the full effect of Johnson's influence in fixing upon our orthography all these infelicities and many others like them, the more we are moved to regret that the burly doctor undertook to prepare the dictionary of a language which he had not investigated historically and in which he held it disgraceful to compose an epitaph. The arguments which Dr. Johnson advanced in his pamphlet on "Taxation no Tyranny" did not convert our forefathers then fighting for their freedom; and perhaps the time has now come when their descendants can decide for themselves whether they will accept or reject the cumbersome spellings preserved in the dictionary made by the man George III. pensioned.

If only we had the "History of English Orthography," we would find it easy to answer one protest frequently made against any proposed simplification of our spelling. This is to the effect that novelty is distasteful and that it is our duty to preserve for our children the orthography which was used by Scott and by Swift, by Spenser and by Shakespeare, since the spelling that was good enough for these great masters of English literature ought surely to be good enough for us. Of course this protest is never voiced by any one who is familiar with the original editions of Shakespeare

and of Spenser; it is possible to those who are familiar only with the ordinary library editions set up in "modern spelling"—that is to say, in the spelling arbitrarily agreed on in the printing offices of the eighteenth century and ignorantly accepted by Dr. Johnson. This "modern spelling" misrepresents the text of the masters of English literature. Although it was accepted in most of the editions issued in the nineteenth century, it is now rejected by the severer scholarship of our own time, which insists on reproducing the original orthography.

Even in default of a satisfactory "History of English Orthography," the multiplication of these more scholarly editions of the English classics will soon convince even the careless reader that English spelling has always been shifting and that it was often simpler in the past than it is to-day. It will convince him that the so-called "modern spelling" has no sanctity from use by the masters. It is not the spelling of Steele and Swift, of Shakespeare and of Spenser; it is only the spelling of Samuel Johnson, author of the "Vanity of Human Wishes." is the spelling of yesterday, but it is not the spelling of the day before yesterday; and it will not be the spelling of tomorrow. Many of the more flagrant absurdities of the Johnsonian canongovernour, for example, and waggon and gaol—have already been abandoned here in the United States. Many more are likely to be given up in the immediate future. Already is rime making its way back into use; and probably sovran would seem strange now to no student of Lamb or of Milton. No lover of Tennyson finds anything unusual in leapt and stopt, which the Laureate liked better than leaped and stopped, perhaps as more frankly monosyllabic and therefore more harmoniously fitted into his verse, and perhaps because he followed the practice of the older poets of our tongue.

It was the shrewd Bismarck who declared that "we cannot hasten the course of time by setting our watches forward." But the course of time is even steadier in its advance than the most trustworthy of our watches. Even in the nineteenth century there was some advance toward

simplicity in our spelling; and now at the beginning of the twentieth century the time seems ripe for another step or The newly organized Simplified Spelling Board is receiving substantial assistance from Mr. Carnegie, who holds that only its orthographic confusion is now retarding the spread of English and its swifter acceptance as the worldlanguage. This new Board is profoundly convinced that the peoples who speak English are very conservative and very slow to move along the path of reformation; and therefore it is going to refrain from all radical suggestions. Its members agree with M. Brunetière that "we can do what we desire only on condition that we do not desire what is not in our power."

The Simplified Spelling Board is prepared to make haste slowly and not to expect too much in a hurry. It is planning a campaign in which ultimate victory is only dimly foreseen. It proposes first of all to call public attention to the whole question, and to keep on calling attention to it, urging every man to inquire into it for himself and to decide on his own course. It hopes to be able to encourage independence and to overcome lethargy, and in time to make a breach in the walls of bigoted conserva-It will draw up a list of words now spelt in two ways, and it will urge the public and the publishers and the printers to accept finally the simpler of the two. It will lend the weight of its authority to the various minor simplifications now struggling to establish themselves—tho and altho, for example, catalog and program, esthetic and maneu-Attempting only the easiest things at first and those nearest at hand, working along the line of least resistance and arousing as little opposition as possible, it will propose still further simplifications by the casting out of letters which are plainly superfluous. Slowly and steadily, without haste and without rest, it will try to win acceptance for many little simplifications, inconspicuous and unimportant individually, but collectively putting our spelling in a more satisfactory position to take a longer step in advance whenever the public has been prepared to consider this favorably.

One result of these efforts of the Simplified Spelling Board is likely to be the restoration of many an old spelling discarded foolishly in the eighteenth century. And another will be to accelerate more or less the constant tendency toward simplicity (by the casting out of useless letters) which has been steadily at work in English from the very beginning, and which is opposed only by those who are obstinate in declaring that there shall be no change of any kind hereafter. Board believes that this attitude of opposition to all change is not only contrary to the tradition of the language, but also that it is unreasonable in itself. It feels assured that its fellow-citizens, however wedded to the existing forms, can be made to see clearly the many disadvantages of the present spelling of our language, with the resulting wastefulness of time and money, with its inconveniences for foreigners, and with its cruelty to our own children. The few and simple changes that they propose to urge will seem strange at first to us, no doubt, just as jail and almanac and wagon seemed strange at first to our fathers, accustomed to gavl and almanack and waggon. But as our fathers accepted these after a while, so our children will accept other similar simplifications.

In M. Brunetière's admirable "Histoire de la littérature française classique" there is a striking passage, which all will do well to bear in mind who propose to improve their own language: "Neither orthography nor pronunciation—which in all the languages of the world, ancient and modern, has never been more than an approximation—depends immediately on the caprice or on the will of men. They evolve with us, under human influences generally, although no doubt there are physical influences also; but even when we can disengage these influences we can never have more than a retrospective knowledge of them, since they have about exhausted their action when we succeed in defining it. And this is why the orthography and the pronunciation of a language change, more or less, from century to century; this is also the reason why they can never be 'reformed." The one comment which

needs to be appended to this is obvious. Orthography cannot be "reformed" out of hand; but it can be bettered. And

it is equally obvious that it can be bettered only by sustained and intelligent effort.

THE SPANISH INQUISITION'

R. Lea combines two characteristics which are not always, perhaps it would be safe to say not often, combined in the same historian—accuracy of historical statement with genuine human interest. The writer who can perceive and portray historical crimes with no feeling of indignation, and historical heroisms with no feeling of enthusiasm, is not, though he thinks that he is, a scientific historian. He is not scientific because he treats men and women as though they were puppets, and they are not puppets. On the other hand, the writer who uses history to advocate a political thesis, as did Clarendon and Macaulay, or who, in writing history, is largely influenced, if not controlled, by the relation of the event to the dramatic effect which he unconsciously wishes to produce, as was Renan to a large extent and Froude to a less extent, is an imperfect historian. Neither of these criticisms can be brought against Dr. Lea. His previous works have established his reputation as a painstaking and a conscientious scholar. He has studied his subject with an open mind. His "History of the Inquisition in the Middle Ages" and his "Superstition and Force" are recognized by scholars as having all the value of authorities upon their respective themes. Probably the same thing may be said of his other publications, with which we do happen to be equally familiar. Doubtless it will be justly said of this work when it is finished. But the author's painstaking and conscientious study has not deadened, certainly it has not destroyed, his human sympathies. is neither imaginative nor emotional in the ordinary sense of those terms; but he lives himself in the age which he portrays, without identifying himself with any of its parties, and he enables the

thoughtful reader also to live in that age His narrative is not dramatic in form. It never even suggests the theatrical. But it is thoroughly human. Admirable illustrations of this vital quality of his work are afforded by his portraits of Ferdinand and of Isabella.

This first volume is largely devoted to tracing the rise of the Inquisition in Spain. It appears here, not, as it has often been portrayed, as an exhibition of ecclesiastical bigotry of conscience. It cannot be defended on the ground that its promoters and advocates "meant well." That cannot be said for them, certainly not without great qualification, which Paul said for himself, not indeed in justification but in explanation of his persecuting spirit: "I verily thought with myself that I ought to do many things contrary to the name of Jesus of Nazareth." In the case of the Inquisition conscience was an afterthought. The original incentive was race prejudice and sordid greed. It was at first directed almost exclusively against the Jews. The prejudice against the Jews was then, as it is now, largely racial, social, and commercial: though religion. which now, at least in this country, is mildly directed toward an amelioration of that prejudice, was then vigorously employed in stimulating and intensifying the prejudice. The Jews were hated partly because they were Jews, but still more because they were successful Jews. If they had been poor, it is doubtful whether there would have been an Inquisition; it is practically certain that there would not have been the Inquisition. Envy, greed, and race hatred were the immediate causes which led to its establishment at the time and in the way in which it was established. The Church fanned the flames which it ought to have endeavored to extinguish, and which probably it might have extinguished. The Inquisition, says Dr. Lea, was primarily due to "the effects of the Church in

¹ A History of the Inquisition of Spain. By Henry Charles Lea, LL.D. In Four Volumes. Volume I. The Macmillan Company, New York. \$2.50.

arousing the greed and fanaticism of the people and in repressing the kindly fellowship which had so long existed. The lowship establishment was a triumph of the anti-Semitic party; its first efforts were directed almost wholly against the Jews; and if conscience justified the work, the immediate incentive was not an intolerance of heresy as a crime against God. but, first, an intolerance of the Jews as a provokingly prosperous people, and, second, the profits that could be made and were made from the confiscation of their very considerable estates. The defense that has been sometimes made for the Inquisition, that it grew out of the discovery of a plot to overthrow the Spanish Government, discovered among the Jews, appears to be even more an afterthought

than the appeal to the laws then current everywhere against heresy, since it appears clear from Dr. Lea's volume that such plots as were formed were simply hopelessly wild attempts at resistance to a scheme of persecution which aimed at wholesale extirpation and accomplished wholesale confiscations.

A final estimate of this work must, of course, be reserved until the work itself is completed; but it is quite within bounds to say that the present volume gives assurance that the completed work will more than fulfill the author's modest hope, expressed in his preface, that his researches have "enabled me to present a fairly accurate survey of one of the most remarkable organizations recorded in human annals."

even if we had to lose some of the

Wyant, for the latter artist, as Mr. Isham

admits, makes no such varied and ample

appeal as does the former. Exact appro-

priateness in selection, however, is not

always characteristic of the pictures chosen to illustrate the individuality of

the artists whose work is described in

this volume. Taken as a whole, the

illustrations are fairly good, but they

do not unerringly represent the most

characteristic and admirable achieve-

ments of the respective artists. There

are twelve full-page photogravures and

many more than a hundred other illus-

trations. From them one may obtain

an adequate comprehension of what the

various schools of American art have

meant—the Hudson River School, for

instance—and in this the illustrations are distinctly valuable. But as being

exactly illustrative of the distinctive

traits of individual artists, the selection

is open to some criticism by the fas-

AMERICAN PAINTING

tidious.

N a large, illustrated book on the history of art—whether of art in general or of each special department, as architecture, sculpture, painting, or music—the first appeal lies largely in the volume's illustration. Before reading the text one turns page after page seeking the pictures which are characteristic of this or that particular artist's work. For instance, one would hope not to be disappointed in finding an illustration of Trinity Church, Boston, as depicting the characteristic quality of Richardson's achievements in architecture; an illustration of the Sherman statue in New York City, as showing what Augustus Saint-Gaudens has done in sculpture. In the present volume, turning to an illustration of the work of a peculiarly American painter, George Inness, one is not disappointed. Page 258 shows the splendid "Delaware Valley," owned by the Metropolitan Museum, New York City; not a fullpage picture, as is Wyant's beautiful "Broad Silent Valley" on the opposite page, but a fairly creditable illustration. and one exquisitely appropriate. could have wished, however, for a greater Inness emphasis in size of illustration

As to text, these fastidious critics may also have at first some sense of disappointment. Whatever may be said of Mr. Isham's judgment as to painters who have now passed away, his judgments regarding the living seem at first somewhat conventional and rather metallic, lacking at times both atmosphere

¹ The History of American Painting. By Samuel Isham. The Macmillan Company, New York. \$5, net.

and discrimination. One has the uneasy feeling that Mr. Isham, himself an artist, is not altogether untrammeled in his criticisms; few critics having his intimate personal friendships could be in writing of living American artists. In this volume we have not only the sugar-coated pill; in some cases the pill seems practically all sugar.

But this is hypercriticism. Taking the book as a whole, the text is a distinctly and notably valuable aid to a general grasp of the history of American art, and Mr. Isham's work is worthy to stand alongside its predecessor, Mr. Taft's "History of American Sculpture," in the impressive new series of volumes on art which Professor John C. Van Dyke is editing. These volumes in their beautiful print and binding are an adornment to any library, as they are of suggestive help to any student of art.

Mr. Isham's method of treatment, whether of schools of painting or of individual painters, is necessarily histori-After a chapter on the primitives, he considers successively Copley, West, Stuart, and Trumbull; Allston, Malbone, and Vanderlyn. The decline of the English influence, as shown by these artists, was followed by the rise of a native school. New York became an art center. There is, of course, something to be said for figure painting there. and Mr. Isham says it well. There is also something to be said for the beginnings of landscape painting and the famous Hudson River School; if it is fashionable nowadays to shrug one's shoulders at mention of that school, Mr. Isham does a service to all students of art history by clearly defining the place in that history of the Hudson River School and the good that has come of After the Civil War French influence forged to the fore. La Farge and Whistler became famous—La Farge, surely an American artist by every conventional test, as Mr. Isham justly says; Whistler's art, on the other hand, was not English nor yet American; in its derivation it was purely French. Then a new movement arose, out of which the Society of American Artists grew. Landscape, figure, and portrait painting now became more individual. Finally, mural decoration advanced to a commanding place.

All these periods are luminously treated by Mr. Isham. If we must select one, however, in which the present volume seems specially notable, it would be that period marked by the old Düsseldorf Gallery and the rise of the National Academy of Design. We are naturally prone to jump from the great names of the early years of the last century to the great names of its later years; we are apt to forget the comparatively barren middle period, a period happily closed by the influence of the Barbizon School and of France generally. In this connection Mr. Isham raises the interesting question whether American art is better or poorer because first influenced by England and not by France.

The history of the periods of American painting, as recounted by Mr. Isham, is never allowed to become dull and prosy. If the value of his book lies first in its excellent survey of painting as a whole, another value—and one which, in the eyes of the general reader, not the student, may seem even greateris the incidental illumination concerning the lives and careers of individual artists. This is specially noteworthy in the cases of Benjamin West and Gilbert Stuart. After reading Mr. Isham's pages we understand better how it was that practically all the American artists of his day went over to London to study in West's studio, for we realize West's importance as we had not before. Peter Pindar, who was then enormously popular, brought West into his doggerel rhymes, as for instance:

"Of modern works he makes a jest, Except the works of Mr. West."

Upon the death of Sir Joshua Reynolds in 1792, West was elected President of the Royal Academy, an office which he held until his death, with the exception of one year. Mr. Isham shows that West's deposition was due entirely to the King's mental condition. Mr. Isham also points out West's prevision as a critic. When Constable showed him some early studies, West exclaimed: "You must have loved nature very much before you could have painted this;"

and then, after touching in some lights with chalk, added, "Always remember, sir, that light and shadow never stand still." Constable said that it was the best lecture on chiaroscuro he had ever heard. No wonder that Tuckerman, who is not well disposed towards West, is forced to admit that "more than one generation of American artists have cause to bless his memory."

As to Gilbert Stuart, we gain a somewhat more graphic idea from Mr. Isham's interesting pages of one who painted the portraits of three kings, to say nothing of less exalted persons. Such a one was naturally not embarrassed in the presence of the mighty, even in that of the great Dr. Samuel Johnson himself. When that *Ursa Major* (and he was often a great bear in manners) visited West's studio, he patronizingly remarked that one of the pupils—a certain Gilbert Stuart—spoke very good English. Turning to the latter, Johnson

asked where he had learned it. Stuart quickly retorted: "Sir, I can better tell you where I did not learn it—it was not from your dictionary."

But in one mighty presence Stuart became embarrassed, almost awestruck—George Washington's. The rattle of talk with which Stuart was accustomed to divert his sitters completely failed him. Though the President was kindly and courteous, the painter was ill at ease, and the first portrait was not a success. Stuart was so dissatisfied that the President consented to sit again, the result being the "Athenæum" head on an unfinished canvas, showing the left side of the face. That portrait remains the accepted likeness of the Father of his Country.

Thus this survey of the history of American painting becomes peculiarly readable as well as valuable because of the high lights everywhere thrown on the narrative.

Comment on Current Books

Among the more important of **Important** books quite recently received New Books and not included in the following survey of current publications may be mentioned: Professor M. V. O'Shea's "Dynamic Factors in Education" (The Macmillan Company); Dr. Charles M. Pepper's "Panama to Patagonia" (A. C. McClurg & Co.); H. R. Meyer's "Municipal Ownership in Great Britain" (The Macmillan Company); Andrew Lang's "Sir Walter Scott" (Scribner); Dr. Edward Westermarck's "The Origin and Development of the Moral Idea" (The Macmillan Company).

The Challenge

A story of somber power, with Alaska and its early Russian occupation as its subject. There is decided value in the tale's study of motive and character, together with a singularly full acquaintance with the local color and of a little-known historical episode. (The Challenge. By Warren Cheney. The Bobbs-Merrill Company, Indianapolis, Ind. \$1.50.)

Christianity and the Working Classes

Description of Parliament, labor leaders, and others—contribute short papers on this subject to a volume edited by Mr. George Haw, who writes its Introduction. Two typical opin-

ions may be quoted here. Mr. Will Crooks, M.P., speaking for the laborers, says that they have forsaken the churches, not because of indifference to religion, or of unbelief in Christ as they understand him, but because they find little intelligent human sympathy there. Canon Barnett, long identified with the social settlement in Toynbee Hall, says the churches need to learn of John the Baptist to "throw people on their recognized duties," and to stand "for the recognition in political and industrial life of the law of justice and mercy." In various points of view these writers point out what to do and what not to do in order to draw together the churches and those who are sometimes spoken of as " the lapsed masses." Though written for Englishmen amid English conditions, these papers give timely and helpful suggestions to those who are studying how to cope with similar conditions here. (Christianity and the Working Classes. Edited by George Haw. The Macmillan Company, New York. \$1.50.)

Christian Origins

This work of commanding interest is from the pen of Dr. Otto Pfleiderer, than whom none is more conspicuous in the radical school of critics with which confessional orthodoxy in Germany is now engaged in an intense strug-

gle. The presupposition on which it is based is unquestionably sound, viz., that dogma must not dominate the interpretation of history, but history must determine dogma. But what is history only criticism can determine. The faith of mankind will certainly not be yielded to any history that has not gone through such sifting. Dr. Pfleiderer takes up, first, the preparation and foundation of Christianity as effected by philosophy, pagan and Jewish, and by the life and teaching of Jesus; after this, the evolution of early Christianity into the Church. It is characteristic of him to present masterly learning in a genial and winning form. To read him with an open mind is to be carried along by him, unless one is mindful of the personal equation and differing points of view. For instance, Jesus' precept of non-resistance is viewed as a piece of asceticism, motived by belief that the end of the world was so near that it was not worth while to stand for one's rights. But may it not, in view of the fact that it was addressed to those who were about to enter on centuries of persecution, be more reasonably regarded as intended to inculcate the very course which the Church actually followed, and thereby triumphed in the end? While it is rather difficult to discover an objective basis for some of Dr. Pfleiderer's positions, others, far enough from the common belief, are more tenable. One may accept his finding that the kernel of Jesus' doctrine is self-surrender to the will of God and to social service, but must demand more than the conception of him as " the energetic hero of a Jewish reform movement." Still, the work of this great scholar will be widely accepted as conclusive. It presents a serious challenge to the Church. To answer it effectively will require, besides equal genius, preparedness to make some concessions. (Christian Origins. By Otto Pfleiderer, D.D. Translated by Daniel A. Huebsch, Ph.D. Authorized Edition. B. W. Huebsch, New York. \$1.75, net; postage, 12 cents.)

It has been repeatedly urged, City especially by the National Government Municipal League, of which the author is the Secretary, that a study of city government rather than that of the National and State governments be used in schools located in cities as the basis of the teaching of citizenship. The city is the first government with which the child comes in direct contact, and often the only one; it is possible to study it in action, as a reality and not merely through books; the city presents a great and vital problem that needs study. In this study the schools can have a part that will be of real value. Mr. Willard has

prepared a simple, practical text-book for school use or home reading, presenting the outlines of the methods of government of American cities, with suggestions for the detailed study of the administration of the particular city where the book is used. (City Government for Young People. By Charles Dwight Willard. The Macmillan Company, New York. 50c.)

Die Hebräer This is a valuable contribution to the elucidation of Hebrew Following the lines laid down by history. Winckler, the author, Dr. Wilhelm Erbt, finds in the Pentateuchal documents pictures of tribal wanderings and the foundation of successive Palestinian States. Especially interesting is the rôle ascribed to Penuel and Shechem—the former as the seat of power east of the Jordan, the latter as the head of a western federation. Abraham is regarded as a Babylonian chief in the north, and Jacob as an Amorite tribe in the east. In the later history account is taken of foreign influence. but events are mainly determined by internal forces, social and religious. Too much is made to turn on the continuous and finally successful struggle to establish the Mosaic Jahweism of the southern tribes, and textual emendations contribute too largely to special views. (Die Hebräer. Von Wilhelm Erbt. J. C. Hinrichs'sche Buchhandlung, Leipzig. Price, 5 marks.)

The Eternal Spring

The absence of plot and incident seems to indicate that it was intended to be a psychological novel; but the absence of any real psychological analysis leaves it doubtful just where to place it. (The Eternal Spring. By Neith Boyce. Fox, Duffield & Co., New York. \$1.50.)

This volume of reminis-Forty Years an cences by the foremost Advertising Agent veteran in the advertising field forms an excellent informal history of the development of the business of advertising from the smallest of beginnings to its position as a great commercial enterprise whose aggregate, measured in dollars, is said to rank next to the banking and insurance business of the country. The book is a mine of anecdotes of publishers, authors, advertisers, and advertising agents, written in a breezy, chatty style. (Forty Years an Advertising Agent. By George P. Rowell. Printers' Ink Publishing Company, New York. \$2.)

Magic
New and Old

A perennial interest attaches to sleight-of-hand tricks. This book begins with the ancient Egyptian magic and comes down to such

modern prestidigitateurs as Kellar and Herrmann. Scores of conjurers' tricks are explained, with abundant illustration. In his introduction Dr. Paul Carus discourses in a readable way about the relations between magic, illusion, and miracle from the point of view of one to whom the miraculous is the impossible. (The Old and the New Magic. By Henry R. Evans. The Open Court Publishing Company, Chicago.)

A large number of novel The Man from readers will remember Mrs. A merica De La Pasture's sincere and simple little story called "Peter's Mother," which, in its way, was one of the best books of last season. The present story is a little less compact and has a little less plot interest. It is also a little slow in getting under way, but when the reader's interest is once aroused he will find it an agreeable picture of English country life, and it is to be heartily praised for the absence of any of that morbidity or cynicism which seems to be so prevalent in recent stories of English society. (The Man from America. Mrs. Henry De La Pasture. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York.)

Mr. Hopkinson Smith's lished books of fiction by Mr. F. Hopkinson Smith have now been added to the very well made and tasteful collective edition of his works called the "Beacon Edition." Both of these have already been commented upon in The Outlook, and we need here only note the unquestioned popularity and graphic interest of both. (The Novels, Stories, and Sketches of F. Hopkinson Smith. Vol. XI., At Close Range. Vol. XII., The Wood Fire

at No. 3. Beacon Edition. Charles Scrib-

ner's Sons, New York. \$1.50 each.)

A gay and rather foolish tale, A Motor-Car supposed to be written by the Divorce young wife, who has a whim for divorce and is humored in it by her husband. The motor-car is "The Means," and her diary is to report faithfully, during a tour on the Continent, all the evidences of incompatible tempers. The effect of innocent gayety is somewhat overdone, and, in spite of the humor of the author, Louise Closser Hale, and the clever drawings by Mr. Walter Hale, the book does not absorb one's attention. (A Motor-Car Divorce. By Louise Closser Hale. Dodd, Mead & Co., New York. \$1.50.)

The Other Mr. Barclay
Mr. Barclay
Mainly a story of Wall Street speculation and manipulation. The passion and fraud engendered by financial war furnish the motive power for dramatic complications and per-

sonal rivalries. The devastation wrought in a sleepy village by one stock gambler who fans the native spirit of greed is forcibly depicted. The author knows his subject and handles it with directness and spirit. (The Other Mr. Barclay. By Henry Irving Dodge. Consolidated Retail Booksellers, New York. \$1.50.)

The Patriots Dr. Brady still writes of love and war. He does not introduce a large variety of types, but one is always assured that the creations of his facile pen will be consistent and perfectly proper for polite society. General Lee is the noble figure put upon a fitting pedestal in this romance of our Civil War. A tangled love affair straightens itself out by the simple device of mismatched lovers seeing their error and turning to their soul mates before it is too late. (The Patriots. By Cyrus Townsend Brady. Dodd, Mead & Co., New York. \$1.50.)

A printer of lower-class England Saints is taken up by the nobility for in Society political uses because of his real talent in speech-making, but fails at the crucial moment. His wife, an almost impossible Cockney girl, rises to the emergency, and her character and taste develop in a The author writes phenomenal manner. with superficial smartness, but fails to impress her readers with the reality of her convictions or the artistic command of her material. The combination of surface inanity and real strength in the high-born characters with true Christianity and selfish ambition in those from the slums is not convincing, though at times the situation becomes interesting. (Saints in Society. By Margaret Baillie-Saunders. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. \$1.50.)

This story, which is the work The Scarlet of one of the most reactionary **Empire** of the opponents of trades unionism, is quite naturally a tract against the Socialistic propaganda. It is an account of a visit to the New Atlantis, under the sea, where Social Democracy has been carried to its, to the author, logical conclusion. As a story the book is fairly readable, but as a contribution to the discussion of the social problem it has no slightest claim to consideration. (The Scarlet Empire. By David M. Parry. The Bobbs-Merrill Company, Indianapolis, Ind.)

Thunder and Lightning as a writer of popular (and sometimes, perhaps, a trifle sensational) scientific exposition insures a readable book on what he calls the mysterious habits and customs of thunder and

lightning. He has marshaled here a host of strange narratives of startling phenomena, illustrated by many rather poor pictures, and seems less concerned to explain the marvelous occurrences by recognized laws than to startle the reader and convince him that there is much that is inexplicable in electricity. (Thunder and Lightning. By Camille Flammarion. Translated by Walter Mostyn. Little, Brown & Co., Boston. \$1.25, net.)

The Triumphs of Eugène Valmont

The first one, in which the historical incident of the diamond necklace of Marie Antoinette is carried forward into our own time, is particularly clever. Unlike Sherlock Holmes, Mr. Barr's detective occasionally does make mistakes, and indeed two or three of the best stories in the book are concerned with his failures. (The Triumphs of Eugène Valmont. By Robert Barr. D. Appleton & Co., New York. \$1.50.)

Under the pen-name of Paul The Twentieth Karishka, "a well-known Century Christ jurist," as his publishers tell us, has with a reverent hand drawn what is refracted to him through his predilections as a true portrait of Christ. Jesus is to him the greatest of Masters in philosophy, the teacher of "a philosophy translatable into religion." One of the earliest literary defenders of Christianity, Justin Martyr, in the second century, an enthusiastic Platonist, found his way to Jesus through this gate of philosophy. But here the parallel ceases. Justin found an ethical philosophy in Jesus; what Karishka finds is metaphysical. All great thinkers from Laotze in ancient China to Hegel in modern Germany have taught, and Jesus taught, the everlasting parallelism, " the identity, of contraries," e. g., to the poor in spirit belongs the kingdom of heaven; to lose life for My sake is to save it. "Jesus was wise." He said to himself, How shall I make the wretched multitude understand this law of being, so that they may extract from the bitter the opposing sweet? "I will become cne of them, and demonstrate that suffering in all these forms finds its other pole in joy. So, then, though homeless and poor, "he declared himself supremely happy." Karishka's style is cultured and energetic, but he does not transcend intellectualism into the region of the affections and the will, the proper sphere of Christianity. Even Jesus' expectation of drawing all men to himself through his cross is interpreted as referring

to the triumphant effect of demonstrating Karishka's fundamental philosophic principle. He concludes that Jesus is divine, "both man and God." It is one of the cases in which a conclusion accepted by many is based on grounds plausible to few. But the conclusion is the main thing. And the general complexion of the work is of that type of religious thought which goes further in Asia than in Europe or America. (The Twentieth Century Christ. By Paul Karishka. Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Company, Boston. \$1.10, postpaid.)

The charms of the shiftless Uncle William life are sung in this attractive little story by Jennette Lee. Uncle William is an old philosopher who gets his own way by mere force of his faith in human nature and gentle inertia. His agency in the love story of a pair of young artists is ably reinforced by his boyhood companion, who returns to his old home in the character of a wealthy patron of art. There is a grace in the making of the story that owes its effect to an unstudied simplicity of style. (Uncle William: The Man who was Shif'less. By Jennette Lee. The Century Company, New York. \$1.)

The work of Frederic Rem-The Way ington as an artist in depictof an Indian ing Indian types and characteristic scenes of Indian life is perhaps as well known as the work of any other American painter. In this book he does for the brave with the pen what he has so often done with the brush. It is the life-story of a typical fighting Indian of the West in the days when the white man was beginning to overrun his country. It is written from the Indian point of view, and is vivid, picturesque, and truthful. The book is illustrated with fourteen of Mr. Remington's remarkable Indian pictures. (The Way of an Indian. By Frederic Remington. Fox, Duffield & Co., New York. \$1.50.)

Wild Justice

Short stories of life in the islands of the South SeasThe characters are the ignorant and superstitious natives, well meaning but generally inefficient missionaries, unscrupulous traders, and refugees and adventurers in search of victims. It is not an edifying life, and the manly virtues seem to be conspicuously absent. There is a certain bizarre humor, however, in these tales which somewhat redeems the sordidness of their subject matter. (Wild Justice. By Lloyd Osbourne. D. Appleton & Co., New York. \$1.50.)

Letters to The Outlook

LIBERTY AND THE CLOSED SHOP

I notice that in your editorial answer to my article on Nuremberg, the City of the Closed Shop, you say, "The closed shop, as Mr. Bliss describes it, was wholly inconsistent with industrial liberty." But this is exactly what you do not prove, and what I most emphatically deny. I think the trouble is that you do not define "liberty." It is very seldom defined. I have read scores of books of reformers and publicists who talk about liberty, but scarcely one book defines it. What is liberty? Lack of law? So you and most writers unconsciously assume. If so, you are right. There was no liberty in Nuremberg. But is liberty lack of law? You do not so believe. No philosophic mind claims that to-day. Liberty is opportunityopportunity to think one's own thoughts, to dream one's own dreams, to do one's own deeds, to live one's own life, to be one's own self. Few will deny that that is liberty.

Now, so defined, where is this liberty? I believe that in Nuremberg, for a boy born poor, a boy of the working class, there was almost infinitely more liberty-more opportunity to become a creator, an artist, to live his own life, to be himself—than there is for a boy so born in Fall River or Birmingham to-day-in both cases barring accidents or favoritism. It is true that the non-union man is free to hustle and push and shove his comrades as the union man fortunately cannot do. So the non-moral man can do some things that the moral man may not do. But morality is not slavery and immorality is not freedom. The closed shop closes the door on the struggle to down one's comrades, but it opens the door to opportunity to rise to the higher manhood. Exactly because. as you say, manhood is more than things, and to be free is more than to be rich, I believe in comradeship and the union shop. I used Nuremberg as an illustration, not to be copied in all things, but to show how the closed shop gave opportunity and produced W. D. P. BLISS. men.

CREEDS AND UNITY

Some time ago you commended the proposed union of the Congregational, Methodist Protestant, and United Brethren Churches. And what a fine thing it is! But does not the proposal to tag on a "Declaration of Faith" as a part of the basis of union seem to you an opportunity-missing mis-

take? Such a proposal implies that it is still impossible for Christian people to unite simply and strongly as disciples of Christ, acknowledging, in a truly personal way, allegiance to him as the truth and life of God. So we are asked to repeat once more the old folly of trying to pack our "faith" into a theological formula, and then hasten to explain that we do so as an "act of worship," and that this theological child of ours must not be measured by the test of accuracy—a test which, one would think, should be among the foremost of those that theological statements would in these days expect to meet.

It may seem to some that the conclusions of a committee of so able men with so excellent an aim should not be criticised. Yet this is not the way truth has grown among us, nor is permanent and vital union likely to be promoted by such silence.

Is it true that in our Congregational churches, or in any group of churches, union for worship, life, and service should be based on theological propositions of any sort rather than on personal devotion to God in Christ? The Committee say that they are "possessed of these convictions both as truth which they do most firmly hold, and acts of faith which spring from their hearts." Are not religious faith and theological doctrine far too important to be confused in this way?

Is it true that a declaration of the theological belief of any man or set of men as to the "ancient symbols of the Church," the resurrection of Jesus, immortality, or baptism, is an "altogether necessary" part of a genuine "avowal of personal consecration to the will and service of God in Jesus Christ our Lord"?

Again—a far less important, yet not unimportant question—Is it true that such statements as that we accept "the Holy Scriptures [rather than the teachings of Christ] as the inspired source of our faith and the supreme standard of Christian truth," and that we "consent to the teaching of the ancient symbols of the undivided Church," are representative of the truth as held by Congregational Christians? Some of the very men whose names are attached to this doctrinal announcement have substantially denied one or both of these propositions in their oral or written teachings.

It is a long road we are traveling in this search for truth, and each decade finds us in a different stage of the journey. If the com-

mittee had only been content with some such statement of loyalty as that of the first lines of their Declaration, and had added a pledge of unity and obedience in Christian service, they would have seized a fine opportunity for advancing the only abiding and really fundamental unity—the unity of the Spirit.

G. H. B.

[With the protest against creeds as conditions of entrance to the Church The Outlook is in sympathy. But this protest is very apt to swing over into an attack on creeds as such. Such an attack seems to us as futile as it is unjustifiable. So long as men have religious convictions, so long will they wish to give them intellectual form. If the creed upon which representatives of these three denominational bodies have agreed measurably expresses their common convictions, and is not to be used as a barrier against those who do not wholly agree with it, we can see only reasons in favor of it. A creed as a test is wrong; a creed as a testimony helps to clarify convictions and to assist men and churches in discovering what convictions are fundamental.—THE EDITORS.]

MINE LABOR CONDITIONS IN WEST VIRGINIA

The editorial paragraph in the issue of The Outlook for March 17 on "Mine Labor Conditions in West Virginia" is misleading; not so much on account of what is said, as from what remains unsaid.

It is true that West Virginia coal is a strong competitor against other coals, anthracite as well as bituminous, in both Eastern and Western markets; that it affects the entire coal industry of the country and is a factor that must be reckoned with by all parties in interest to a miners' strike; and that this situation is of the most vital concern to the general public. It is not true, however, that, "through various means of exploitation of labor, the labor cost of producing coal is much less in West Virginia than that of the operators in the Middle Western coal-producing States having a common market."

That coal is mined much cheaper in West Virginia than it is in the Middle West is a well-known fact; but it is not because of the "exploitation of labor." The paragraph under discussion correctly gives the reason why West Virginia coal finds its way to both Eastern and Western markets as being on account of its favorable location in the mountains, half-way between the ocean and the lakes, thus making practicable a down-grade haul each way. It cannot be said that the natural advantage of location over Western coals is due to the "exploitation of labor;" neither

is the small labor cost of mining West Virginia coal attributable to low wages paid miners, but is likewise the result of favorable natural conditions. A miner can mine more coal in the average West Virginia mine than he can mine in the average Western mine, for the reason that the seams of coal are much thicker in West Virginia than they are in Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois, and are almost universally worked from drift mouths rather than by shafting, which is the common method in the Middle West. Thus coal can be mined cheaper in West Virginia than elsewhere, for the reason that nature placed it so that a miner can get it out with the minimum of effort. This makes possible large daily wages to the miner and at the same time small cost per ton to the operator. A miner can make more per day in the principal mining districts of West Virginia than he can anywhere else with a like amount of effort, and this because of the ease with which coal is mined. It is not uncommon for a miner in the Pocahontas coal fieldwhich is the largest and most important mining district in West Virginia-to go into a mine and make ten or twelve dollars digging coal before he comes out. This is not done in any other coal field in the United States.

It should always be borne in mind, too, that the time a miner spends in a mine in the Pocahontas field depends absolutely on his own volition. He begins and quits when he pleases, and the operator does not say a word, and dares not, for the reason that if he did, and the miner should not like it, all the miner would have to do would be to move on to a neighboring operation, with conditions equally favorably and a place to work awaiting him. So it is the custom in this district for miners to work one hour or twelve out of the twenty-four, just as they please, and one day or seven of the week, as they may choose. The question of an eight-hour day does not interest the West Virginia miner. He does not work that long now, on an average, and vet is making more than his brother miners less fortunately situated in other fields, who are clamoring for shorter hours of work. If statistics show that miners make more money per month or year in other States than they do in West Virginia, it is because those miners work more regularly than do the West Virginia miners, and not because they receive more for labor actually performed. And if miners in other States have more material comforts than do those in West Virginia, it is because those miners spend their earnings for such things, and not because West Virginia miners are unable to do so on account of the "exploitation of labor."

In the two things most coveted by miners by all men-liberty to work and good pay for labor performed, West Virginia leads all other States, as she does in the production of coal, except Pennsylvania. If the miners are indolent and do not work regularly, or spend their substance for that which is not meat, it is in spite of the operators and not because of them. There is not a mine in the State where miners may not receive regular employment at equal or better wages than could be earned under similar conditions of mining in other States; and there is not an operator in the State who would not prefer that his miners spend their money for things of real worth to themselves and families, rather than for drink and in sports that kill, as is so often done.

The coal production of West Virginia has increased from five million tons (in round numbers) in 1890, to thirty-eight million tons in 1905. This remarkable increase is due, not to any "exploitation of labor," but to the natural conditions so favorable to mining, and to the superior quality of the coal, which insures it a ready market wherever introduced. The United Mine Workers of America have never been able to control to any great extent in West Virginia, for the reason that the miners do not feel the need of the organization, but are able and content to get along without it. So a strike of the Mine Workers does not seriously affect the production of West Virginia coal.

That West Virginia miners live and work under the actual conditions guaranteed to them by the State motto, "Montani Semper Liberi," instead of being a menace to the general public, guarantees to it that, no matter how strong may be the tie-up by a strike in other fields, West Virginia will continue to furnish abundance of coal of a quality rivaled only by the celebrated coal of Cardiff.

L. C. Anderson.

Welch, West Virginia.

AN EXCELLENT WORK

In your advocacy of all good causes will you introduce a word for the Berkshire Industrial Farm? It has been in existence for nineteen years, and during that time more than six hundred wayward boys have been reformed under its influences, and have gone out into life, most of them with a manly purpose to earn an honest living and to be self-respecting citizens. Out of a hundred letters received from these boys during the past year not one has asked for pecuniary aid,

and all have expressed attachment and gratitude to the Farm.

The physical condition of the boys during these nineteen years is worthy to be placed on record. Coming, as most of them do, from poor homes and a street life, with health impaired by cigarette-smoking and evil habits, they have uniformly improved under the influence of the pure mountain air and water, plain, wholesome food, plenty of exercise, and constant occupation for mind and body, so that in a population of eighty boys no contagious disease has occurred and no affection of the eyes or skin.

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The Man with the Muck-Rake

By Theodore Roosevelt

An address delivered by the President of the United States at the laying of the corner-stone of the Office Building of the House of Representatives, April 14, 1906, and printed by The Outlook from an authorized copy, with editorial comment

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The Outlook

Volume 82

Saturday, April 21, 1906

Number 16

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THE OUTLOOK is a Weekly Newspaper and an Illustrated Monthly Magazine in one. It is published every Saturday—fifty-two issues a year. The fourth issue in each month is an Illustrated Magazine Number, containing about twice as many pages as the regular weekly issue, and many pictures.

PRICE.—The subscription price is Three Dollars a year, payable in advance. Ten cents a copy.

POSTAGE IS PREPAID by the publishers for all subscriptions in the United States, Hawaiian Islands, Philippine Islands, Guam, Porto Rico, Tutuila (Samoa), Shanghai, Canal Zone, Cuba, Canada, and Mexico. For all other countries in the Postal Union add \$1.56 for postage.

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LETTERS should be addressed:

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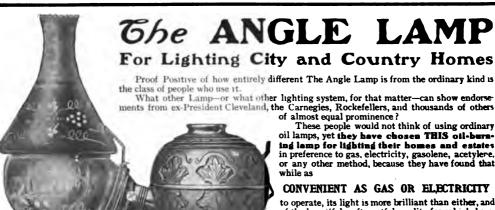
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The Outlook

SATURDAY, APRIL 21, 1906

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The general sus-Arbitration in the pension of coal-Mine Labor Controversy mining by members of the United Mine Workers of America, which was inaugurated on April 2 in both the anthracite and bituminous fields, closes its third week with more than three hundred thousand mine employees still idle. Of this number about one hundred and sixty thousand are in the anthracite industry of Pennsylvania, and the remaining one hundred and forty thousand are idle in Arkansas. Indian Territory, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Michigan, Missouri, Ohio, Pennsylvania, and West Virginia. In Alabama the strike inaugurated more than twenty months ago continues to affect four thou--sand men. In Illinois, Indiana, Indian Territory, Missouri, Ohio, Western Pennsylvania, and West Virginia settlements have been effected with operators by which some of the mine workers in these States have resumed mining operations, and the prospect is that as soon as other operators in these States dispose of their surplus coal now on hand a still larger number of settlements by districts will Within a month at most, officials of the United Mine Workers believe the suspension will be terminated in nearly all of the bituminous fields through district agreements between officials of the union and representatives of the operators. In Arkansas, Iowa, Kansas, Michigan, and Central Pennsylvania practically the total number of mine employees in those districts continue in idleness. Since the inauguration of the suspension the operators of the central competitive territory of Western Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois, who in the Inter-State Joint Conference refused to accede to the compromise wage increase demand, have appealed to President Roosevelt for the appointment of a commission to investigate and settle the differences between

them and the mine workers. They ask for an investigation by the commission of all matters which in its judgment have an important bearing upon or relation to the scale of wages which should be paid to all classes of labor in and about the coal mines of these four districts, as well as an investigation of other conditions insisted upon by the United Mine Workers. The resolution asking for such a commission declares the inability of the operators to come to terms with the miners, and claims that such operators represent eighty per cent, of the production in the central competitive territory. To this statement President Mitchell, of the miners' union, and Mr. Francis L. Robbins, of the Pittsburg Coal Company, which led the operators who accepted the compromise wage increase, take exception, claiming in a telegram to the President that at least one-half of the tonnage of the four districts mentioned is produced by operators who are willing fo pay the compromise scale. Mr. J. H. Winder, the leader of the operators who oppose the compromise wage increase, has supplemented the appeal to President Roosevelt with a proposition to President Mitchell that the differences be referred for determination and settlement to a board of arbitration to be composed of the members of the Board of Conciliation provided for in the award of the Anthracite Coal Strike Commission, with Judge Gray or any person he may appoint to act as chairman and umpire. This proposition is shortly to be acted upon by the National Executive Board of the United Mine Workers.

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Anthracite Conferences
Fail to Reach an
Agreement

In the anthracite industry an early resumption of coal mining is not

probable. The various conferences between representatives of the operators

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and mine employees have been terminated without any agreement. operators on March 9 refused all the original demands of the anthracite mine employees, and presented a counter proposition to the effect "that the awards made by the Anthracite Coal Strike Commission and the principles upon which they were established by the Commission, and the methods established for carrying out their findings and awards, shall be continued for and during a further term of three years from the first day of April, 1906." In reply to this proposition President Mitchell declared that there has been criticism among the miners; that there exists much cause for criticism and complaint: and that this is true to such an extent that the miners cannot, with any degree of contentment or satisfaction, continue to work under present conditions. On April 3 another conference of operators and mine employees was held in New York, the suspension in the anthracite coal fields of Pennsylvania having become effective in the meantime, at which the mine workers proposed that the differences at issue be submitted "to a board of arbitration composed of the members of the present Board of Conciliation provided for in the award of the Anthracite Coal Strike Commission, with Judge George Gray or any person he may appoint to act as chairman and umpire; the decision of the tribunal or of the majority of the members thereof, in so far as it influences wages, to be effective from April I, 1906, and to continue in force until March 31, 1908, such decision to be final and binding upon all parties in interest." This proposition was declined by the operators, who in turn proposed submitting to at least a majority of the members of the Anthracite Coal Strike Commission the question "whether any changes in the conditions of the anthracite industry have occurred" since the award of the Commission in 1903 which require that the award should be modified as to wages of the employees, or the adjustment of complaints through the Conciliation Board or otherwise. Objections to the acceptance of this proposition on the part of the mine workers were pre-

sented at the final joint conference on April 11, and at the same time the committee representing the anthracite mine employees altered their original demands to the extent of withdrawing that for recognition of the union and modifying that for the establishment of the check-off system so as to provide for the collection of union dues from those employees only who gave such authorization. In case the miners' original demands, with these modifications, were unacceptable to the operators, President Mitchell, on the part of the hard-coal miners, agreed to accept the proposition for submitting the issues to the Coal Strike Commission, provided that, in case any members of the original Commission were unable to serve, the vacancies were to be filled by President Roosevelt. To this final reply of representatives of the anthracite mine employees the operators have made no definite answer at this writing; and this is the situation in which the negotiations have been left, the suspension of hard-coal mining continuing. But a convention of the three anthracite districts is being arranged by officials of the United Mine Workers of America, to which a complete report of the negotiations with the operators is to be presented. Upon the action of this convention depends the decision whether the present suspension is to become a strike or is to be terminated by a resumption of mining operations. The effect upon the consumer of hard coal of all these negotiations has not only been to prevent the customary April reduction of fifty cents a ton on domestic sizes of anthracite, but also has resulted so far in a general increase of at least twenty-five cents a ton over the usual price of \$6.75.

Just and Unjust
Mortgage Taxation
The passage of the Dowling mortgage tax bill at Albany recalls some significant and in certain aspects amusing taxation history. For many years in New York State mortgages have been subject simply to the regular personal tax. The Outlook has often pointed out that this method of taxation has been unjust, for two reasons: first, it was a method of double taxation, as it

extracted tax payments on the same piece of property both from the mortgagor and the mortgagee; and, second, it was so generally evaded, especially in the large cities and by wealthy mortgageowners, that the entire tax was practically paid in the rural districts, where the mortgage-holders could not technically evade or willfully deceive the tax offi-Moreover, the few conscientious taxpayers, and the much larger body of unfortunates who desired to evade the law but could not do so, had to pay a tax of from one and one-half to two per cent. on mortgages that were only bringing a return of from four to six per cent. Two years ago the Bostwick bill proposed to substitute a nominal recording fee for the personal tax on mortgages. The ordinary citizen would have supposed that the replacement of an annual tax of one and one-half per cent. by a recording fee of one-half per cent., paid only once, would have been welcomed by all lenders and borrowers of money on real estate. This was not the case, however; the admirable I ostwick bill was defeated by the influence largely of wealthy men in New York City, who preferred to own their mortgages subject to the annual tax of one and one-half per cent. which they never paid, rather than subject to a fee of one-half per cent, which they would be compelled to pay in order to make their mortgages worth anything. So the old system went on until the citizens of the so-called rural districts found their burden intolerable to bear. justly saw no reason why New York mortgage-owners should be practically tax free while they paid one and onehalf per cent. The "up-State" counties, with the approval of Governor Higgins, succeeded, therefore, in putting through the Legislature last June a mortgage tax bill providing for an annual tax of onehalf per cent. Taxation under this law began on July 1 last. The framers of this law were astute enough to make provisions of such a nature that owners of mortgages who evaded or dodged this tax were in danger of having their mortgages canceled. Confronted with the absolute necessity of paying one-half per cent. a year, the real estate interests of

New York City began to regret exceedingly their defeat of the Bostwick bill, and they practically said to the rest of the State, If you will give us another chance we will accept the recording tax. This has now been enacted in the Dowling law. Under the Dowling law. which now simply awaits the Governor's signature, all mortgages are to pay a tax of fifty cents on each hundred dollars at the time they are recorded, and are exempt from any other form of local or State taxation. The recording tax is likely to bring to the State a very much larger income than the old and often uncollectable personal tax law, although not so great an income as the one-half per cent, annual tax, both of which forms of taxation it supersedes. But it does away with the injustice of double taxation imposed by any annual tax, and its burden is not likely to fall on the small borrower. The Outlook regards it as a distinct step in advance, although the history of its passage manifestly exposes a large body of the mortgage owners and dealers of New York City to the charge of having been wholesale evaders of law.

The readers of The Help to Save Outlook may render val-Niagara Falls uable personal service toward the saving of Niagara Falls by sending immediately to the Committee on Rivers and Harbors of the House of Representatives, Washington, D.C., their support of the bill which was introduced last Wednesday by the Hon. Theodore Burton, of Cleveland, Chairman of this Committee, with the approval of President Roosevelt. The complete bill is printed herewith:

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That the diversion of water from Niagara River, in the State of New York, is hereby prohibited, except upon revocable permits to be granted by the Secretary of War in accordance with section two of this Act: *Provided*, That this prohibition shall not be interpreted as forbidding the granting of permits by said Secretary for domestic uses, or for such diversion of water as may, in his judgment, be required for the Erie Canal for purposes of navigation. Sec. 2. That the Secretary of War is

hereby authorized to grant revocable permits for the diversion of water from said Niagara River for the creation of power, but only to individuals, companies, or corporations which are now actually producing power from said water, and to them only to the amount now actually in use by such individuals, companies or corporations.

nies, or corporations.

Sec. 3. That the transmission into the United States from the Dominion of Canada of electrical power generated from the waters of the said Niagara River or from any of its tributaries is hereby prohibited, except to the amount now brought into the United States from Canada, and the Secretary of War is authorized and directed to ascertain such amount and to make regulations preventing or limiting the further admission of power as herein stated.

Sec. 4. That any person, company, or corporation violating any of the provisions of this Act, or any rule or regulation made by the Secretary of War in pursuance thereof, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and on conviction thereof shall be punished by a fine not exceeding two thousand five hundred dollars nor less than five hundred dollars, or by imprisonment (in the case of a natural person) not exceeding one year, or by both such punishments, in the discretion of the court. And further, the removal of any structures or parts of structures erected in violation of this Act, or any construction incidental to or used for such diversion of water or transmission of power as is herein prohibited, may be enforced by the order of any circuit court exercising jurisdiction in any district in which the same may be located, and proper proceedings to this end may be instituted under the direction of the Attorney-General of the United States.

Sec. 5. That the President be requested

Sec. 5. That the President be requested to take such action as he may deem necessary, either through ordinary diplomatic channels or by the members of the International Waterways Commission appointed in pursuance of the river and harbor Act of nineteen hundred and two, and acting in conjunction with the members of said Commission representing the Dominion of Canada, to prevent the further depletion of the waters flowing over Niagara Falls and for the adoption of proper regulations to preserve the said cataract as near as may be in its natural condition.

Sec. 6. That the provisions of this Act shall remain in force for three years from and after date of its passage, but nothing herein contained shall be held to establish or confirm any rights heretofore claimed or exercised in the diversion of water or the transmission of power.

mission of power.
Sec. 7. That the right to alter, amend, or repeal this Act is hereby expressly reserved.

The lines are now sharply drawn between those who wish to exploit Niagara Falls for commercial purposes and those who are determined that its scenic beauty shall be preserved. The people will win if they make their wishes known.

New York Rapid Transit The Elsberg Bill, which has passed the New York Legislature and now re-

quires only the approval of the Governor of the State and the Mayor of New York City to become law, marks another victory in enlightened dealing with franchise questions and transportation problems. Though the language of the bill at various points is complicated and obscure, not to say ambiguous, its general provisions are clear enough. The bill has been radically amended since its introduction. and now embodies some of the best features of the measure proposed last February by the City Club. In the first place, it allows the Rapid Transit Commission discretion in deciding whether contracts for the building of a subway shall be made with one firm and for the operating of it with another, or whether contracts for building and operating shall be made with the same firm. With this increase in freedom in one direction the Commission loses freedom in another; it is deprived of the power to grant perpetual franchises except to trunk lines running into the city. In granting franchises, moreover, the Commission is limited to a period of twentyfive years, with a twenty-year renewal, and can fix the rental price for only the twenty-five-year period; thereafter there must be, we understand, readjustments from time to time. At the end of the period of franchise the whole road—except the rolling stock and other movable equipment—shall become the property of the city without further compensation; and the rolling stock, if the Commissioners so provide in the franchise, may become the property of the city upon a fair valuation. As a last resort, the Rapid Transit Commissioners are empowered to maintain and operate a road or roads in behalf of the city. In other words, the Legislature authorizes municipal operation. Not the least important provision is that which changes the Board of Rapid Transit Commissioners from a self-perpetuating body to one whose members are

hereafter to be appointed (as vacancies occur) by the Mayor. Heretofore the Board has done admirable service; but a self-perpetuating public board is wrong in principle and is subject to the danger of becoming in every sense unrepresentative. Its transformation into an appointive board is to be commended. It is hardly necessary to say that the principles which the Elsberg Bill embodies are, in the judgment of The Outlook, sound.

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The Long Arm of Justice

The conviction in Savannah last week of John F. Gaynor and Benjamin D.

Greene on a charge of defrauding the United States Government is a striking reply to those who distrust justice and believe that rich rogues go free. Judge Speer, in sentencing these men to four years' imprisonment and to fines of over half a million dollars each, enforced this lesson by these words: "I am told that it has been cynically said by a famous New Yorker that no man who has a million dollars can be convicted of crime in America. The verdict of this jury of plain, clear-sighted, honest Americans has falsified such pessimism." And in concluding his sertence Judge Speer fitly quoted the words of the Psalmist, "The little that a righteous man hath is better than the riches of many wicked." One of the men convicted, as Judge Speer pointed out, has been a man honored by a great political party, the other a West Point graduate of distinction. The fines, which equal the amount embezzled, may very likely not be paid, for in cases of this kind the convicted men may take a sort of poor debtor's oath and perhaps thus avoid restitution, but in that case an additional month's imprisonment must be served. It may even possibly happen that the present conviction may be reversed after appeal proceedings. even so, it will always stand as a vivid illustration of the efficiency and honesty of the law and its administration that these charges have been relentlessly followed up for six years, during which the accused are said to have spent two million dollars in avoiding trial; that every subterfuge has been used in vain

by the ablest counsel for the defense; that flight from the country was useless; that a long struggle against extradition ended in defeat; that desperate expedient and lavish expense failed; that these men, accomplices and financial backers in the engineering frauds of Captain Carter, who had already been convicted and imprisoned, were brought to trial, millionaires though they were, fairly dealt with by judge and jury, and duly convicted and sentenced. If the mills of justice have ground slowly in this case, they have certainly ground surely.

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The immense growth in The House the amount and intricacy Office Building of the public business of the United States is indicated by the necessity of an office building for each branch of Congress. That which is to be used by the House of Representatives is now under way, and its corner-stone was laid in Washington last Saturday with interesting ceremonies. The most noteworthy event of the day was, of course, the delivery by President Roosevelt of his address entitled "The Man with the Muck-Rake," which is reproduced in its entirety elsewhere in this issue of The Outlook, and is commented upon editorially on another page. There was a great assemblage of high officials and distinguished guests at the ceremony, including the members of both Houses, the President and Vice-President, the Supreme Court, and many foreign diplo-The Masonic ritual in all its interesting details was carried out (as is often the case with the corner-stone laying of public buildings, because of the aptness of the ritual and the supposed ancient origin of the society among operative masons), and the gold-mounted gavel used was that employed by George Washington when he presided as Masonic Grand Master at the laying of the corner-stone of the Capitol in 1793. The Office Building. which stands near the Capitol at its southeast corner, is to cost something over three million dollars, has a total frontage of nearly one-third of a mile, has a large interior court, will have three stories above the ground level at the front and five at the rear, and will contain no fewer than 410 offices, together with a large assembly-room where public hearings may be had before House committees. The intention is to furnish each member of Congress with a room in which he may conduct public business and receive his constituents. When the entire architectural plan contemplated for enlarging the business facilities of Congress is completed, the National Capitol will be increased in dignity of outward appearance as well as in interior spaciousness.

(A)

Railway Regulation
in Mexico
While the question
of railway regulation
by law is before the

by law is before the public, it is interesting to note what has been done along this line in other countries. Probably the railroad law of Mexico is as just and as advanced as that of any other country, and accordingly is worthy of study. It is made to apply to the transportation companies from the time of their application for a charter, and thus the companies and their officials are subject to the special laws through all the periods of their companies' growth. It is evident that there has been an honest effort on the part of the Government to take a fair attitude toward both the railroad companies and the public. The construction of railroads has been aided by means of subsidies, secured by Government bonds, which go far toward paying the costs of construction. The amount of the subsidies varies with the nature of the country crossed by the line and the Government needs of the particular line. Construction is further aided by the Government remitting the duties levied by the country's protective tariff on the materials of construction. The operation of the roads is encouraged by permission to form pools to direct shipments and apportion business, but the nature of these pools is scrutinized and must be approved by the Government, so that the roads are not able to raise prices and rob the public. Railroad operation is again encouraged by the law preventing the construcion of unnecessary parallel lines, or those built for speculation. The friendly attitude of the nation toward

the railroads was plainly shown at the time of the passage of the recent money law by which the country's currency was placed on a gold basis, with the Mexican peso fixed in value at fifty cents gold. The passage of this law was urged by the railroads, which had been for years receiving their earnings in pesos varying in value from, say, thirty-five to fifty-five cents, and purchasing supplies and paying bond interest, etc., in dollars of fixed value of one hundred cents. The interests of the people at large and the Government have been well guarded in this law, as in the matter of rates. freight and passenger rates are required to be approved by the Government and to be made public. The rates are subject to revision and approval every three years, at which time the Government may insist upon reductions in rates of as much as ten per cent., provided the railroads are guaranteed an increase in business equal to the average that has been maintained during the preceding five years. The rates for Government business may not exceed one-half the published rates, and all mail matter and postal officers are to be carried without any charge whatever. Rebates and special rates of any kind are forbidden, as well as ticket scalping, and penalties are named which are sufficiently severe to be respected. One of the most interesting provisions of the law is that which provides that at the end of ninety-nine years from the time of granting the concession the real property of the company reverts to the Government absolutely, while the rolling stock, appliances, etc., may be purchased at a fairly appraised At such time the Government may operate the roads or lease them again on favorable terms. It is most interesting to add that the law, too briefly outlined above, appears to be carefully obeyed by the railroads and impartially enforced by the Government.

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The Eruption of Vesuvius

As last week wore on hope grew that the present outbreak had passed its most violent stage, and attention has been focused on the relief of the destitute thousands who have been

driven from home. The King and Queen have visited the injured, have contributed liberally to their needs, and have incited the authorities to activity and encouraged the frightened and disheartened. The Government is distributing temporary relief, but voluntary contributions from the world at large are needed. In this country the American National Red Cross will collect funds for the purpose; contributions may be sent either to the National Red Cross Treasurer at Washington or to the treasurer of any of the State branches—for New York the address is Jacob H. Schiff, Treasurer, Room 509, No. 500 Fifth Avenue, New York City. While it is evident that some of the earlier reports were exaggerated and incorrect in certain particulars, it is estimated that some five thousand houses have been destroyed, and that the agricultural losses alone may amount to a million dollars. loss of life was greatest at Ottajano, where several hundred people perished. An indirect result of the eruption was the disaster at Naples on Tuesday of last week, when the roof of the Mount Oliveto Market, overweighted by accumulated ashes, collapsed, killing some twelve or fifteen people and injuring about a hundred. At one time there seemed danger of a panic in Naples, but public fear became quickly allayed as the showers of ashes and red sand, which covered the streets lightly, diminished and ceased. The heroism of Professor Mattucci, the director of the observatory on Vesuvius, has attracted wide admiration. In our account last week we repeated the cabled statement that he had been forced to abandon his post. report was quite incorrect; Dr. Mattucci staved throughout, and at the imminent risk of his life, at the observatory, and under the most terrifying conditions watched the progress of the phenomena and sent messages of encouragement and sympathy to Naples. His services to science and humanity will undoubtedly be recognized by the Italian Govern-To a newspaper correspondent who reached the observatory at some risk on Saturday Dr. Mattucci said:

Compared with other great eruptions, this is one of the most important in the history of

Vesuvius. Its effects are less terrible than those of the eruption in the year 79, when Pompeii was buried, but it equals in intensity the great eruptions of 1631 and 1872. What results this eruption will yield to science is not yet certain. You cannot count on Vesuvius; each of its eruptions has its characteristics. This one was marked by an abundance of electrical phenomena.

The statement on Saturday that six thousand persons were engaged in clearing the ashes from the roofs and streets of Naples indicates the effect of the eruption at a distance, and it is even reported that ashes from Vesuvius descended in Switzerland.



A Spectacular Vacation

President Castro, of Venezuela, is accustomed to act with a view to theatrical effect. It is not surprising to find that the news of his retirement from the Presidency cabled last week means

the Presidency cabled last week means merely that his intention is to take a three months' vacation in the State of Araqua. It is open to question whether his motive is purely one of rest, or whether he prefers to be away because he expects that Venezuela may soon be put in a humiliating position by France, which has by no means forgotten its intention of requiring a satisfactory explanation of the treatment of M. Taigny and of other conduct regarded as unfriendly to France. It seems that the law of Venezuela requires that when the President goes outside the Federal district he must appoint as his temporary successor the First Vice-President. General Gomez. an ambitious and warlike man, becomes accordingly Provisional President of Venezuela, but the shrewd Castro has put the military force around Caracas under command of General Araujo, a rival of Gomez, and has sent a large part of the army with generals supposed to be friendly to Gomez far away from the capital under the pretense of military maneuvers. Thus the not unlikely event of a revolution is guarded against, and Castro may safely absent himself. His farewell proclamation asserts that " Peace is assured in the entire republic; the international situation of the Government is clear, as all pending questions will either be amicably arranged or

settled by arbitration "—a statement hardly confirmed by Paris despatches.

(6)

Americans who have been An English behind the scenes, so to Scholar speak, in the British Museum know what a wealth of literary material of every sort and kind and of literary association is preserved in that center of English knowledge and scholarship. The books on the shelves, if placed side by side, would extend more than forty-nine miles; and the imagination cannot conceive of the richness of experience, history, scholarship, and poetry compacted and conserved in those volumes. Many scholars have lived and died in the atmosphere of the Museum, and many other scholars have worked in its great reading-room. Among the first must be counted Richard Garnett, who died in London on Friday of last week in his seventy-first year, and whose name brings with it the aroma of the quiet life, the simple habits of good, old-fashioned scholarship. Like Johnson, he was born in Lichfield, and, like the author of "Rasselas," he had a chance of tumbling about in a library as a little child; for while Johnson's father was a bookseller, Garnett's father was a keeper of printed books in the British Museum. The boy entered the Museum in his seventeenth year as junior assistant, and remained in the service of the institution until 1899. His whole active life, therefore, was spent under its roof and among its treasures. His position for many years was that of Assistant Keeper in the department of printed books, as his father had been before him, but he later added to this position that of superintendent of the reading-room; and in 1890 he was promoted to be Keeper of Printed Books. During the eleven years succeeding 1881 he edited the Museum catalogues, a difficult task which he discharged with conspicuous ability. His access to books, the thorough training which his innate love of literature had received, and the range of his tastes, were indicated by many volumes which came from his hand. He wrote lives of Carlyle, of Emerson, of Milton, translated poems from the German, collected

"Relics of Shelley," "Sonnets from Dante, Petrarch, and Camoëns," wrote a "History of Italian Literature," a collection of "Essays in Librarianship and Bibliography," a volume of "Essays of an Ex-Librarian," a delightful book on "William Shakespeare, Pedagogue and Poacher," and he was the editor, in collaboration with Edmund Gosse, of the important illustrated history of English literature published during the last five years. He was a constant contributor to the important biographic works and encyclopædias of the time, and a member of many literary and learned societies. In the rush of modern life and in the heart of the greatest of modern cities Richard Garnett stood for the traditions and sound methods of the scholar's career.

Nathaniel Southgate Shaler Versatility is not the trait one expects to find nowadays in

men of science, and imagination is not commonly regarded as an essential attribute of the scientific mind; yet if there were two qualities for which Professor Shaler, of Harvard, who died last week. was conspicuous, they were his versatility and his imagination. He was by profession a geologist; but he rendered by his avocations as great a service to his time as he did through his vocation. The man who wrote one of the best of the series on American Commonwealths; who in his two volumes "The Citizen" and "The Neighbor" produced most thoughtful studies respectively in democratic politics and racial problems: who published a five-volume drama in blank verse entitled "Elizabeth of England;" who by his book "The Individual: A Study of Life and Death," contributed to the modern discussion of the human soul and of immortality, was more than a scientist. And in his special department of geology he exercised those qualities of imagination and wide human interest which made possible his adventures in other fields. For years the most popular course in Harvard College, hardly excepting Professor Norton's lectures on Fine Arts, was Professor Shaler's course which many graduates remember by the name of N. H. 4 (course

number four in natural history) and later graduates know as Geology 4. Though its popularity was due in part to the fact that it was a "snap" course, in other words an easy one, it was due in larger measure to Professor Shaler's brilliancy as a lecturer, to his humor, and to the moral stimulus of his rugged, genuine character. Dean Shaler's saying which Dean Briggs recalls, "I hold it a part of my business to do what I can for every wight that comes to this place," explains a great part of his power at Harvard. He was a standing refutation of the notion that in a large university the relation of the undergraduates to the most eminent among the professors is necessarily impersonal. Students who years ago took his course may now have forgotten all they ever knew about glacial action and may be unable to define a "fault," but they have not lost the power he gave them of detaching themselves for a while from the habit of thinking in terms of minutes, days, and years, sufficiently to conceive of the transitoriness of all mountains and the instability of continents. "A brief time, geologically speaking," became among the students in his course a proverbial phrase. As Dean of the Lawrence Scientific School he was a forceful administrator, carrying out his policy with great determination. Nathaniel Southgate Shaler was born in Kentucky in 1841. In the Civil War he was an officer in the Federal army. From that time to the day of his death he was, in one capacity or another, on the teaching force of Harvard University. His death diminishes the altogether too small number of men in whom specialized scholarship has not made impossible broad culture and human sympathy.

Football Reform
One stage in the progress toward more wholesome conditions in intercollegiate football was reached last week. The new rules formulated by the American Intercollegiate Football Rules Committee were put into final form on Saturday. These rules may be divided into two categories: In the first may be put those rules which have been framed to bring about a more open game, putting less of

a premium upon mere weight and strength and more of a premium upon speed and alertness. To attain this. devices have been adopted to make the line of scrimmage less compact and to foster longer runs. In the second category may be put those rules which have been framed to penalize and as far as possible to eliminate brutality and other kinds of unfair play. Certain acts have been stigmatized as brutal and unfair. severe penalties have been attached to them, and an additional official has been added to make detection of the violation of rules easier. All these rules, however, are but forms which can be effective only as they represent a sound spirit in athletics. The Committee itself recognizes this fact, and urges officials to enforce not merely the letter but also the spirit of the rules. How successful these new rules will be no one, we believe, can now tell. Much depends upon how far a wholesome and intelligent determination to make college athletics clean has extended. These rules have been made in good faith; they ought to be fairly tested. In the meantime various colleges have taken separate action. At Yale the faculty, running somewhat counter to tradition, has made certain restrictions; at Wisconsin the ban on football has been removed, as it has also been at New York University, which called the conference that resulted in the formation of the new Rules Committee; at Harvard the Athletic Committee has pronounced in favor of football under the new rules, but the matter is still subject to action by the Overseers and the Corporation.

(6)

England Rules One-fifth of the Earth's Surface The Local Government Board's census of the British Empire has now been issued. The task

was undertaken some years ago at the instance of Mr. Joseph Chamberlain when he was Colonial Minister in the Conservative-Unionist Cabinet, but the report is officially addressed to Mr. John Burns, the President of the Local Government Board in the new Liberal Cabinet. The two men represent opposite extremes—one is an imperialist, and the

other a leader who dislikes the term imperial. Since the preceding census millions of square miles have been added to the British Empire. Its aggregate area is now nearly twelve million square miles (Russia's falls short of nine million), thus exceeding one-fifth of the land surface of the globe, and its population is over four hundred million, or about that of China; Russia, the third Empire in point of population, with about a hundred and forty million, stands far below. In India there has been a decrease of population because of famine and plague. Aside from this, there has also been a decline in the rate of increase throughout the remainder of the Empire. Nevertheless, King Edward's subjects in Asia exceed three hundred million; in Africa, forty-three million; in Europe, forty-two million; in America, seven and a half million; in Australasia, five million. Classifying these by religion, we find no less than two hundred and eight million Hindus, ninety-four million Mohammedans, fifty-eight million Christians, twelve million Buddhists, and twenty-three million Parsees, Sikhs, Jains, Jews, Confucians, and adherents of other religions.

(2)

Romance, history, and Prince Rupert adventure happily blend in the naming of a city not yet in being, but which, it is entirely safe to say, will play an important rôle in the future development of Canada's great Northwest. Realizing the importance of a right selection of a name for the city to be established at the western terminus of its great transcontinental railway, the Grand Trunk Pacific Company some time ago offered a prize of \$250 to the person who would suggest a name that should be euphonious, appropriately significant of Canada, and more particularly of the Northwest and British Columbia. Company received upwards of twelve thousand suggestions, and awarded the prize to Miss Macdonald, of Winnipeg, who suggested Prince Rupert, the name eventually selected. The selection happily restores to the geography of North America the name of the dashing cavalry officer who harried Cromwell's sturdy Ironsides, contested with Blake the supremacy of the seas, and, after a romantic career in the Old World, made for himself a name as an explorer in the New. For his brilliant though in the end unsuccessful services in the Stuart cause, Prince Rupert received from Charles II. in 1669 a grant to a vast domain in North America for a century or more known as "Rupert's Land." The grant was made to Prince Rupert, eleven other noblemen, and six commoners, who were officially styled "The Governor and Company of Adventurers of England trading in Hudson Bay." The grant comprised a vast domain, much vaster in fact than King Charles or even Prince Rupert dreamed, embracing as it did all the territory drained by the waters flowing into Hudson Bay. With true kingly generosity, this "Company of Adventurers" was required yearly to pay to the King and his successors only two elks and two black beavers. The Company took formal possession of their new empire, and established tradingposts from the Atlantic to the Pacific, including what is now Alaska. the exception of a period of seventeen years, during which it was held by the French, the Company, known later as the Hudson's Bay Company, claimed occupancy and control of all this vast region, excepting, of course, Russian America, now Alaska, down to 1867, when, under the "British North American Act" of the Imperial Parliament, negotiations were entered into whereby in 1869 "Rupert's Land" became a part of the Dominion of Canada. The importance of the grant to Prince Rupert is readily seen in the fact that it was the charter of the Hudson's Bay Company which he secured that saved the great Northwest to Canada, and it was this grant also that was the historical bar to the old-time slogan, "Fifty-four forty or fight," which once endangered the peace between the United States and Great Britain. The city which is thus fitly to perpetuate a name so closely associated with British North America will be established on Kalen Island, about forty miles below Port Simpson. It is near the Skeena River, and along the banks of the latter will be built the railway to terminate at Prince Rupert.

The President's Speech

The speech of the President, which we print in full this week, is, in our judgment, one of the most important utterances which he has ever made. It is important as the utterance of the President of the United States. It is still more important as the reflection of a sentiment, gradually crystallizing into an opinion, of a great body of Americans of sane mind, progressive temper, and moderate incomes. It embodies three convictions:

I. Indiscriminating condemnation is as bad as indiscriminating approbation. The periodicals which indulge in it are The heart of not critical periodicals. America is sound and the conscience of America is alert, and it is because they are so that the robberies perpetrated in violation of law by some labor leaders and the robberies perpetrated under cover of law by some capitalistic magnates have aroused such a passion of healthy To keep that passion indignation. healthy it must be controlled and directed by a sound judgment. With this The Outlook absolutely and without qualification agrees.

II. The enormous fortunes accumulated by a small number of capitalists are a menace to the country. menace is not averted by generosity in the expenditure of the incomes which are derived from these fortunes. As a remedy the President proposes "a progressive tax on all fortunes beyond a certain amount, either given in life or devised or bequeathed upon death to any individual—a tax so framed as to put it out of the power of the owner of one of these enormous fortunes to hand on more than a certain amount to any one individual; the tax, of course, to be imposed by the National and not the State Government." We agree with the President's diagnosis: such fortunes are a menace to the Republic. We do not consider the remedy which he proposes to be adequate. We doubt whether the Federal Government can under the Constitution levy such a progressive tax on all fortunes. We are quite sure that if it could do so it would only mitigate, not cure, the evil. The remedy must go deeper. Law must at least so far modify the tariff as to prevent it from being a stimulant to the acquisition of great fortunes. It must bring all corporations under such legislative supervision and control that the common people can invest their savings in productive industrial enterprises as safely as they are now invested in savings banks. Above all, it must, by a system of taxation on the land and its contents, secure to the people that common wealth which under our present industrial system is put up to be gambled for by the unscrupulous or laid hold of for their own benefit by the astute and the strong. brief, we cannot maintain an industrial system which promotes the creation of great fortunes in the hands of a few and remedy the evil by distributing among the people a part of the fortune at the possessor's death. We cannot go on eating fats and sweets and preserve our health by an occasional dose of calomel.

III. The Federal Government must "in some form exercise supervision over corporations engaged in inter-State business-and all large corporations are engaged in inter State business—whether by license or otherwise, so as to permit us to deal with the far-reaching evils of overcapitalization." Yes! And other evils than overcapitalization. The Outlook has no doubt that Congress can forbid any corporation to engage in inter-State commerce unless it has first received a license from the Federal Government, and that it can attach any reasonable qualifications to such license. In this way all great corporations can be brought under Federal supervision and control. The end sought appears to The Outlook just, the means proposed legitimate and probably wise.

By suggestions two and three the President has propounded for discussion two very important and far-reaching themes; the importance of them has already been recognized both by the European and the American press; the debate is sure to be widely extended and vigorous. The Outlook, without now pretending to speak a final word upon either of these questions, here expresses more than mere first impressions;

they are convictions gradually formed as a result of past studies, they have been heretofore frequently indicated in these columns, and they are here reiterated though not fully formulated.

A Great Senatorial Debate

The movement for railway rate regulation has conferred on the country one benefit: it has produced a real debate in the Senate of the United States. "Hope springs eternal in the human breast," and this event awakens a pleasing anticipation of the time when a real debate may take place in the House of Representatives. In the Senate, Senator Spooner, of Wisconsin, represented one view of the Constitution, Senator Bailey, of Texas, the other, and both were wholly free from the arts of the demagogue and the meretricious rhetoric of the stump speaker. The debate recalls the days of intellectual seriousness which some of us feared had passed from the Senate never to return.

There are three amendments proposed to the Railway Rate Regulation Bill, each intended to limit the interference of the courts with the operation of the bill: one allows them to consider only whether the Railway Rate Commission has by its decision in any case exceeded its legal and constitutional authority; the second allows the enforcement of the Commission's decree to be suspended by an appeal to the courts only in case the railway pays into court at stated intervals the difference between the money it has collected from the shippers and that prescribed by the Commission, or files a bond to secure the payment of the money; the third provides that the decision of the Commission shall go at once into effect, and that the courts shall not by injunction or other decree delay its enforcement. This last was the amendment under discussion.

The Constitution of the United States provides that "the judicial power of the United States shall be vested in one Supreme Court and in such inferior courts as the Congress may from time

to time ordain and establish." Congress organized a Supreme Court and District and Circuit Courts. The Supreme Court is called into existence by the Constitution; the inferior courts by Congress. Has Congress authority to limit the powers of these inferior courts, or do all the powers which belong to courts of justice, according to Anglo-Saxon usage, necessarily inhere in them under the Constitution? This is the question which the Senate debated last week, and which the country has to consider. For convenience' sake we shall designate the opposing opinions as the conservative and the radical view.

I. The Conservative View. The Constitution definitely vests the judicial power of the United States both in law and equity in certain courts to be established by the Congress. These phrases, "judicial power," "law," "equity," had at the time of the adoption of the Constitution a well-defined historical meaning—a meaning determined by the history and traditions of the Anglo-Saxon people. No authority was given to the Congress to limit the judicial power which the Constitution declared should be vested in the courts; to the Congress was given only the task of calling the courts into existence. As soon as they were created the "judicial power" was vested in them by the Constitution, and that power Congress has no power to take away, limit, or modify. In support of this contention is cited among other authorities the following language of Judge Story, of the Supreme Court, in the case of Martin vs. Hunter's lessee (1 Wheaton 304):

The language of the article [Art. III., Sec. I., of the Constitution] throughout is manifestly designed to be mandatory upon the legislature. . . "The judicial power of the United States shall be vested" (not may be vested) "in one Supreme Court and in such inferior courts as Congress may from time to time ordain and establish." . . . If, then, it is the duty of Congress to vest the judicial power of the United States, it is a duty to vest the whole judicial power: The language, if imperative as to one part, is imperative as to all. . . . But even admitting that the language of the Constitution is not mandatory and that Congress may constitutionally omit to vest the judicial power in courts of the United States, it cannot be denied that when

it is vested it may be exercised to the utmost constitutional extent.

Based upon these principles and this Supreme Court authority, Senator Spooner thus states the conservative position for which he contends:

They [the framers of the Constitution] intended by the Constitution to create, and did create, three co-ordinate and independent branches of the Government, to each of which was assigned its proper function, clothed with the power essential to their proper discharge. They intended that each should be in its sphere absolutely free from invasion by the others. They created the legislative department to enact rules of action, the executive department to administer the laws, the judicial department (the weakest of all in a way) to hold each of the others—the legislative and the executive—strictly to the limitations of the Constitution. Each was to be permanent as the Government itself, until changed by the people.

II. The Radical View. The Constitution does not define judicial power. Giving to Congress the authority to create the courts, it leaves with Congress the authority to define in detail the powers which those courts may exercise. gress has Constitutional authority to abolish the courts which it has created: but authority to destroy all the power of the courts necessarily involves authority to limit their powers. Congress frequently has thus limited the judicial power of the courts, and has been uniformly sustained by the Supreme Court in so doing. Thus by statute Congress has defined both the punishment which the courts may inflict for contempt, and the cases in which punishment may be inflicted: has limited the power to grant mandamuses to certain specified cases; has forbidden the courts to issue executions against the person in enforcement of their judgments, by the provision that "No person shall be imprisoned for debt in any State on process issuing from a court of the United States when by the laws of such State imprisonment for debt has been or shall be abolished." In these and other analogous cases the Supreme Court has affirmed the Constitutionality of the acts of Congress. Basing his argument upon these principles and these and other analogous authorities cited from the decisions of the Supreme Court, Senator Bailey answers the question whether Congress can limit the powers of the Federal courts in the following language:

That they have inherent powers in one sense is true; that is, if you create a Federal court, and do not expressly forbid it to exercise certain powers, it possesses them by virtue of its creation. Such is the power to issue an execution to enforce its judgment; such is the power to punish summarily for contempt; and yet the books are full of cases which affirm the power of Congress to prohibit this right of the court to issue execution or to punish for contempt, except according to the statute. When the Supreme Court expressly has decided that Congress can regulate the power of a Circuit Court to issue an execution, in God's name how can a lawyer contend that Congress can regulate the right of that court to issue a mere interlocutory decree?

III. Our View. The question which we have thus endeavored to define is one of far-reaching importance. If Senator Bailey is right, Congress could abolish all equity jurisprudence, the whole system of injunctions and mandamuses, could substitute for a punitive administration of justice a purely reformative system, could so curb and limit the power of the courts as to deprive the individual of a very important if not an absolutely essential safeguarding of his person and property. If Senator Spooner is right, the courts possess a power greater than Congress itself, and can neither be deprived of 'heir present powers nor invested with new powers if those which they now possess are inadequate. For if the Constitution defines by the phrases "judicial power," "law," and "equity" the powers of the courts so that Congress cannot diminish them, neither can Congress increase them. Thus the question is perhaps the most vital which has been brought before the country since it was called on to consider whether the Congress had Constitutional authority to prohibit slavery in the Territories. No opinion on this question is or can be authoritative except that of the Supreme Court of the United States. But the question is not complicated; it is one for laymen no less than for lawyers. Laymen as well as lawyers will differ in their solution of the problem. Outlook accepts the more radical view, or that of Senator Bailey, in spite of the

conceivable dangers enumerated above, chiefly for these three reasons:

1. A partial examination of the acts of Congress and the decisions of the Supreme Court convinces us that this view has been consistently held and acted upon from the foundation of the Government.

2. An examination of the language of the Constitution confirms this historic interpretation. The Constitution uses the phrases "legislative power," "executive power," "judicial power;" but it does not define either phrase. It appears to us that the term "judicial power" is used in the Constitution to distinguish it from "executive" and "legislative power," and signifies simply "the power to construe and expound the law, as distinguished from the legislative and executive functions" (Bouvier's Law Dictionary). The Congress cannot exercise that power nor vest it in the President, as it cannot exercise executive power, nor vest in the courts or the President legislative power. But while the general power to construe and expound the law is vested in the courts by the Constitution, the powers which they are to possess in order to construe and expound the law rest wholly with the people, and may from time to time be increased or diminished; and this must be done by the representatives sitting in the Congress. The Congress cannot take the judicial power from the courts, but it can determine what shall be their judicial powers.

3. The radical position is not only confirmed by the practice of the Nation and the decisions of the Supreme Court, and sustained by the language of the Constitution; it also appears to us to be in accord with sound political principles. It is not for the advantage of the Nation that the courts should be guaranteed all the powers possessed by Anglo-Saxon courts prior to 1787, nor deprived of the possibility of possessing additional pow-The Nation should not be tied hand and foot even by its own traditions, still less by those of the mother country. The people should be able to confer additional powers on the courts if such are necessary for their efficiency, and to take from the courts powers already possessed by them if they are used injuriously. History shows that from the time of Moses down the people have suffered more from unjust or unwise judges than from their own excesses. It is safer to trust the people with absolute power than to vest that power in any oligarchy—executive, legislative, or judicial. The way to prevent the destruction of the courts by Congressional action is not by making them independent of Congress, but by electing good Congressmen. is peril from the passions of an unchecked democracy; but the remedy is not the creation of a judiciary with power which can neither be increased nor diminished, but by the maintenance of a judiciary whose judicial powers are always subject to ultimate popular decree.

Whether it is wise to deprive the Federal courts of their power to grant injunctions or otherwise to stay proceedings under the decisions of the Inter-State Commerce Commission we do not here discuss. We are doubtful of the wisdom of such a measure. But we believe that Congress has authority to increase and diminish, in its discretion, the powers of the Federal courts, except those of the Supreme Court.

Maxim Gorky

Alexei Maximovitch Pyeshkoff, widely known under his writing name of "Maxim Gorky," who arrived in this country last week as a representative of the revolutionary movement in Russia, is a very interesting and from certain points of view a significant figure in contemporary Russian life. Political and economic conditions in Russia for many decades have pressed so closely upon the instincts, occupations, habits, and ideals of the people that they may be regarded as constituting in an unusual sense the vital conditions of Russian life; and for this reason Russian literature has shown very little of the ease, the play of humor, the sense of freedom, which bears fruit in the delicate touching of many kinds of art for the mere pleasure of it. intimately than any other modern literature it represents actual conditions; and as the expression of these conditions perhaps the best explanation of the Russia of to-day, seething with agitation and in the throes of revolution, is to be

found in the novels of Gogol, Dostoyevski, Turgénieff, and Tolstoy. This fiction is the outcry of the soul of Russia, repressed and stunted, but in passionate protest against the oppression which has arrested the normal development of the Russian people, checked its freedom of thought, and in a way blighted the beauty of its imagination. One of the saddest chapters in the history of the last twenty-five years in that country has been the disappearance of a group of promising young writers who, a generation ago, by the variety of their talents, their enthusiasm, and their devotion to the higher ideals of the Russian nature, seemed about to inaugurate a new movement in Russian literature. To-day many of them are dead, others are in exile, and a feeble remnant of white-haired and broken men constitute a terrible arraignment of the kind of government which, instead of freeing the genius of a people, destroys it. When Turgénieff wrote "Fathers and Sons," he awoke the conscience of the Russian people and opened its eves to the conditions of the serfs. In "On the Eve" and in various other novels he pictured the Russian idealist eloquently declaiming against the Government, but entirely lacking the willpower to right abuses or to lead a movement of liberation. Tolstoy has been driven by Russian conditions into a philosophy of religion and life profoundly interesting as the expression of a man of perfect sincerity and of great genius, but entirely unworkable as a social system. Gogol's "Dead Souls" and "The Inspector" lifted the veil from the widespread demoralization of Russian character. Dostoyevski's "Crime and Punishment" was a tragic study of some contemporary social conditions in that country. These writers, despite the sense of melancholy and the note of despair which pervades their work, disclose a certain breadth of view, and represent the great traditions of literature.

Maxim Gorky is a man of a different type of mind, the exponent of a much narrower view, the representative of a class rather than of the nation. Of humble parentage, neglected and practically abandoned in his childhood, he became a tramp, and while he was still a boy the bitterest and the most sordid side of human experience was driven into his consciousness. He scorned books; but when Dumas, Gogol, and other writers came in his way, his imagination took fire and his intellectual life began. He knew the great floating population of Russia at first hand; the men who live on the great rivers, the tramps, the outcasts, the prostituteseven the thieves: and he became their For the first time, almost, in recorder. the history of literature, the lowest types of men and women entered into art, and their characteristics were seized upon by a man of intimate knowledge and of a narrow but powerful and graphic imagination. His genius is at its best in his short stories, many of which have an astonishing vitality, vividness, and power; such a story, for instance, as "Toye" (The Trio), which describes the career of three boys whose childhood was passed in the most sordid and wretched surroundings, who had companionship with thieves, murderers, and prostitutes, and were overweighted with temperament; one passionately proud, another of a sensitive, poetic nature, and the third an embryo philosopher. The individuality of this little group is sketched with intense and almost passionate sincerity and in the realistic manner. Another little story, "Twentysix of Us and One Other," describes a group of bakers in a subterranean bakery, whose habits were hardly above those of animals, doing their work under the most noisome conditions, to whom the poetry of life is represented by an innocent Russian girl who passes in and out of the building in which they are at work, with a smile or a word of greeting for them, and becomes a kind of divinity to them. Then comes the villain in the character of a young soldier, and the men watch in an agony of apprehension, comforting one another and laying wagers on the virtue of the girl; and when finally her history mingles with the sad history of so many girls of her class, the light of day fades out for the little group of men, to whom her personality was a crevice through which the blue of heaven shone. In his longer story, "Foma Gordyeeff," Gorky drew a picture of life among the

commercial classes which holds both the characters and the readers with the relentless grip of the hardest kind of realism, brutally frank and direct.

Genius of a kind Gorky undoubtedly possesses; intimate knowledge of phases of life to which, as a rule, literature has been a stranger, is at his command. But he lacks breadth of view, a sense of the wholeness of society. He is partial, one-sided, and narrow. He lacks the religious enthusiasm of Tolstoy, the breadth of social outlook of Turgénieff; and there is behind his terrible picture of the worst social conditions none of that grasp of general laws which infuses such volumes as "Nana" and "L'Assommoir" with a terrible fascination. The sympathies of the American people have been profoundly stirred by the needs and distress of the Russian people. They are naturally in touch by instinct and by conviction with a great people struggling through mist and darkness towards a freer life. But they will wait, before accepting Gorky's interpretation of affairs or his leadership in the movements of the day, for a definition of his aims and the methods by which he would secure them. It may, however, be said with confidence that, whatever allowance charity may make for individuals, there is no considerable body of people in this country who will follow as a leader or respect as a teacher one whose teaching or whose example indicates a disregard for the sacredness of the family.

The Aftermath

Easter morning was the beginning of the world-wide disclosure of the religion of Christ to men. To us, too often, it marks the culmination of the Christian year, the end of the typical experience of the founder of our faith. The tide of devotion, steadily rising through the Lenten season, touches high-water mark in the joy of the great festival and then subsides in the regularity of the ordered services which fill the year until Advent recalls once more the figure of the Master of life. To the first believers the day of the Resurrection meant something deeper and more significant than it means to

too many of their successors to-day. It was a day of fulfillment, but it was even more a day of beginnings; it marked not the culmination but the widening of a great force in the affairs of men; not the sublime apotheosis of the greatest of Teachers, but the going forth of his spirit to the ends of the earth; not the finishing of a unique work, but the beginning of the work of that church which, despite its wanderings and divisions, is still the body of Christ.

Easter morning will always bring in the divinest of days; no other festival has so much joy in its keeping as that which commemorates the victory over death and the sudden flooding of the sorrowful world with hope and life. But Easter is much more than a refuge from fear, a sanctuary where the tears of sorrow are dried and smitten hearts calmed with faith and filled with joy; it is the starting-point for a new vigor in the running of the race; it is a new consecration to the work, a new rest and strength in the sorrows, uncertainties, and cares of life. The Disciples did not stay in the places which his reappearance had made memorable; they did not make a church of the tomb; they did not rest in the assurance of their immortality: they had come, not to the end, but to the beginning of their faith and work. What they had dimly hoped they now possessed; what the most spiritual of them faintly discerned they now understood; Easter was to them, not the culmination, but the confirmation of the great new faith which had been born in their hearts. Their questions were answered, their doubts set at rest, their night of ignorance and uncertainty turned to day; the revelation of the will of God and his purpose toward his children in the human life of the Christ was completed; their hour of service had struck, their part in the great work had been assigned, their ministry begun. From the empty tomb went forth a band of disciples indifferent to toil, ready for hardship, emancipated from the fear of death, to carry the glad tidings to the ends of the earth. For Easter is not only a great memory, it is a great hope; it is not the end but the beginning of the world-wide coming of that light of immortality which means, not simply release from fear, but the joy and courage and boundless energy of the measureless life of God in the soul of man.

Every Easter ought to bring with it a renewal and deepening of faith expressed in greater strength and a more steadfast devotion to the bringing of righteousness and peace among men. If Christ be risen from the dead, then of all men to reverse the Apostle's phrase-are those who believe most happy; and it is of the very essence of happiness that it diffuse itself. Pleasure is often selfish; happiness must always have in its heart a fervent desire to share with others that which it feels is too great to keep for itself. The modern world is full of unhappiness because it is full of unbelief; the air is charged with doubt, pessimism, and despair. To be happy in such an age as this is the first duty of every man who believes in God and his care for his children; for happiness is the state of those who know that, while all kinds of pain and sorrow may meet them on the way, they are forever safe in his keeping; and that, however black may be the clouds that hang about the world, there is nevertheless a divine purpose being worked out in the troubled life of the race. If everywhere to a few men and women there should come the victorious joy, the burning zeal, which the first Easter brought to the first disciples, the air of the world would be changed as if by magic, a new courage would invigorate all good works, a new peace fall on minds now oppressed with forebodings, a new joy kindle under the somber skies. If Christ be risen, why keep the stone before the sepulcher in which the highest hopes of the race are hidden! Men need the joy and freedom of a great renewal of faith; those who believe need a tonic in the debilitating air of the time; let them take counsel with their noblest aspirations instead of with the semi-despair of those interpreters of life who read its mysteries without the light of the Resurrection; let them rest, not in the guidance of their fellows, blind and baffled like themselves, but in his leadership who knew sorrow and pain and sin as no other has ever known, and who could say in the

presence of all the misery of the world—God is love, and ye are his children.

"The Supreme Need of the Modern Church"

The nineteenth century will be memorable for an industrial revolution which enormously increased the wealth-producing power of the civilized nations. Political economists contemplating its results agree that society is now confronted with the problem of an equitable distribution of the wealth produced by increasing power in increasing volume. The twentieth century already bids fair to effect this somehow, whether by evolution or revolution is not yet clear:

"For all the past of Time reveals A bridal dawn of thunder peals, Whenever Thought hath wedded Fact."

Those who carry distinct recollections of but a decade of illustrative events are aware of a social movement setting in throughout Christendom with a steadily swelling current. Not to speak of the portentous growth of Social Democracy under the shadow of German militarism, the gage of battle against privileged interests flung down by "Labor" in the recent British election is of closer significance to us, among whom the doctrine of municipal ownership, imported or rather re-enforced from our mother country, has lately gained surprising strength.

No more significant sign of the set and the strength of this social movement has appeared among us than the turn recently given at Yale to the Lyman Beecher Lectures on Preaching. For thirty years this lectureship has been filled by men of distinction in American and British churches. This year it was for the first time exclusively devoted to setting forth "The Social Message of the Modern Pulpit." The lecturer, Dr. Charles R. Brown, of California, possessed unusual qualifications for such a service. The First Congregational Church at Oakland, which he has served for ten years, includes in its membership of nearly fourteen hundred many representative business men of large means, and many whose capital is mostly or only in

themselves. He is also a voting member of the Central Trades Council, the executive body of the labor organizations in that city of 70,000 people, a man in whom both capitalists and laborers confide for just appreciation and competency to lead.

At the Des Moines meeting of the National Council of Congregational Churches in 1904, Dr. Brown's address upon "The Supreme Need of the Churches" to apply the social principles of the Gospel to the conditions of everyday life was noted as one of the most significant utterances of that occasion. That address constitutes the core of the eight lectures delivered at New Haven. That so staid and conservative a university as Yale brought Dr. Brown across the continent to give them, primarily, to the young men it is training to preach the Gospel, must be deemed, in view of their substance, a most noteworthy sign of a changing time.

These lectures bring an indictment against the economic system of Christendom as both unjust and inhuman, together with an appeal to the Christian conscience to humanize it according to the ideals of Jesus. The third lecture, grounded on "the story of an ancient labor movement" in the Book of Exodus, drew a close and stinging parallel between the bitter lot of the Hebrew laborers for Pharaoh and that of many of our own people whose labor contributes to splendid fortunes:

Are there not thousands of breaker boys at the mines in Pennsylvania, and of bobbin girls in the cotton-mills of the South, and of factory hands, both men and women, in all the huge manufactories, whose physical health and mental unfolding, whose spirit of hope and moral stamina, are being ruthlessly undermined by the grinding demand for large profits and good dividends, in order still further to swell the most extravagant scale of living, on the part of great numbers of the prosperous members of society, which this world has ever seen?

These are not the words of a demagogue. Neither ignorance nor class interest can be imputed to the speaker. It is not in the market-place, but before the Areopagus, that he declares: "There are Pharaohs in our counting-rooms as well as in those palaces on the Nile." Yet it is not individuals so much as the

system which breeds and binds them that he condemns. If steel-workers are discarded at forty-five, it is for the reason given by their superintendent: "The way we have to rush things now makes it necessary for us to get in a batch of men, work them out, and then get a fresh batch." If twenty thousand children under twelve are slaving in Southern cotton-mills, it is for the same unreason: "We have to compete with other mills, and keep our profits up." And so, to speak blunt truth, seed-corn is fed to hogs. Pertinently Dr. Brown asked, "What type of human being will such a process ultimately produce?" Spiritual values are at stake in the industrial struggle. "Let my people go that they may serve me "—the Voice that spake in Egypt speaks in America.

Dr. Brown's indictment of our economic system is that it is a system of unmodified self-interest, and that this ruling principle brings in, not the kingdom of heaven, but the kingdom of hell. The way out, however difficult, is plain. It is in substituting for the ideals of Pharaoh or Crœsus concerning property the ideals of Christ concerning persons. "There is a will of God about wages and hours, lands, mines, luxury, and penury," as affecting human welfare. Jesus would found the social order on the basis of human brotherhood in the service of one another as the service of the All-Father. Here Dr. Brown is as strong constructively as in the criticism preceding. His main emphasis is on the axiomatic principle of the social responsibility of the strong for the weak, and on the co-operation of trained specialists and Christian preachers as guides and inspirers of the divine task of humanizing inhuman conditions.

These lectures in book form are very likely to elicit a wider interest than any of their predecessors. Two classes of people, poles apart from each other, will regard them with more or less distrust. On one hand high and dry economists will resent what seems to them an unwarrantable intrusion of sentiment into business. George Eliot long ago turned the point of this objection in saying, "The desires of men are the molecular forces of economics."

Her meaning is obvious. What gives value to anything is the fact that some-body desires it. What nobody desires has no economic value. Economics is simply the steward who fills the orders of desire, regardless whether it is the desire of Judas Iscariot or the desire of the Good Samaritan that gives the order. But there can be no question which of these two has the right of way. So far, then, from the demand of Christian ethics upon economics being an intrusion into business, it is rather an extrusion of Satanic ethics out of business.

On the other hand are revivalists, relying solely on efforts for individual regeneration to "reach the masses" weighed down by oppressive conditions. Statistics expose the futility of this rowing with but one oar. During the first half of the nineteenth century, while the conditions of industrial life were substantially democratic, revivals of religion multiplied the churches much faster than the population grew, although their gospel was individualistic. During the second half-century, as industry gradually passed into its present oligarchic organization, this rate of increase declined, though great revivalists traversed the land. During the last decade of the century the growth of the churches just kept pace with that of the population, and since the present century began has dwindled to 77.5 per cent. of it. It is not that the individualistic type of Christianity has been less frequently or fervently preached. It has rather been proved socially unserviceable, unable to expel social injustice from an environment in which multitudes find the higher aspirations of humanity constantly baffled and starved.

Thus experience gives point to the word for the hour that was spoken at Yale:

The Hebrew Church began with an industrial deliverance. The Divine Voice spake to meet the social needs of a people in bondage. Their deliverance was a social readjustment. The Christian Church, likewise, in its beginnings was accompanied by a social reaction which found expression in a voluntary communism. A people full of the Holy Spirit endeavored to conform the industrial and social relations of men to the will of Christ. This is the supreme need of the modern Church.

The Spectator

"It is the needless waste of the modern hotel magnificent rather than its ostentatious luxury that in particular disgusts me," said the Spectator's friend who had been spending a week at one of New York's expensive hostelries. "If one wants marble-pillared entrance, extravagant decoration, bizarre coloring, a medley of effects from white and gold to Circassian walnut, a sickening surfeit of the ornate unrelieved by one small oasis of simplicity to rest the eye, with all the machinery of 'complete comfort' (so called) which goes with the palace idea of an inn, why, he gets what he pays for. But when it comes to a like lavishness of the menu, the practical necessity of ordering more than one wants or can eat without gorging, to get a part of what is wanted, then my old-fashioned conscience revolts; for it is simply waste; and while luxury may be, and is, justified-since justifiable luxury is so wide a variable, according to condition, as to elude definition for others-waste cannot be justified. The cardinal principle of modern business (and these days we all think in terms of business) is to minimize waste, to 'utilize the by-prod-Yet in one great feature characterizing the life of a people devoted to business as we Americans are—our hotel system, of whose superiority so much is made—waste in food is accepted as a matter of course."

The Spectator, who heartily indorsed his friend's protest as embodying certain hazy notions and distinctions of his own. recalled it not long after while listening to the experience of another friend, a generous man of inherited wealth, but a man whose soul abhors waste. Perhaps in him such natural abhorrence has been intensified by the fact that his specialty as a university professor is sociology. "I took my family to New York recently for a week's stay at the Blank," he said. naming a leading hotel; "and, having heard so much of the cost of living there. I thought I would try an experiment. I decided that we should live as nearly as possible as we did at home, and, by keeping exact figures of the cost of each

meal, find at the week's end the average cost for each per day. There were five in our party, my wife, the governess, the two children, who are twelve and fourteen, and myself—practically all adults. This, of course, enabled me to take advantage of a single or double portion of anything, as vegetables, where it would suffice for the party. I did not stint any one, but did not order the most expensive dishes. What did I order? Well, we usually had fruit, a cereal, and eggs and coffee for breakfast; cold meat and salad, perhaps, with fruit, for lunch; soup, a roast, say, and two vegetables, with salad, dessert, coffee, and a bottle of claret for the older ones, for dinner. included the claret and the usual fees, and found that the average cost for each of us was \$2.65 a day, at what is reputed to be one of the most expensive hotels in New York. Had I been a little less careful in ordering just enough, and had I ordered more of the unusual things, taking the license one is apt to take at a hotel, that average cost might easily have been nearer five dollars a day. experiment gives me a line on what the waste of hotel living is, at least for transient patrons."

One such hotel in New York "serves from four thousand to six thousand meals daily." This was the statement of its manager when interviewed recently on the remarkable expansion of the hotel business, due to an abnormal prosperity, as shown by what the reporter calls "the recordbreaking demand for high-priced food supplies." Now, it happens that the Spectator has been shown through the pantries and the kitchen of this particular hotela most reassuring custom, by the way, to prove that the process of wholesale cooking may be so sanitary as actually to give confidence, even zest, to appetite. But what most struck the Spectator was, not the perfect cleanliness everywhere, which he of course expected, but the crematory to consume everything that left any table, on any plate or platter. No matter how little anything had been touched, though even more than half a sirloin steak, for example, had remained on the platter just as it came from the kitchen, it was incinerated with the

unusable débris. What such palatable leavings of food would total in a hotel conducted regardless of waste, and serving from four thousand to six thousand meals daily, the Spectator does not venture to guess. But here certainly, as it seems to him, is a by-product of the hotel business to be utilized for those who need "just food." The Spectator offers this suggestion modestly, appreciating that a seemingly simple plan may often involve difficulties that would make it practically valueless.

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Extravagance and waste are associated in popular thought with irresponsible wealth, usually speculative or inherited. Few appreciate how largely these characterize the less fortunate, even the poor. The Spectator has, in this connection, more than once recalled the talk he had with the head of the Organized Charities in a New England manufacturing city. The topic was the high cost of living there, especially the price of meat. "But our butchers say," explained the local authority, "that they cannot sell their poorer cuts of meat to any but their richer customers. They are the only ones who know how to make use of such cuts, or care to try to." There was some complaint at the time that the rate of wages paid, though higher than in most manufacturing cities, was insufficient because of the exceptional cost of living. To one operative with whom he talked the Spectator instanced the popular demand for only the best cuts of meat as an extravagance, even waste, when with a little care and painstaking cheaper cuts could be made equally palatable and nutritious. "But," was the reply, "we ought to get wages enough so that our wives need not have to fuss to make poor meat taste good." For this point of view—that having the best is a social right, and that being obliged to substitute something cheaper, even if satisfactory, is a social wrong—there is, the Spectator has found, no argument but to change the point of view by indirect education. This, he believes, is being slowly but surely accomplished through the now general instruction in scientific cooking.

The Man with the Muck-Rake

By Theodore Roosevelt

An address delivered by the President of the United States at the laying of the corner-stone of the Office Building of the House of Representatives, April 14, 1906, and printed by The Outlook from an authorized copy and by special arrangement

VER a century ago Washington laid the corner-stone of the Capitol in what was then little more than a tract of wooded wilderness here beside the Potomac. We now find it necessary to provide by great additional buildings for the business of the Govern-This growth in the need for the housing of the Government is but a proof and example of the way in which the Nation has grown and the sphere of action of the National Government has We now administer the affairs of a Nation in which the extraordinary growth of population has been outstripped by the growth of wealth and the growth in complex interests. The material problems that face us to-day are not such as they were in Washington's time, but the underlying facts of human nature are the same now as they were Under altered external form we war with the same tendencies toward evil that were evident in Washington's time, and are helped by the same tendencies for good. It is about some of these that I wish to say a word to-day.

In Bunyan's "Pilgrim's Progress" you may recall the description of the Man with the Muck-rake, the man who could look no way but downward, with the muck-rake in his hand; who was offered a celestial crown for his muck-rake, but who would neither look up nor regard the crown he was offered, but continued to rake to himself the filth of the floor.

In "Pilgrim's Progress" the Man with the Muck-rake is set forth as the example of him whose vision is fixed on carnal instead of on spiritual things. Yet he also typifies the man who in this life consistently refuses to see aught that is lofty, and fixes his eves with solemn intentness only on that which is vile and debasing. Now, it is very necessary that we should not flinch from seeing what is vile and debasing. There is filth on the floor, and it must be scraped up with the muck-rake; and there are times and places where this service is the most needed of all the services that can be performed. But the man who never does anything else, who never thinks or speaks or writes save of his feats with the muckrake, speedily becomes, not a help to society, not an incitement to good, but one of the most potent forces for evil.

There are, in the body politic, economic and social, many and grave evils, and there is urgent necessity for the sternest war upon them. There should be relentless exposure of and attack upon every evil man, whether politician or business man, every evil practice, whether in politics, in business, or in social life. I hail as a benefactor every writer or speaker, every man who, on the platform, or in book, magazine, or newspaper, with merciless severity makes such attack, provided always that he in his turn remembers that the attack is of use only if it is absolutely truthful. The liar is no whit better than the thief, and if his mendacity takes the form of slander, he may be worse than most thieves. It puts a premium upon knavery untruthfully to attack an honest man, or even with hysterical exaggeration to assail a bad man with untruth. epidemic of indiscriminate assault upon character does not good, but very great The soul of every scoundrel is gladdened whenever an honest man is

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assailed, or even when a scoundrel is untruthfully assailed.

Now, it is easy to twist out of shape what I have just said, easy to affect to misunderstand it, and, if it is slurred over in repetition, not difficult really to misunderstand it. Some persons are sincerely incapable of understanding that to denounce mud-slinging does not mean the indorsement of whitewashing; and both the interested individuals who need whitewashing, and those others who practice mud-slinging, like to encourage such confusion of ideas. One of the chief counts against those who make indiscriminate assault upon men in business or men in public life is that they invite a reaction which is sure to tell powerfully in favor of the unscrupulous scoundrel who really ought to be attacked, who ought to be exposed, who ought, if possible, to be put in the penitentiary. If Aristides is praised overmuch as just, people get tired of hearing it; and overcensure of the unjust finally and from similar reasons results in their

Any excess is almost sure to invite a reaction; and, unfortunately, the reaction, instead of taking the form of punishment of those guilty of the excess, is very apt to take the form either of punishment of the unoffending or of giving immunity, and even strength, to offenders. The effort to make financial or political profit out of the destruction of character can only result in public calamity. Gross and reckless assaults on character, whether on the stump or in newspaper, magazine, or book, create a morbid and vicious public sentiment, and at the same time act as a profound deterrent to able men of normal sensitiveness and tend to prevent them from entering the public service at any price. As an instance in point, I may mention that one serious difficulty encountered in getting the right type of men to dig the Panama Canal is the certainty that they will be exposed, both without, and, I am sorry to say, sometimes within, Congress, to utterly reckless assaults on their character and capacity.

At the risk of repetition let me say again that my plea is, not for immunity to but for the most unsparing exposure

of the politician who betrays his trust, of the big business man who makes or spends his fortune in illegitimate or corrupt ways. There should be a resolute effort to hunt every such man out of the position he has disgraced. Expose the crime, and hunt down the criminal; but remember that even in the case of crime, if it is attacked in sensational, lurid, and untruthful fashion, the attack may do more damage to the public mind than the crime itself. It is because I feel that there should be no rest in the endless war against the forces of evil that I ask that the war be conducted with sanity as well as with resolution. The men with the muck-rakes are often indispensable to the well-being of society; but only if they know when to stop raking the muck, and to look upward to the celestial crown above them, to the crown of worthy endeavor. There are beautiful things above and round about them; and if they gradually grow to feel that the whole world is nothing but muck, their power of usefulness is gone. If the whole picture is painted black, there remains no hue whereby to single out the rascals for distinction from their fellows. Such painting finally induces a kind of moral color-blindness; and people affected by it come to the conclusion that no man is really black, and no man really white, but they are all gray. In other words, they neither believe in the truth of the attack, nor in the honesty of the man who is attacked; they grow as suspicious of the accusation as of the offense; it becomes wellnigh hopeless to stir them either to wrath against wrong-doing or to enthusiasm for what is right; and such a mental attitude in the public gives hope to every knave, and is the despair of honest

To assail the great and admitted evils of our political and industrial life with such crude and sweeping generalizations as to include decent men in the general condemnation means the searing of the public conscience. There results a general attitude either of cynical belief in and indifference to public corruption or else of a distrustful inability to discriminate between the good and the bad. Either attitude is fraught with untold

damage to the country as a whole. fool who has not sense to discriminate between what is good and what is bad is well-nigh as dangerous as the man who does discriminate and yet chooses the bad. There is nothing more distressing to every good patriot, to every good American, than the hard, scoffing spirit which treats the allegation of dishonesty in a public man as a cause for laughter. Such laughter is worse than the crackling of thorns under a pot, for it denotes not merely the vacant mind, but the heart in which high emotions have been choked before they could grow to fruition.

There is any amount of good in the world, and there never was a time when loftier and more disinterested work for the betterment of mankind was being done than now. The forces that tend for evil are great and terrible, but the forces of truth and love and courage and honesty and generosity and sympathy are also stronger than ever before. It is a foolish and timid, no less than a wicked thing, to blink the fact that the forces of evil are strong, but it is even worse to fail to take into account the strength of the forces that tell for good. Hysterical sensationalism is the very poorest weapon wherewith to fight for lasting righteousness. The men who, with stern sobriety and truth, assail the many evils of our time, whether in the public press, or in magazines, or in books, are the leaders and allies of all engaged in the work for social and political betterment. But if they give good reason for distrust of what they say, if they chill the ardor of those who demand truth as a primary virtue, they thereby betray the good cause, and play into the hands of the very men against whom they are nominally at war.

In his "Ecclesiastical Polity" that fine old Elizabethan divine, Bishop Hooker, wrote:

He that goeth about to persuade a multitude that they are not so well governed as they ought to be shall never want attentive and favorable hearers, because they know the manifold defects whereunto every kind of regimen is subject; but the secret lets and difficulties, which in public proceedings are innumerable and inevitable, they have not ordinarily the judgment to consider.

This truth should be kept constantly in mind by every free people desiring to preserve the sanity and poise indispensable to the permanent success of selfgovernment. Yet, on the other hand, it is vital not to permit this spirit of sanity and self-command to degenerate into mere mental stagnation. Bad though a state of hysterical excitement is, and evil though the results are which come from the violent oscillations such excitement invariably produces, yet a sodden acquiescence in evil is even worse. At this moment we are passing through a period of great unrest-social, political, and industrial unrest. It is of the utmost importance for our future that this should prove to be not the unrest of mere rebelliousness against life, of mere dissatisfaction with the inevitable inequality of conditions, but the unrest of a resolute and eager ambition to secure the betterment of the individual and the Nation. So far as this movement of agitation throughout the country takes the form of a fierce discontent with evil, of a determination to punish the authors of evil, whether in industry or politics, the feeling is to be heartily welcomed as a sign of healthy life.

If, on the other hand, it turns into a mere crusade of appetite against appetite, of a contest between the brutal greed of the "have-nots" and the brutal greed of the "haves," then it has no significance for good, but only for evil. If it seeks to establish a line of cleavage, not along the line which divides good men from bad, but along that other line, running at right angles thereto, which divides those who are well off from those who are less well off, then it will be fraught with immeasurable harm to the body politic.

We can no more and no less afford to condone evil in the man of capital than evil in the man of no capital. The wealthy man who exults because there is a failure of justice in the effort to bring some trust magnate to an account for his misdeeds is as bad as, and no worse than, the so-called labor leader who clamorously strives to excite a foul class feeling on behalf of some other labor leader who is implicated in murder. One attitude is as bad as the other, and no worse; in

each case the accused is entitled to exact justice; and in neither case is there need of action by others which can be construed into an expression of sympathy for crime.

It is a prime necessity that if the present unrest is to result in permanent good the emotion shall be translated into action, and that the action shall be marked by honesty, sanity, and self-restraint. There is mighty little good in a mere spasm of reform. The reform that counts is that which comes through steady, continuous growth; violent emotionalism leads to exhaustion.

It is important to this people to grapple with the problems connected with the amassing of enormous fortunes, and the use of those fortunes, both corporate and individual, in business. We should discriminate in the sharpest way between fortunes well won and fortunes ill won; between those gained as an incident to performing great services to the community as a whole, and those gained in evil fashion by keeping just within the limits of mere law-honesty. Of course no amount of charity in spending such fortunes in any way compensates for misconduct in making them. As a matter of personal conviction, and without pretending to discuss the details or formulate the system, I feel that we shall ultimately have to consider the adoption of some such scheme as that of a progressive tax on all fortunes, beyond a certain amount, either given in life or devised or bequeathed upon death to any individual—a tax so framed as to put it out of the power of the owner of one of these enormous fortunes to hand on more than a certain amount to any one individual; the tax, of course, to be imposed by the National and not the State Government. Such taxation should, of course, be aimed merely at the inheritance or transmission in their entirety of those fortunes swollen beyond all healthy

Again, the National Government must in some form exercise supervision over corporations engaged in inter-State business—and all large corporations are engaged in inter-State business—whether by license or otherwise, so as to permit us to deal with the far-reaching evils of

over-capitalization. This year we are making a beginning in the direction of serious effort to settle some of these economic problems by the railway rate legislation. Such legislation, if so framed. as I am sure it will be, as to secure definite and tangible results, will amount to something of itself; and it will amount to a great deal more in so far as it is taken as a first step in the direction of a policy of superintendence and control over corporate wealth engaged in inter-State commerce, this superintendence and control not to be exercised in a spirit of malevolence toward the men who have created the wealth, but with the firm purpose both to do justice to them and to see that they in their turn do justice to the public at large.

The first requisite in the public servants who are to deal in this shape with corporations, whether as legislators or as executives, is honesty. This honesty can be no respecter of persons. There can be no such thing as unilateral honesty. The danger is not really from corrupt corporations; it springs from the corruption itself, whether exercised

for or against corporations.

The eighth commandment reads, "Thou shalt not steal." It does not read, "Thou shalt not steal from the rich man." It does not read, "Thou shalt not steal from the poor man." It reads simply and plainly, "Thou shalt not steal." No good whatever will come from that warped and mock morality which denounces the misdeeds of men of wealth and forgets the misdeeds practiced at their expense; which denounces bribery, but blinds itself to blackmail; which foams with rage if a corporation secures favors by improper methods, and merely leers with hideous mirth if the corporation is itself wronged. only public servant who can be trusted honestly to protect the rights of the public against the misdeed of a corporation is that public man who will just as surely protect the corporation itself from wrongful aggression. If a public man is willing to yield to popular clamor and do wrong to the men of wealth or to rich corporations, it may be set down as certain that if the opportunity comes he will secretly and furtively do wrong to the public in the interest of a corpora-

But, in addition to honesty, we need sanity. No honesty will make a public man useful if that man is timid or foolish, if he is a hot-headed zealot or an impracticable visionary. As we strive for reform we find that it is not at all merely the case of a long uphill pull. On the contrary, there is almost as much of breeching work as of collar work; to depend only on traces means that there will soon be a runaway and an upset. The men of wealth who to-day are trying to prevent the regulation and control of their business in the interest of the public by the proper Government authorities will not succeed, in my judgment, in checking the progress of the movement. But if they did succeed they would find that they had sown the wind and would surely reap the whirlwind, for they would ultimately provoke the violent excesses which accompany a reform coming by convulsion instead of by steady and natural growth.

On the other hand, the wild preachers of unrest and discontent, the wild agitators against the entire existing order, the men who act crookedly, whether because of sinister design or from mere puzzle-headedness, the men who preach destruction without proposing any substitute for what they intend to destroy, or who propose a substitute which would be far

worse than the existing evils—all these men are the most dangerous opponents of real reform. If they get their way, they will lead the people into a deeper pit than any into which they could fall under the present system. If they fail to get their way, they will still do incalculable harm by provoking the kind of reaction which, in its revolt against the senseless evil of their teaching, would enthrone more securely than ever the very evils which their misguided followers believe they are attacking.

More important than aught else is the development of the broadest sympathy of man for man. The welfare of the wageworker, the welfare of the tiller of the soil, upon these depend the welfare of the entire country; their good is not to be sought in pulling down others; but their good must be the prime object of all our statesmanship.

Materially we must strive to secure a broader economic opportunity for all men, so that each shall have a better chance to show the stuff of which he is made. Spiritually and ethically we must strive to bring about clean living and right thinking. We appreciate that the things of the body are important; but we appreciate also that the things of the soul are immeasurably more important. The foundation stone of National life is, and ever must be, the high individual character of the average citizen.



SIDNEY LANIER

BY JOHN WILBER JENKINS

He loved his art and freely spent himself, Counting no cost, nor measuring his days; Not turned aside by misinterpreters Nor halted for the sweet incense of praise.

But, even amid the darkness, his fair face.

Ever turned eager toward the eternal light,

He saw the bright beams of the coming day

Far through the blackness of th' enshrouding night.

Wounded and fallen, still he struggled on, Brave-hearted, valiant to his latest breath: With cypress mourners came; but, laurel-crowned, They found him smiling in the arms of Death.

A TON OF ANTHRACITE

BY FRANK JULIAN WARNE

N the progress of corporate control over the production and distribution of anthracite coal it has come about that the consumer of domestic sizes residing within a radius of one hundred and fifty or two hundred miles of the hard-coal fields of northeastern Pennsylvania pays \$6.75 a ton for the prepared These consumers are principally householders, and as the annual amount used by the average family is estimated to be between fifteen and twenty tons, the yearly charge to each is about \$125, a considerable item in the total cost of living to most families. This fuel is used both for cooking and heating purposes, and naturally a larger amount for the latter purpose is consumed during unusually severe winters. The consumption for heating purposes is confined to about six months of the year-from October to April-while its use in cooking is fairly uniform throughout the twelve months.

Pennsylvania, New York, and New Jersey consume the greater proportion of the total shipments from the region of production, these three States receiving about sixty-five per cent. of the total, while approximately fifteen per cent. goes to New England points and some twelve per cent. to Middle Western States. New York City and near-by points consume annually more than nine million long tons, Philadelphia about four million, and Boston two million long tons. total annual production is more than sixty-five million long tons, the shipments from the region exceeding fiftyeight million tons. This is divided between domestic and steam sizes, so called because the former is used largely in the home and the latter in industries for steam purposes. The shipments of domestic sizes exceed thirty-six million tons, and of steam sizes twenty-two million tons, the relative proportion of each to the total shipments being sixtytwo and thirty-eight per cent. respectively.

In this brief discussion of the elements of cost entering into the price of anthracite with the view of indicating the shares in the consumer's \$6.75 which go to the various agents engaged in the mining, transporting, and selling of hard coal, it is possible to touch upon only the more important factors. This is the price paid per ton for only the domestic sizes. In addition to these, which include grate, egg, stove, and chestnut, and which are largely confined to use in stoves, furnaces, and ranges, the anthracite industry produces five other sizes, with different prices and having different These latter include lump coal, which is marketed in sizes as it comes out of the mine, and pea, buckwheat, rice, and barley, the latter being generally designated as steam sizes, and principally used in the industries for steam purposes.

Under normal conditions the householder, in New York City for example, pays \$6.75 for a ton of the domestic sizes delivered in the cellar. the short ton of 2,000 pounds. A long ton of 2,240 pounds costs the retail dealer five dollars, the difference in weight between the ton he buys and the ton he sells usually being counted by the retail dealer as compensation to him for the quantity lost in the receipt and delivery of the coal. This \$5 is the price per long ton to the retail dealer at the railroad company's delivery point at tidewater, to which amount should be added fifteen cents per ton for boat freight and fifteen cents for discharging, making a ton of domestic sizes delivered in the retail dealer's yard cost \$5.30. rule, it costs the retail dealer twenty-five cents a ton for the labor employed to place a ton of coal in the consumer's cellar, and out of the \$1.20 gross profit per ton remaining he has to meet the cost of conducting his business, such as rent, salaries, wages, interest on capital invested, expenses for horses and wagons, office expenses, bad debts, and the score

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and one items entering into the conduct of the retail dealer's business. As a general statement, the retail dealer makes from twenty-five to fifty cents a ton on the coal he sells.

If society did away with the retail dealer, and secured coal direct from the railroad carrying and coal-mining corporation, it could save to the consumer from twenty-five to fifty cents on every ton of the domestic sizes consumed, provided the corporation was made to be content with its present earnings, and was not permitted to take to itself also the retail dealer's present net profit. The industry at one time in the distribution of the product supported middlemen—that is, a class of commission dealers performing a service in distribution between the producing companies and the retail dealer—but several years ago this class of distributers was abolished by the coal-producing companies, who now sell their product direct to the retail dealer, thus saving to themselves the middleman's profit or commission.

Out of the five dollars which the retail dealer pays for a ton of the domestic sizes, \$1.60 goes to the railroad company in freight rates for transporting the commodity from the mines in northeastern Pennsylvania to New York, a distance of about one hundred and fifty miles. The writer is aware of the difficulties encountered by one who would endeavor to determine the exact or even approximate cost of transporting a particular commodity over a railroad system. Ordinarily, and in the case of most commodities which are transported along with miscellaneous freight, it is practically impossible to determine accurately the cost of transporting any one article of commerce. But with anthracite coal the difficulties are not so great as with most commodities, for it is transported in entire trains by itself, and, in consequence, every item in the cost of transportation does not have to be separated and allotted among a hundred and more articles. It is true that if the carrying company desires to make the cost of transporting this commodity appear small or large, it would not be difficult for its officials to increase or decrease the cost elements by such percentages as would appear perhaps plausible, but which, nevertheless, would not be fair or just to the consumer of coal.

But this question of freight rates for the transportation of anthracite coal has already been passed upon by the Inter-State Commerce Commission, a tribunal which may be justly regarded as aiming to secure the common good. When the contest between the anthracite-carrying railroads and the "independent" operators was at its height, a decade and more ago, the exactions of the transportation companies were a cause of bitter complaint, and to secure redress against the many forms of injustice then practiced by the railroads, one of these "independent" companies, Coxe Brothers & Co., made formal complaint against the high freight rates. In consequence, the Inter-State Commerce Commission made an exhaustive inquiry into the transportation charges on anthracite coal by the Lehigh Valley Railroad. Without going into the details of this very interesting case, it is sufficient for our present purpose to know that this Federal body handed down a decision in which the rate the railway company was to charge for carrying a ton of anthracite coal to the Eastern markets was fixed at the maximum sum of \$1.40. This rate, the Commission said, gave to the transportation company a profit of sixty per cent, above the amount required to pay operating expenses for coal carriage, which latter the Commission found to be eighty-five cents a ton. This \$1.40 a ton was the maximum charge the company was to levy, the Commission intimating that even this sum might be too high, and if after trial this was found to be the case, the Commission would not hesitate to require further reductions. This decision was handed down before the Supreme Court ruled that the Commission could condemn an existing rate, but had not the authority to name a new rate. present rate, as already stated, is \$1.60. It is plain that if the Commission's rate was made effective so as to benefit the consumer of anthracite, the price of domestic sizes could be reduced at least twenty cents a ton.

After the retail dealer and the railroad

company have been satisfied for the services each performs in distributing the ton to the householder, the consumer's \$6.75 has been reduced to \$3.40. This last-mentioned sum is the price of a ton of domestic size at the mine. It is not possible here to trace out in detail all the elements entering into the coal company's price at the mine of \$3.40, nor is it possible to discuss the more important elements to the extent their importance deserves. I shall have to content myself with a mere enumeration of some of these elements.

The cost of mining a ton of all sizes, steam as well as domestic, ranges all the way from \$1 to as high as \$2.25. matter of fact, the cost of mining is not the same at any two collieries, as the elements entering into determining this cost varies in different mines. In some, for example, the cost of timbering the working places and gangways may be quite an item, and in other mines no part or very little of the expense of min-The same is true of keeping water out of the mines, in some it being drained off naturally at little expense, while in others it has to be pumped out at heavy Owing to impurities in the seam in some mines, the cost of preparing coal for the market may be quite an item of expense, while in other seams the coal is so good and free from impurities as to make the cost of separating them of small consequence.

The most important element entering into the cost of mining is the wages of the employees, which average about \$1.50 on every ton mined. This does not mean that the miner receives \$1.50 for each ton of coal he sends out of the mine, but that the total wages paid to all of the twenty-five and more classes of workers in and about the colliery, distributed proportionately among the tons produced, resolves itself into a charge of \$1.50 for the labor cost on each ton. In addition to this labor cost of mining, the cost of materials has a claim of about forty cents upon the coal company's \$3.40.

Then, again, the coal company, as a rule, but not always, may have to meet the claim of the owner of the land in the form of royalty on every ton mined.

This element in the cost of mining differs on the different sizes, ranging all the way from eighteen cents a ton on coal reclaimed from the culm banks to thirtyfour cents on freshly mined coal. royalty charge is also lowest on the steam sizes. This charge is usually based upon the selling price of coal, readjustments being made, in cases, at intervals of five years. Where the coal-mining company owns the land outright, the payment of royalty to itself is merely a system of bookkeeping which has the effect of making the book cost of coal-mining appear higher than the actual cost. addition to the charges for labor, materials, and royalty, the coal company has to meet interest charges on the capital invested, wages of superintendents, land depreciation charges, and other channels of expenditure incident to the conduct of such great business enterprises.

We have traced all the more important elements entering into the \$6.75 which the consumer pays for a ton of the domestic sizes of anthracite coal. The retail dealer receives \$1.75, the railroad company \$1.60, and the coal-mining company \$3.40, the latter redistributing approximately \$1.50 to the mine workers and an average of thirty cents to the landowner.

Objection may be made to this treatment of the cost elements entering into a ton of anthracite because no account has been taken of the price reduction which usually goes into effect in April of each year, under which the domestic sizes are sold during that month for \$6.25 a ton, with an increase of ten cents a ton each month until the regular price of \$6.75 is restored in September. This is an average reduction for the five months of thirty cents a ton. reduction in price to the consumer about covers the cost to the railroad company for storing the coal during the summer months if it is not taken by the lower price inducement. The seasonable conditions affecting the consumption of hard coal make it to the advantage of the operator to shift the channel of expenditure for storage during the summer months to the consumer's cellar, and the spring reduction in price may be regarded simply as a transaction by which

the operator pays the consumer an average of thirty cents a ton for making use of the consumer's cellar during the summer instead of paying storage charges elsewhere.

It is not the purpose of the writer to claim that any one or all of these charges of the different agents engaged in the production and distribution of anthracite coal is or are excessive. But when it is remembered that, in addition to being what is called a natural monopoly, the system of corporate organization by which anthracite production and distribution are controlled enables the managers of capital in charge of this industry to exact the highest possible monopoly price, it is easily to be seen that, under circumstances which would compel these managers to be content with a less return and a more just compensation upon capital actually invested, the price of anthracite to the consumer would not be so high as \$6.75.

The question as to the future increase in the price of anthracite is one of the greatest importance to the consumer. Competition between producers, which until recent years has been depended upon to prevent unduly and unfair high prices, has lost its force through the system of corporate organization which to-day has secured an absolute monopoly upon not only the present output but upon the entire future supply of this Nor can the competition of bituminous coal be relied upon to safeguard the consumer of anthracite from extortionate monopoly prices. This competition, while effective in keeping down the price of the small sizes of anthracite consumed in the different industries, is of little practical value to the consumer mental investigation an understanding as to the actual capital invested, and refusing longer to pay charges on idle capital of domestic sizes. The latter is confronted by a monopoly which, judging from experience, will exact a monopoly Under the modern capitalistic régime, which does not aim to secure to labor a fair wage, to capital a fair return, and to the consumer a fair price, but which, on the contrary, is directed solely towards obtaining the maximum return possible to capital regardless of the interest of the other parties to production, distribution, and consumption, no consideration of the interest of the consumer can be expected. The experience of the anthracite mine workers the past six years indicates clearly that those in control of capital will accord to labor only so much wages as organized labor can compel it to give. It is also clear that when the power of organized labor is exerted in behalf of the employees aiding in production, then capital yields a fairer return to labor.

The same is true of the consumer, whose necessities give to the anthracite product the larger part of its value. long as the consumers are defenseless through the absence of means or organization to make effective their just claims, iust so long will capital take to itself in high prices for fuel what should properly and justly go to the consumer. It is safe to say that if the consumers of anthracite were sufficiently organized to make effective a demand for their rights, through a refusal, for example, to use the commodity unless the price was reduced. it would not be long before the managers of capital would content themselves with a less and a more just return, through a reduction in the price of anthracite. Or if the consumer exercised the power he possesses by securing through a Governin coal lands held for future use, it is also safe to conclude that the price of anthracite would be reduced.

INTERVIEW WITH A BILLIONAIRE

BY A MEMBER OF THE SETTLEMENT FOR THE NEGLECTED RICH'

SOME of our East Side settlements, established among the neglected poor, are studying the causes of poverty and how to abate it. At Half-Way House, the Settlement for the Neglected Rich, we are studying, on the contrary, the sources of wealth and how to promote it. We are trying to find out where some people get their wealth, how it is invested, and what they are doing with it.

Fifty years ago a man in the city of New York worth \$200,000 was considered rich. Then came the army of millionaires. After they had stormed the city and captured its standards of value a man whose wealth could be quoted in less than seven figures was considered poor. And now the only rich man in New York is the billionaire.

Do you know what a billion dollars means? It means, if invested at five per cent., an income of \$136,986.30 a day for every day in the year!

One of our most active workers at the Half-Way Settlement is a billionaire. He is interested in our aims and ideals. That is why he is willing to grant me an interview. As he shuns publicity, I withhold his name.

"Is it true," I said, "as currently reported, that you have made the greater part of your wealth out of your holdings of Equitable and Mutual Life stock?"

"That is exactly true," he answered, "and I have never been more glad to acknowledge it than at the present time. Only, for Heaven's sake, do not begin these words with capital letters. If these words 'equitable' and 'mutual' and 'life' are to be restored to their true and beautiful significance, they must be decapitalized, which would be equivalent in some cases to decapitalizing the stockholders. I have, indeed, made my wealth out of the process of shareholding, and very largely out of my relations

1 See "A Settlement for the Neglected Rich" in The Outlook for March 3 last.—THE EDITORS.

with other equitable and mutual shareholders, but you cannot understand this unless you understand my method of bookkeeping."

"What is the peculiarity of your book-

keeping?" I asked.

"It is a system of my own; it is algebraic rather than arithmetical in its method. It deals with equations and proportions rather than with fixed quantities. The ordinary bookkeeping is simply a process of addition and subtraction. It is good enough, as far as it goes, to measure values in a crude way. but it would not answer my purpose. My bookkeeping bears the same relation to the market value of property that idealism does to materialism in philosophy or art. The market value of property is often but a crude caricature of the actual value. The faded book-mark my mother gave me would not be, in the conventional bookkeeping, an asset at all; in my bookkeeping it figures high. There are no values so genuine as those that are purely sentimental, for sentiment constitutes a large part of the value of life.

"The trouble with the ordinary book-keeping," continued the billionaire, "is that it deals almost entirely with nominal values, only incidentally with real ones. The ordinary bookkeeping expresses value in symbols of money, but money is only a certificate of wealth, and must not be confounded with the real thing. It is a peculiarity of the dividends which I receive on my stock that they are paid, not in certificates of value, but in actual wealth itself.

"Ask many men how much they are worth, and they will count their stocks and bonds, which simply show what their property would bring in the market. These are only nominal or potential forms of wealth, and must not be mistaken for the real thing. There are people who prefer to get rich in this way. They have a certain environment of

comfort and luxury, but beyond this their wealth is largely a matter of book-keeping. They have mines which they have never worked, railroads upon which they have never ridden, horses which they do not drive or ride, books that they do not read. It is undigested wealth. Then there are the misers who hoard their certificates. That is what I call stagnant wealth; it does not circulate in the community nor in their own lives.

"As to my method of bookkeeping," said the billionaire, "you can form a better idea of it if you will step into my private office." Here I counted five large ledgers. "These," he said, "are my stock ledgers."

He took down one. It was entitled "Inherited Stock."

"You will see," said the billionaire, "that a large part of my wealth was inherited. Some of it has been in the family for centuries. The original deeds have been lost. Not exactly, either. The original deeds, I suppose, have really been preserved, but the doers have been dead so long that their names have not been recorded; and it would be difficult to say in many cases to which one of my one hundred thousand grandfathers I am indebted for some of these special bequests. My little boy has among his playthings a number of blocks which he uses for building purposes. On each of the cubes there is a letter. Now, it is easy to tell where the blocks came from, for his aunt bought them at a toy store; but to tell where the letters came from is a different task. They are a part of our family symbols. You will not find a Chinaman or an African or an Indian with just these things in his household stock. They came down through our family branch. They are of enormous value, and it was no fool that invented them; but it is almost as difficult to tell how we got them as to tell how our ancestors came to walk on their hind legs instead of on all fours."

One section of the book was entitled "Interest-Bearing Stock."

Under this head I found a long series of entries, among which were Marathon, the Parthenon, the Hermes of Praxiteles, the Greek Drama, the Coliseum at Rome, St. Peter's, the Cologne Cathedral, the Louvre, the British Museum, the Mayflower, Bunker Hill Monument, and a great number of other items, followed by algebraic symbols.

"Do you mean to say," I asked, "that you are drawing dividends from all this stock?"

"Certainly. Why shouldn't I?"

"But how do you establish your ownership?"

"Nothing is easier if you make the proper distinction between exclusive ownership and shareholding. People would rightly set me down as insane if I claimed exclusive ownership in any of these things, and there would be a great protest from all the legitimate heirs; but I should certainly be insane if I surrendered any of my rights as a shareholder. There is not a civilized court in the world that would not sustain my claim. My dividends from this stock of inherited wealth are as certain as any dividends in the world. They are 'gilt-edged.' might be called 'dividends of civilization.' They are not paid in cash, but in something better-in enjoyment, in sentiment, in knowledge, in beauty.

"One essential element of wealth many people have not discovered—that is, that we can share the better part of our wealth with others without becoming poorer ourselves, and that we may share the wealth of others without impoverishing them. It is easily explicable when we give up the idea that wealth is absolute or exclusive possession, but simply an unselfish form of shareholding.

"My inherited wealth," said the billionaire, "is not something which separates me from my fellow-men, but something which links me to them. I have never understood why wealth should make men exclusive. All true wealth radiates, is centrifugal, distributive. Under the conventional view of inherited wealth the fewer heirs the better; but under the true view the more heirs the more people are enriched, and therefore the more is wealth multiplied."

I asked my friend what was the meaning of the algebraic symbols in the stock ledger.

"Oh, that is a peculiarity of my book-keeping; it would puzzle them at the

clearing-house, but I understand it myself. It is impossible to express or even to suggest in arithmetic, especially with the dollar sign before it, the value of the Parthenon, or the Sistine Madonna, or the Cologne Cathedral, or of a thousand other things which I have entered in my inventory in the stock ledger. I simply indicate them by algebraic symbols, which suggest their historic, educational, or sentimental values.

"I, as a shareholder, draw dividends from all this stock, none of which is listed on the Exchange. Some of these dividends are self-paying. I don't have to cut Bunker Hill coupons on the seventeenth of June, or Liberty Bell coupons on the Fourth of July; they are paid to me with mysterious regularity in the processes and growth of American freedom.

"But I suppose you would like to know." he said, with a characteristic smile, "how I have come to acquire some more modern forms of wealth—wealth that figures, for instance, in Wall Street, and some that does not figure there. That is listed in these other books, which you are perfectly welcome to see."

He took down the ledger marked "Collateral Stock Book."

It was a ponderous tome. He turned over the pages rapidly. The entries of stock were appalling in number and vol-Steamship, electric light, American steel, Western Union, various iron, copper, and coal mines, nearly all the most important railroads in this country and in Europe, and a vast array of manufacturing stock, filled the pages of the ledger. I was amazed at the extent of the inventory and the dividends. billionaire noted my surprise, and said, with a laugh, "There is nothing sensational about this list. There is not one of these properties in which I am not a shareholder. I am not an exclusive owner of any one item, and have no desire to be; because, if I owned them in any such sense, they would own me, and I am not willing to place myself in the position of being owned by my wealth. But I am a shareholder just to the extent that I use them, and I draw my dividends by using them.

"All of these things and a thousand

more are a part of the gain of history and of the development of our age. They are a part of the total stock of our civilization. I am much obliged to Robert Fulton, George Stephenson, Richard M. Hoe, S. F. B. Morse, Thomas Edison, Andrew Graham Bell, and all the rest, for making me a shareholder in their inventions. I have not had a share of stock in any of the companies organized to propagate and work these inventions for the sake of making money; what I want is the use of these inventions themselves, for they have rendered a vast amount of money unnecessary. Stop and think how much it would cost you in time and labor to do for yourself what these things do for you. You pay a cent for a daily paper. It has taken a printing-press, a railroad, a telegraph, a telephone, a typewriter, and the combined arts of handwriting, stenography, and printing, to produce it. Grant that out of forty-eight columns only twelve are worth reading; yet, to create all the instruments and agencies necessary to collect and print and publish those twelve columns, millions of dollars were ex-That is to say, you pay one pended. cent for the use of all those millions.

"When people say to-day that a man is as 'rich as Crœsus,' they apparently do not know what a poor man Crossus was. He was not rich enough to travel by railroad or by steamboat or automobile. For traveling on land he was absolutely dependent upon a horse. His house was not lighted by electricity, gas, or petroleum. He was too poor to buy a watch, a pair of spectacles, or a box of matches. Not all the money he had, or could beg or borrow, would have sufficed to secure to him what are to-day regarded as necessities of life for even a poor man. He was fortunate in living in a country where nature was prodigal. but he could not command all the varieties of food at the same time which a poor man can command to-day-fresh strawberries from Florida, potatoes from Bermuda, bananas from the West Indies, oranges and fresh figs from California.

"The annihilation of distance in the days of Crœsus was secured only by a miracle, and enjoyed only by gods with winged sandals or winged steeds. It

would have taken Crossus three months, as it took some of our Puritan fathers. to cross the Atlantic; but in one of the steamers in which I am a shareholder I have crossed it in five days, eleven hours. and forty minutes; and the man who traveled by steerage got there just as quickly as I did. If it had rained drachmas or dollars in Greece for forty days and forty nights, until the gold was as high as the housetops, Cræsus, if he had invested the whole amount, could not have purchased the speed which an Irish immigrant can buy for thirty-five dollars. What a slow figure the swiftest of his heralds would cut to-day! A message can be sent from New York to London under the ocean quicker than the news of the battle of Marathon could have been carried twenty-five miles overland when that victory for freedom was won. And this modern messenger is within the means of the average man. It costs but twentyfive cents a word to send an ocean cable. By buying from the United States Government a little picture of Washington, costing just two cents, a mother in Maine can send a letter to her boy in San Francisco or the Philippines.

"You ask me how I draw my dividends of use from my collateral stock. I draw them when they mature; when I want them; that is to say, when I use them. To illustrate: Yesterday I took the Staten Island ferry to New York, then the Subway to the Grand Central Station, then the Empire Express to Buffalo. I bought three newspapers, one costing three cents and the others one cent each. I arrived at Buffalo at 4:45, having made the trip of four hundred and forty miles in eight hours and fifteen minutes. sent a telegram to New York which cost twenty-five cents. My expenses that day, exclusive of meals, were as follows:

Staten Island Ferry	\$.05
Subway	.05
Fare to Buffalo	9.25
Newspapers	.05
Telegram	.25

\$9.65

"Thus for the sum of \$9.65 I had the use that day of a ferryboat, the subway, the railroad from New York to Buffalo, three newspaper plants, and a telegraph line of 440 miles. Count up now the cost of

the ferryboat and the cost of running it, the cost of cutting the Subway and running it, the millions invested in the equipment of the New York Central Railroad, and the capital and cost of operating the three newspapers and the telegraph, and you will see that for the sum of \$9.65 I had the use of many millions of dollars. I did not have to bother myself about owning and directing the roads or the telegraph or the newspapers. I owned the use of them, and that is enough. Of course a good many other people have the same advantage, but that is one of the pleasant things about it. The worst kind of wealth which any one can possess in material goods is that kind of wealth which is so fenced off that nobody can enjoy it with him.

"Last summer I secured possession of a Swiss lake and three conspicuous mountains. I have taken possession of them in just that way. Whenever I am there so that I can climb the mountains and sail on the lake, they are mine; no-body can rob me of them. When I leave them, I take a certificate of ownership with me; it is the picture I carry in my mind. As I shut my eyes and look at that picture, it is priceless."

The billionaire took down a third volume entitled "Common Wealth Assets." "Here I enter," he said, "my forms of cosmic wealth. No man can be considered really rich in this day and age whose wealth is confined to one planet, and that the planet on which we stand. Purely mundane wealth would be absolutely discredited in the system of universal exchange if it had not solar indorsement. The greatest source of my wealth is some ninety-three millions of miles from here, a tract of space so remote that I have never traversed it except by eyesight. Yet every morning with unfailing regularity my share of the daily product of the vast cosmic furnace is delivered in golden beams and billets which make the gold of Ophir or of the Klondike seem as dross in comparison. This gold does not need to be sent to the mint to be coined, or to the jeweler's or to the goldsmith's to be worked up; it is delivered ready for use. And it is useful, not in gilding the surface of life, but in the promotion of life itself.

can store it, too, in field, barn, and cellar. It is not only pure wealth in itself, but it can invest other things with wealth and beauty. Generously diffused over the soil, it is the best known fertilizer. With wonderful energy it pumps water into the clouds for irrigation. Every beam is a sheaf of color. Night and morning it paints magnificent scenery on the cloudy canvas it has spread. It is an incalculable source of light and heat, wonderfully democratic in its beneficence; shining alike on the prince and the peasant.

"This cosmic wealth is a part of the common wealth. It belongs to all. Even the animals can draw their dividends here. No one can corner this stock of gold, or put a fence around the sun and secure a monopoly of the product to be delivered at so much a beam. "And if there is anything which excites my indignation," said the billionaire, "it is when men seek to deprive others of their due and natural share of this solar wealth. In our great cities even sunshine has a market value, and the worst form of poverty is when men and woman are forced to live in slums where they contract tuberculosis and other diseases because they cannot pay for sunlight.

"The atmosphere is another form of common wealth, a part of my birthright, on which I began to draw as soon as I was born. What right has any one to deprive me of my just share of it, or to poison or soil my allotment of it? It seems to me that that is not a very dangerous form of socialism or of municipal or State control which so orders the construction of cities and houses that the individual occupying them shall not be deprived of his natural share of the common wealth, the cosmic gifts of light and air.

"Then there are the stars, which constitute my cosmic jewelry, the only diamonds and gems I possess; and the moon, which pours out a monthly supply of free silver, and lifts the tidal billow.

"There are the ocean and the great international seas, which cannot be bought up. They are a part of the common wealth. Nations may claim a strip of them on the coast, but they are a part of the highways of the world. We are all tenants in common of sky and sea. Perhaps the time will come when we shall make it impossible for one man to secure vast tracts of this earth to the utter exclusion of everybody else, and when the birthright of every individual to a share in the globe on which he is born will be recognized.

"You see, I hope," said the billionaire, "that I was right in saying that a very large part of my wealth grows out of my relations to the mutual life; and because it is mutual it is equitable."

"I understand now," I said, "the distinction you make between legal ownership, between a mere title to wealth and the reality of use or enjoyment. I understand, too, the emphasis you place on shareholding, or what may be called social or corporate wealth, and your dividends of civilization and common wealth; but are there not certain forms of your wealth which are personal and which cannot be made over to others?"

"Yes," he said, "there are some forms of wealth which cannot be transferred. There are possessions which are purely individual, and they are some of the most valuable things which a man can call his own. I have another stock book in which I enter these personal assets."

He took down the "Personal Ledger." "In the first place, there is my stock of good health. You could not list it in Wall Street or anywhere else; it has absolutely no exchangeable value to anybody else, except the companies in which my life is insured; but it is of immense value to me. I know a man who would give a million dollars at once if he could Poor fellow! he is almost bankrupt in his digestion. He could buy out Washington Market any day in the week and not feel it; but if he ate a good square meal he would feel it quickly enough. If there is anything he envies, it is the robust health of some stalwart laborer on his place who is working for the prevailing rate of wages, but who might earn forty thousand dollars a year if he could make over his breathing and digestive apparatus and other physiological appurtenances to this millionaire who is rich in gold but a pauper in health. This man parted with his health to get his money; now he would like to part

with his money to get back his health. It is remarkable what a spiritual and moral quality there may be in good health; it affects one's relation to the entire universe. 'Give me health and a day,' said Emerson, 'and I will make the pomp of emperors ridiculous.'"

I noticed that another stock listed as a purely personal possession was his "stock of knowledge." But the billionaire turned over those pages rapidly and smilingly said, "I don't want you to know just how poor I am. I wish I had invested a good deal more in that direction. But I appreciate its value, if I cannot illustrate it.

" Of course knowledge in my system of bookkeeping is capable of double entry; it is something you can impart, and therefore you can share it with others; but, on the other hand, it is something which you cannot acquire without earning it. The earning capacity of people differs: but to the extent that you earn anything in this field, you must earn it yourself. It is therefore a purely personal possession. It is just here that some of the nouveaux riches find themselves up against a wall. They have learned how to make money, and got some additional knowledge in the process; but they have not acquired knowledge of a better sort or developed their capacity to get it. They can buy a book in a foreign language, but not the capacity to read it; they can buy a celebrated picture, but not the capacity to enjoy it; they can buy a ticket for the opera, but not an ear for music. A man's mental outfit, whether by natural endowment or acquisition, is his own; it is a part of his indestructible capital which cannot be burned nor stolen from him. It is a form of absolute wealth so purely personal that he cannot even bequeath it in his will. I sometimes regret that Nature is so inexorable in this respect, and that so much knowledge and capacity must die with the man who possesses it.

"I think," continued the billionaire, turning away from his Personal Ledger and speaking in a positive but purely impersonal way, "that our American millionaires must, on the whole, be credited with an appreciation of the value of knowledge in its broadest sense as an

element of power. One of the best evidences of this is the vast amount of money which has been given by our rich men for libraries, schools, colleges, and other educational institutions, and to encourage the pursuit of science and art.

"The millionaire of the new school has also discovered that if he cannot personally assimilate all his material wealth, he is not obliged by law to keep it. He can enrich himself by giving it away. is not so easy a thing to do as it may seem to you. For some men it is a harder task to give away their money than it was to make it. It is very hard for some plutocrats, after having spent forty or fifty years in exercising the power of getting, suddenly to turn around and begin to exercise the power of giv-All the muscles of their benevolence are weak and flabby. Their thought has not been exercised in that direction. One of the terrible dangers of getting too much gold is that it may ossify the sentiments, and one may get a disease which I call the 'plutocratic clutch.' It is what I may describe as lockjaw of the hand. It is a disease in which it is impossible for the hand to relax into the open palm.

"I knew a man who had this disease. The doctor said to him, 'You will never be able to open your hand till you have learned to open your heart.' An operation on the heart, you know, is a delicate piece of surgery, but by the process of psychotomy it is possible. He told me what a struggle he had to give away so small a sum as five dollars. He had to be persuaded that somehow he was going to get some interest on this investment in heaven, and was flattered by the fact that his name would appear in the papers. He told me the story of his struggle from miserliness into generosity, and it seemed to me far more heroic than any story I know of—a struggle from poverty into wealth. He learned the hardest lesson of his life, to give for the sake of giving. Some of his gifts were necessarily public; a large number were of the left-handed kind; his right hand did not know what the left hand had done. And then he told me, with a warmth in his voice and a little moisture in his eye, that in getting his wealth he had never experienced a

hundredth part of the happiness he had in giving it away."

The billionaire put up his stock books, but the title of another book caught my eye, "Castles in Spain."

"Ah," he said, laughingly, "you journalists have reduced curiosity to a fine art."

"Well," I said, persuasively, "you have told me about your possessions in France and Switzerland and elsewhere, why not tell me of your castles in Spain?"

He took out the volume. I noticed that a good many of its pages were canceled, but some were still fresh and fair

and in his own handwriting.

"This book," he said, "nobody sees but myself. It is kept in my private safe. My investment in natural scenery both in this country and in Europe is a form of investment in real estate. But my castles in Spain are not what you call 'real property.' Nevertheless, I am accustomed to regard them as one of the most valuable of all forms of personal wealth. These castles are of my own architecture and my own building; they have a peculiar fascination for me. I do not have to get permission from the building department to put them up. I do not insure them, because they are safe from damage by fire and water. They have a habit of dissolving now and then, but they generally fade away so gradually that you do not know that they are gone. What to some people is the capital defect of these castles is to me their supreme excellence; that is, that they are purely imaginary. They can be reared in a night and are ready at once for occupancy. There is nothing more valuable for the creation of wealth and happiness than the faculty of imagination; because with it you can create wealth out of material which is absolutely devoid of market value. There is no grander resource for a nominally poor man than, by a mixture of hope and imagination, to be able to change his condition and environment. If he is not architect enough to do this himself, by the investment of a dollar he can secure the services of Walter Scott, Shakespeare, Dumas, Van Lennep, Goethe, Victor Hugo, Sophocles, Euripides, or Homer. Or, if he likes some more modern literary architect, he can easily find one who will create a new environment and atmosphere for his mind, so that he can secure one of the fundamental conditions of happiness, the capacity of escaping from yourself.

"How poor the world of literature and life would be if it were not enriched by the imperishable creations of the imaginations and the visions of the seers! And in these days the man who is nominally poor can buy them almost as freely as the millionaire, and there are public libraries that now form part of the common wealth."

The billionaire paused and looked at his watch. I took the hint.

"I have not begun," he said, "to get through my catalogue of the sources of wealth. I have not mentioned the wealth of friendship, the joy of work, the incalculable resources of affection, and scarcely touched on the treasures of memory. But you have some idea now of my method of bookkeeping, and can calculate the value of some of these things in life without any help from me.

"Do not quote me as saying anything against money or the men who have the capacity for getting it. When society is somewhat better constructed, we shall have more money, not less; and perhaps it will be better distributed. But the great advantage of my form of book-keeping and of estimating values is that a man can be a billionaire on a very small amount of money."

As I took up my hat to leave I cast a glance at a few shelves of books which the billionaire had in his counting-room. They were most of them devoted to political and social economy.

"I am not tied up," he remarked, "to any particular school of political or social economy. A man who becomes a doctrinaire in this comparatively unexplored field is soon lost in a maze of crude technicalities, and may become a Philistine before he gets through. But I should be ungrateful not to acknowledge my indebtedness to this volume." He took down a little book, with a title neatly lettered in his own hand: "Josephsson's Galilean Economics." "It is based on the gold standard, you see: 'Do unto others as you would have them

do unto you.' Some of its fundamental principles are: To him that hath shall be given. That is a recognition of the capacity of the individual to enrich his own personality. Every treasure which he has secured only makes it easier to secure something still higher and better.

"Other principles are: A man's life consisteth not in the abundance of the things he possesseth.

- "What shall it profit a man if he gain the whole world and lose his own soul?
 - " He that loseth his life shall find it.
 - "It is a book of parables and precepts.

The principle of reciprocity on which its social economy is based is well enunciated by one of the followers of Josephsson: Let every man bear his own burden. That is a recognition of individual duty. And then there is the reciprocal principle:

"Bear ye one another's burdens, and so fulfill the law of Christ.

"A man who follows Josephsson," said the billionaire, as he took my hand, "has laid up his treasures where moth doth not corrupt, and where thieves do not break through and steal."

HOW ONE CHURCH REORGANIZED ITS SUNDAY-SCHOOL

BY H. J. HASKELL

"HOSE don't look like quarterlies," said the visitor; "what are they?"

"Class books," replied the superintendent, briskly. "We aren't buying quarterlies any more. The girls used them, sometimes. The boys didn't, except in school. But that was only one trouble. The real objection was that we wanted a school of religion—a school, mind you—and not a lot of sermons on miscellaneous topics with the verses printed in the quarterlies for texts. So what we've got now is a graded school. Let me show you."

Though it lacked a half-hour of opening time, pupils were already coming. In a corner a group of girls were bending over a table drawing maps, while a teacher stood outside the circle, occasionally making a suggestion.

"We have to come early to get these maps drawn," she explained. "We are so busy in the lesson hour, you see."

The superintendent stopped a boy of thirteen and asked for his book. It was made of blank leaves in a pair of black, cloth-bound covers, technically known as a "manuscript binder." A printed slip pasted on it bore the words, "Beacon Hill Sunday-School, Junior Department, Grade D." Written carefully beneath was the title: "The Story of God's Later Messengers."

"You see we aren't confined to the Bible for our material," said the superintendent, as he opened the book." "Grade C of this department is studying the work of the Apostles, under the general title of 'The Story of God's Early Messengers.' But we don't see any reason for stopping with them, as if their work were something altogether different from modern missions. This church doesn't recognize any such gap in religious development." He was running over the pages as he spoke. They were removable at will, by untying the string that bound them, and additional leaves could be inserted. At the end of the year, he explained, they could be bound in heavy paper, a new label could be pasted on the binder, and it would be ready for the next year's work.

"Don't you remember, when you were a boy," he said, "that it was always a lot more fun to do a thing yourself, no matter how badly, than to have some-body else do it for you? Now, with this scheme the boy makes his text-book himself. A prepared quarterly is like a mechanical toy that runs itself and leaves the owner nothing to do. It's much neater and prettier than this, but it isn't half the fun. Is it, John?"

The owner of the book grinned and nodded.

"Let's see. These first lessons are

about India. Here's the map. Say, John, I don't know that I'd have recognized that as India if it hadn't been labeled. But that's all right. You'll be drawing a better one before you get through."

He turned to the first lesson. At the top of the page was written the title, 'What a Cobbler Did for God.' In the upper left-hand corner was pasted a small picture of a Buddhist temple.

"We ought to have had William Carey up there," put in John; "but we couldn't get his picture, so we used the temple instead."

Beside the picture as a memory verse were Carey's words: "Expect great things from God. Attempt great things for God." Underneath was a series of a dozen questions such as, "What was Carey's trade?" "What did he finally choose to do, and why?" "To what country did he go?" These had been hectographed by the teacher and a space left for the answers, which were in the boy's handwriting. The other lessons in the book were on other missionaries.

"But you use Bible lessons, of course?" the visitor inquired.

"Certainly. Only our notion is that the material ought to be adapted to the age of the pupil. We have organized the school into five departments according to age. The children from four to nine are in the primary department. The junior ages are nine to thirteen, the intermediate thirteen to seventeen, the senior seventeen to twenty-one, and there is an adult department besides. department includes several grades. The school has an average attendance of about two hundred and twenty-five, and we plan to have seventeen grades. As a rule, one teacher is to keep a class only a year. A teacher is supposed to be a specialist in one grade, and the classes are to progress from one teacher to another, just as they would in the ward school. All schools use this plan with their infants' department. We are going to try the same principle all through the school."

"And how do you 'adapt' your material, as you call it?" persisted the visitor.

"Well, take the primary department. The kindergartners are studying nature

lessons with the general idea of God as the creator, providing for the needs of his creatures. The older ones take up the same idea with Bible stories selected to illustrate it—God helping Israel through Moses and Samuel and David and so on. We assume that children between nine and thirteen are interested in great events, in heroic achievements. and that sort of thing. They don't care so much what men are as what they do. So we give them first the story of Hebrew history selected from that point of view, and follow it with the life of Jesus, and then with missionary history. All through these courses in the junior department. you see, we emphasize the more stirring things. The next department, the intermediate, is devoted to biographical studies of characters in the Old and New Testaments and of later times. Why, we include Francis of Assisi and Savonarola and Luther and Washington and Lincoln, just as much as we do Samuel and Elijah and Josiah. Adolescence. you know, is a time when boys and girls are especially interested in great characters and-"

"Hold on," the visitor interrupted. "Excuse me, but I know you're a busy business man, not a professor of pedagogy. Where did you get all these ideas? What is a Sunday-school superintendent supposed to know of the needs of adolescence, and all that?"

The superintendent laughed. "No," he said, "we don't claim any originality here. The ideas aren't ours. They are Pease's—and Short's. You see, Professor Pease, of the Hartford School of Religious Pedagogy, got out 'An Outline of a Bible School Curriculum' a couple of years ago, and Short got hold of it. The book suggests outlines for seventeen years' work for pupils of every age from four to twenty-one. We've adopted it bodily—and it works."

Then he told the story. When the new pastor came, two years previously, the Sunday-school was getting on in the usual fashion, without much interest or enthusiasm. After looking over the field, the pastor decided that the first need was increased efficiency of the teaching force. Few of the teachers were experienced or knew anything of methods. So

at the teachers' meetings he set them to work, not on the next Sunday's lesson, but on a book on pedagogy. That started the interest, and the second year about thirty persons began the study of Professor Coe's "Education in Religion and Morals." This helped them to a pretty definite idea of the aims of religious education and of the Sunday-school. Then, with some misgivings, the pastor ordered a half-dozen copies of Pease's "Curricu-The book discusses the characteristics of children and young people of various ages, and suggests courses adapted to these needs. Each course is merely outlined, with one or two lessons worked out in detail. For most of the lessons merely the title is indicated, and the development of material is left to the The pastor thought the book teacher. would afford a good basis for discussion. He hoped that within a year a few of the more enthusiastic and adventuresome teachers would be ready to discard the International lessons and experiment with the courses outlined. More he did not expect.

But a curious thing happened. After the first evening's discussion there was a general request for more copies of the "Curriculum," until twenty-five had been ordered. The teachers asked that the meetings be held semi-monthly, then weekly. At times a fifteen-cent lunch was served, followed by a two-hour discussion. Teachers were asked to work out new lessons from the titles suggested in the guide-book. Sometimes one of them conducted a class from the Sundayschool invited for the occasion while the others looked on and got or gave suggestions. The enthusiasm grew. Soon forty persons were attending the meet-

"This is the greatest religious revival the church has had in years," said a deacon.

It was the pastor's principle to let the teachers so far as possible do the talking. They soon began to ask, "Why can't we try this plan ourselves?" A few were timid, but the final decision, without pressure from the pastor, was practically unanimous. For the previous two years' courses had weeded out the teachers who had not the time or the

interest sufficient to do the work, and had attracted several efficient men and women to whom the traditional methods had never appealed.

The question of finance had to be considered carefully before a change was made, for the church was not wealthy, and, besides, it was directing all its energy toward the erection of a new building. Copies of the "Curriculum" would cost a dollar and a half apiece, but most of the teachers already had it. The binders, seven by nine inches, could be had for ten cents each, and the leaves for twenty-five cents a hundred. Small pictures for illustrating the lessons could be ordered from any one of several companies for fifty cents a hundred. The change, it was found, would entail no extra expense. So the reorganization was determined on, and at a special meeting a realignment of classes was arranged in order to conform the grades to the ages specified in the book.

Altogether, twenty-three classes were organized—one in each of thirteen of the seventeen grades, and, in some of them, two. There was already one adult Bible class. Three more were started. two in the "History of the Bible," with Dr. W. J. Mutch's fifteen-cent outline as a text, and the third in the "Evolution of the Religion of Israel," founded on Professor Cornill's scholarly little volume, "The Prophets of Israel," which was secured in paper covers for twentyfive cents. In the reorganized school about twenty-five per cent. of the pupils were above high school age.

"What have been your results?" the visitor asked, as the superintendent finished his story.

"Well," he replied, "of course I could tell you better after we have had a year's experience. But the thing that has impressed me most, as superintendent, is that every teacher is here every Sunday. They have to be, you know, to make the classes go, because they must outline each lesson in advance. On an average, about ten per cent. of the teachers used to be absent. In the three months that we've been running a graded school we have hardly had an absentee. To me that is more significant than the increased attendance of pupils, though for

the quarter that has been over twentyfive per cent. above last year's record. But talk to some of the teachers."

They agreed with the superintendent. "Before we adopted the graded work," one of them said, "I had about decided to give up my class. It seemed to me that the International lessons weren't getting us anywhere. I was quite discouraged. But things are different now. The pupils take hold of the work better."

"Take hold"—that was the common expression. Parents, they said, had spoken of the change. In one family that had been quarantined because of scarlet fever, the children had insisted on having the lesson-sheets sent in every week so that they could paste the pictures on and hunt up the answers to the questions on Sunday afternoon.

The Superintendent led the way to a small room off the auditorium, into which children had been crowding before going to their seats. Hanging from wires were large sheets of cardboard, each bearing six leaves that had been removed from the lesson binders. The display leaves had been selected by the teachers as class exhibits. On some of them were carefully colored maps.

Others carried reproductions of famous paintings artistically arranged with the lesson material. All showed evidence of painstaking work. The children were commenting on them animatedly.

"We thought a little competition might help," the superintendent observed. "Once a quarter we propose to invite the parents in to see the exhibits. We hope to think of other devices later. But, after all, we are putting our main dependence in our graded curriculum. There are two ways of persuading children to come to Sundayschool, you know. One is to hold out all sorts of inducements like picnics and entertainments. The other is to make the teaching so interesting that they won't want to stay away. We're trying the second."

A few minutes later the school was deep in the lessons, drawing maps, hunting up Bible passages, looking over pictures, and answering questions.

"A church," the pastor said, as he looked over the auditorium, "is a complex organism, with many branches. This I call our educational department."

SPRING

BY MARY BALDWIN

Dawn and its silence draw a silver sigh
Far in the east where early shadows lie
All flocked and folded like soft peaceful sheep.
The Spirit of the Spring stirs in its sleep,
Breathes into life a misty floating sheen;
The willows dreamy drip of constant green;
Exultant beats a bird-heart o'er a nest,
Where dim, vague stirrings 'neath the tiny breast
Spell fresh the miracle of motherhood.
Ah, how the world is young! ah, how 'tis good!
To feel the new life flutter mystic wing;
Like to a lark to feel one's soul upspring,
Transpierce the very limit of the sky,
And toss its challenge to Eternity!

¹ Further information concerning this experiment in religious education may be secured from the Rev. W. M. Short, Beacon Hill Congregational Church, Kansas City, Missouri.

THE PRESENT DANGER OF FINLAND'

BY H. MONTAGUE DONNER

ISTORY does not furnish us with any more striking example of the inherent force of united popular purpose, when intelligently and unswervingly directed to good ends, than the recent restitution to Finland, after six years of sore tribulation, of her ancient constitutional rights and liberties. The magnificent outcome of the Finnish nation's calm resoluteness is, in its largest sense, the triumph of an enlightened democracy over a mediæval despotism immensely superior in everything but moral prestige—the triumphant vindication, on the stage of nations, of high ideals over the gross forces of materialism and greed.

When we come to inquire closely into what Finland has gained through the historic ukase of November 4, we find that the country has specific grounds for self-felicitation. In the first rank of importance is the assurance that no further changes in the laws of the Grand Duchy will be attempted without the concurrence of the duly elected representatives of the Finnish nation, on whom is bestowed as a further safeguard the right of determining the legality of all governmental procedure, thus insuring the people a degree of direct control over legislation which they were far from enjoying under the old order of things. Further, the last traces of the evil system of the censorship have been doomed to disappear, a consummation which, however devoutly prayed for of old, had never before in the history of Russia's relations with Finland been more than partially and grudgingly granted. change is, of course, not so revolutionary as in Russia, where there has never hitherto been any organ for the expression of popular opinion, but it is, nevertheless, of enormous significance to the cause of liberty. The present task of remodeling the whole form of parliamentary institutions is a reform which for many years past all classes in Finland have recognized not only as desirable but as sooner or later inevitable. Under the old order of things the legislative machinery, based as it was on the antiquated system of the Four Estates formerly in vogue in Sweden, although up to the present time justified in its results, had not only grown decidedly too cumbersome, but had plainly, in the eyes of the nation at large, become inadequate for modern requirements, and was bound to give way in due course to a system answering more nearly and directly to the needs of a highly educated and progressive proletariat.

The present extraordinary Diet, therefore, will pass into history as the last of its kind, inasmuch as it has the unique function of decreeing its own end and taking measures for the creation of a successor very differently constituted, as well as endowed with far wider powers. Before it passes to its rest, however, it. will have enacted other most important legislative measures—laws to secure absolute freedom of the press, of speech, of person, of public meeting and organization, such statutes to be guaranteed inviolable by being placed among the fundamental laws of the land, all future attacks on which by the Czar or his Ministers are to be guarded against by the adoption of wording so precise and clear that it cannot possibly admit of ambiguous construction.

It would seem that, having thus gloriously won back their freedom without bloodshed, the Finlanders would now naturally unite to take common measures for the security as well as the improvement of their autonomous institutions. It is here, however, that we are confronted with a spectacle that is as

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¹ The author of this article is a nephew of Senator Otto Donner, of the Finnish Government, has been prominent in Finnish-American organizations, and has contributed other articles on this general subject to The Outlook.—THE EDITORS.

disconcerting and saddening to the lovers and admirers of Finland as it is new and startling in the history of her people, hitherto universally admired for their unflinching adherence to law-abiding procedure and orderly protest, even in the face of most bitter and long-continued oppression and studied provocation. It would really seem as if the Finnish national character, so entirely admirable under adversity, had suffered a species of moral disintegration under the stress of sudden prosperity. It is lamentable to find that just at this juncture, when the fortunes of Finland, in the face of the partial triumph of the reactionary forces in Russia, may be swaying in the balance, the Grand Duchy itself should. be rent by factional bitterness and mistrust. But so it is, and the situation needs study in a new light.

In former articles in The Outlook (September 20, 1902, and January 10, 1903), I have shown how Finland was roughly divided into the rival camps of Svekomans and Fennomans, and how, in pursuit of the Machiavellian policy immemorially dear to Russian statecraft, of divide ut imperes, it has always been the aim of Russia to widen the breach between the Swedish and Finnish speaking elements in order to render easier of accomplishment the ultimate purpose of destroying Finnish autonomy altogether.

Most unhappy, indeed, and far-reaching, have been the effects of this policy of darkness and double-dealing-effects that have, alas! come to light with startling clearness now that the heavy hand of the tyrant has been shaken off, and the Finns find themselves left to work out their own salvation. Now it is only too manifest how the constant spectacle, during six years of contemptuous disregard of the rights of others, as evidenced in official malversation, chicanery, and bribery, and in the system of police espionage and the encouragement of paid political informers; of the insidious posing of the Russian Government as the particular friend of the unemployed working classes, to whom it more than once distributed money and food drawn from the funds collected in previous years by the Finnish State and provincial

governments; and of the systematic setting of class against class, inevitably worked subtly and almost imperceptibly to undermine, particularly among a portion of the laboring classes, that stern sense of personal independence and integrity, combined with respect for the law, which has always been so marked a characteristic of the Finnish race.

It is, of course, to be expected that Finland should now be in special peril from its outer enemies, among the most active and influential of whom must naturally be counted the Russian officials who have just been forced out of the posts upon which they had for so long illegally fattened in the Grand Duchy-from Prince John Obolensky himself, and the ousted governors of Finnish provinces, down to the merest provincial hanger-on of the alien police heads. In the natural order of things, however, it is to be expected that the Finnish cause in St. Petersburg would triumph over all their machinations when guided by such competent and devoted men as the new Secretary of State for Finnish Affairs, General Langhoff, in whom the Czar appears to have great confidence, and his chief assistant, former Governor Björnberg, of Vasa, who perhaps more than any other one man possesses the most implicit trust of the Finnish people. But it is in truth sad to think that their task should be immeasurably increased. and their success put in serious jeopardy, by internal foes of the country. such is the unhappy truth. Instead of the prudent, well-considered co-operation of all classes of the community in the work of rehabilitation which the previous history of the country would lead us to expect, admirers of Finland have now the chagrin of seeing a resolute attempt made by a fraction of the new commonwealth to arrogate to itself a controlling part in the work of reorganization. The ugly specter of social fanaticism, under the red banner of Social Democracy, is seen struggling to rise to power on the ruins of the overthrown despotism first erected by the mailed fist of Muscovy, and so lately reviled by the very faction that would now take its principles of action as their models.

The Social Democratic party is a new

phenomenon in Finnish politics, and, as I have endeavored to show, may be regarded as the direct outgrowth of the Russian misrule of the past six years, with its studied policy of fomenting not only party but class discord. Founded partly on legitimate grounds of disaffection, such as lack of representation in the Diet and denial of the right of suffrage, it has gone to school under an apt master of violence and treachery, and it would be strange if, finding itself suddenly become master of its destinies, it did not yield to excesses in its new and unwonted taste of power, unbalanced as vet by the restraining influence of any adequate sense of responsibility.

The youngest by far not only of the political parties of Finland, but of the various national entities composing the great and rapidly growing modern phenomenon of the Socialist body which is seeking to establish a common brotherhood of propaganda and action against the monarchical and military governments of Europe, the Social Democracy of Finland (the extremists among which, during the Russian régime of terrorism, had declared an alliance with the Socialist-Revolutionary party in Russia) is, nevertheless, the first section of that body to be placed in a position where it can exert an immediate and powerful influence in the creation of new forms of government; and for that reason its methods of procedure and their results must be watched with particular interest, especially by the neighboring nations. It must be confessed, even by those weary of autocratic misrule and military despotism, with their everlasting international rivalries and the heavy burden of taxation which they entail, that so far, in the fierce light which thus beats upon them, the Finnish Social Democrats have not cut a very dignified or even respectable figure.

It is not that the political programme of the party is beyond the demands of reason. As a matter of fact, their demand for a unicameral legislature and universal suffrage seem to have commended themselves so strongly to the Finnish people as a whole that they have been practically acceded to by the

Mechelin Senate and the special legislative committee appointed by the Diet to prepare the official scheme of governmental reforms, though there exist minor points of difference that have yet to be adjusted. It is their studied attitude of defiance, their absolute disregard for any interests but their own-in other words, their lack of a communal conscience—their appeals to passion and prejudice, their preaching of the gospel not merely of social discontent, but of class hatred and racial animosities, together with their many deeds of actual violence-that constitute the Social Democrats a most potent menace to the security of the Finnish State. This menace is greatly increased, owing to the fact that the Government is without a military arm to quell any belligerent demonstration on the part of organized labor on account of the abolition of the Finnish army by the Russian bureaucracy in 1901 and the further unfortunate circumstance that the gendarmerie and police force are undergoing reorganization from top to bottom after their wholesale corruption during the Muscovite tyranny. It is this unhappy state of affairs that has made it easy for the Social Democrats to send agitators throughout the country inciting the more ignorant and credulous of the peasantry against the upper classes in general, who, after all, are the most liberal-minded and democratic in Europe, and recounting the bloody exploits of the Russian "mujiks" in the distant provinces of the Empire as something worthy of admiration, if not actually of emulation. Under the circumstances it is not to be wondered at that the demeanor of the lower classes in both town and country has shown signs of change for the worse, and that instances of violence on the part of workingmen against others of their number who did not share their views have been frequent of late in Helsingfors and other towns. Matters actually went so far that prominent agitators made a public appeal in the capital for the formation of a gigantic organization of school-children over fifteen years of age to withstand the "slavery" imposed upon them by parents and teachers, whom they were openly called

upon to defy, so that they should learn to have "backbone" in preparation for the struggle for their full rights when they should begin life! As for the existing young people's unions of one kind or another, they ought to disappear, inasmuch as they had the grand motto of "Equality and Liberty" only upon their lips!

It is satisfactory to note, however, that a reaction from all this preaching of hatred, malice, and all uncharitableness, and, incidentally, of extermination of the Swedish element, is beginning, according to latest advices, to make itself felt. Some of the leaders of the movement are beginning to realize that there is little choice between Russian tyranny and rabble rule. There is even good reason for believing that the Social Democracy of Russia has recently sent a protest to their too fervid sympathizers in the Grand Duchy, representing to them that they will only furnish an excuse, by proceeding to methods of violence, for the Russian Government to step in on the plea that the Finlanders have definitely shown themselves unable to rule themselves peaceably. However this may be, there is no doubt that the orderly element is bestirring itself to make the weight of public opinion felt, so that even the regular Socialist organ in Helsingfors, the "Työmies," is found urging the workingmen's and "Red Guard" committees to put only men who are well known and tried in positions of importance, and pointing out the dangers of allowing the anarchistic element to obtain too much prominence in the ranks of the party.

This is only as it should be, for it remains true, notwithstanding the success of the Nationalist movement in November, that there never was more urgent need of union among all parties in Finland, for in the background of the consciousness of her wisest statesmen there lies the constant apprehension of that

close interrelatedness of Finnish affairs with those of the Muscovite Empire which still makes possible a return, in case the popular movement in Russia should definitely fail, to the iniquitous policy of repression and destruction of constitutional guarantees. Hence the Constitutionalists, who hold the reins of power, must be alert to read the signs of the times. Apparently they are doing so, and are quite ready and even anxious to meet their political opponents halfway, for they recognize the great value of prompt action under the circumstances. They see that if the forces of reaction in Russia, as exemplified most strikingly in the baleful figure of Durnovo, or in that of Trepoff, triumph before the work of the Diet is complete. the whole labor of the Finnish patriots might be rendered abortive. The possibility of such a catastrophe should not be lost sight of, and, looking to such an eventuality, it would seem as if the Diet ought to hold Time by the forelock, and be ready with some constitutional device providing for the instant call of a National Assembly elected by direct universal suffrage, and so secure a legislative body thoroughly democratic and representative of the whole nation, which could then take action with the absolute certainty that in whatever interpretation it should place upon the necessities of the situation, or in whatever measures it should deem necessary for the salvation of Finland, it would have the united backing of the people.

May we not reasonably hope, however, that the Czar's Government will not dare, after all, to flout a second time the outspoken opinion of civilized mankind in favor of Finnish autonomy, even if it should not hesitate to defy the reawakened wrath of an outraged people, this time determined to fight to the last gasp for the sacred hearths of a free race and the cherished banners of civilization and progress.

Comment on Current Books

Bowdoin Boys in The first of the recent exploring expeditions into Labrador the wilds of Labrador was made by a party of students from Bowdoin College in 1891. In a small schooner the main party visited the coast of the peninsula as far north as Hopedale, while four of the members went up the Grand River three hundred miles to the Grand Falls, undergoing great hardships and bringing back important material as a result of their exploration. The story of the trip is interestingly told by one of the participants. (Bowdoin Boys in Labrador. By Jonathan Prince Cilley, Jr. Cilley & Burpee, Rockland, Maine. 50c.; postage, 8c.)

Readers of the English "Spectator" will be Literary Criticisms grateful for another selection from the short essays of Mr. Richard Holt Hutton, so long identified with that admirable journal, and one of the most accomplished literary journalists of his time. This selection covers a wide range, and brings out the diversity of Mr. Hutton's gifts, the breadth of his sympathies, and the ease and clearness of his style. He was a journalist in his attitude rather than in the manner of his work; for many of these short essays are stamped with genuine literary quality. He is at his best in dealing with such subjects as Wordsworth, Cardinal Newman, Carlyle, and Arnold, and his best means keen criticism, sympathetic interpretation, and an eminently readable style. This volume will not add to Mr. Hutton's reputation, but it will give pleasure to the large group of readers who have learned to enjoy his intelligence, lucidity, and the air of elevation which pervaded everything he wrote. (Brief Literary Criticisms. By the late Richard Holt Hutton. Selected and Edited by his Niece, Elizabeth M. Roscoe. The Macmillan Company, New York. \$1.50.)

Cache la Poudre

A Third Avenue melodrama de luxe, with a Wall Street villain, a beautiful but depraved enchantress, a youthful hero who, foully wronged, becomes a cowboy of pure heart and vast strength, and a culminating thrill at the Custer massacre followed by a wedding—all bound in buskin ornamented in cowboy style with leather fringes. This edition is equivalent to admission to the boxes; for those who are content to sit in the stalls there is a plainer edition somewhat less lavishly illustrated. (Cache la Poudre. By Herbert

Myrick. The Orange Judd Company, New York. \$5. Postage, 20c.)

While memory remains to Called to the many who suffered in the Civil War, both North and Field South, pictures are brought out and hung before us, keeping alive the pathos and the occasional flashes of comedy of forty years ago. Mrs. Thruston evidently writes from intimate knowledge. The story opens with a bright scene—the girlish bride running down the road to meet her husband, unconscious of the bitter news he brings of a war that will darken all their future. It is a story of the hardship of those who stay at homeand we realize that it is not overdrawn. The charm of it lies in its perfect naturalness, and there also is the secret of its intensity. (Called to the Field. By Lucy Meacham Thruston. Little, Brown & Co., Boston. \$1.50.)

In the painful situation of a The Castle man publicly reputed a coward of Lies because his nerve became paralyzed in a critical situation, who rushes into reckless adventure with a bare hope of retrieving his self-respect, there seems to be an excellent chance for a psychological study. But the plot soon plunges into an intricate and crudely wrought tissue of incidents too hard of belief to appeal to the imagination. The Bulgarian-Macedonian crisis furnishes the raw material. (The Castle of Lies. By Arthur Henry Vesey. D. Appleton & Co., New York. \$1.50.)

This compact little dic-Elson's tionary—or perhaps, Musical Dictionary more accurately, expanded musical vocabulary or glossary—is rather more inclusive than most books of its class. Its defects are not difficult to find: but its merits will be more evident to those who use it. We cannot quite understand why its list of composers and other musical artists should not include Americans. The book contains a list of musical terms in English with their Italian equivalents. In a note Mr. Elson presents a very reasonable argument for the retention of Italian as the language for musical directions. (Elson's Music Dictionary. By Louis C. Elson. The Oliver Ditson Company, New York. \$1.)

Expositions of Holy Scripture

These five volumes confirm the impressions recorded in the note recently made upon their predecessor. Each contains on an average between fifty and sixty short ser-

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mons, amply justifying Dr. Maclaren's reputation as a master of expository preaching. In his treatment of the Old Testament fruitful lessons for to-day are discovered in apparently barren texts concerning ancient events, while religion and morality are fused together, as in the preaching of the prophets. In the New Testament, while his standpoint is that of the mediæval theology, to the extent of maintaining that Jesus could not be the Saviour of the world unless supernaturally born, this feature appears but occasionally; religious and moral emphasis is continuous. These volumes are a treasury of thought for preachers, Sunday-school teachers, and all who study the Scriptures for a practical purpose. (Expositions of Holy Scripture. By Rev. Alexander Maclaren, D.D., Litt.D. The Books of Isaiah and Jeremiah, 2 vols. The Gospel of St. Matthew, 3 vols. A. C. Armstrong & Son, New York.)

Feeling, with Prolegomena This substantial volume from the prolific pen of Dr. Denton J. Snider carries the reader through the ground-floor of psychology, as introductory to the upper stories of will and intellect. The conception of psychology here presented is distinctively spiritual, and carries a religious value. The universe itself is regarded as psychical, and one is reminded of Virgil's well-known lines:

"Immanent spirit sustains the All, and infusing itself through the members,

Mind gives motion to mass, and blends with its hugeness of body."

Dr. Snider gives a fresh and original treatment to a familiar subject, and raises new points for thought with stimulating effect. To whatever criticism he may provoke his fellow-psychologists, he is most symmetrical. That "of all good things there are three," as Germans say, is a cardinal maxim with him. The distribution of his subject matter into triads, which appears in his preceding works, is carried through here, as there, into the uttermost details. Distinguished psychologists have protested against confounding psychology and philosophy. In the Prolegomena introductory to his treatment of Feeling, Dr. Snider goes further; he dethrones philosophy, and installs psychology in its place as "the science of sciences. But surely this is revolutionary. The thinking by which the Self creates an ordered universe out of innumerable fragmentary facts, including those of the very being of the Self, is a philosophical work, though the activity which undertakes it is psychical. We think Dr. Snider is rather too hard on his fellow-craftsmen, the psychologists, in saying that they "write and teach Chaos." On the whole, setting extreme claims aside, his treatment of Feeling does not, in substance, differ from that of current authorities; but it prefers to the hard beaten path walking on the springy grass that borders it. (Feeling, with Prolegomena. By Dr. Denton J. Snider. The Sigma Publishing Company, St. Louis. \$1.50.)

A useful handbook, cover-Getting Ready ing a different field from for Europe any single volume of which we know. It devotes a chapter to each country (including even North Africa and Asia Minor), and, without undertaking the full work of a guide-book, discusses routes, attractions, and all the large and important aspects of travel and sightseeing for that country. There are also outlines of history, information as to art and architecture, bibliographies, money tables, abundant maps, pictures of famous objects of interest, suggestions as to equipment, and much else. (How to Prepare for Europe. By H. A. Guerber. Dodd, Mead & Co., New York. \$2, net.)

The hen that hatched a duck Hazel of reappears in an English vil-Heatherland lage, where she figures as the anxious, dull-witted mother of a bright, impulsive girl. The latter does nothing worse than to engage herself to the wrong man, and extricate herself again with brave despatch. It is not surprising to find the heroine likening herself and Mr. Inderwicks, her lover, to Jane Eyre and Rochester. The thought had already occurred to us. The author evidently knows rural England as well as how to write a pleasing story. (Hazel of Heatherland. By Mabel Barnes-Grundy. The Baker & Taylor Company, New York. \$1.50.)

The subject of this bi-John Witherspoon ography by Mr. David Walker Woods, Jr., won distinction in more spheres of activity than any clergyman in our country before or after him. As minister for quarter of a century of the Scottish Kirk, he took a prominent part in the long struggle for popular rights which culminated in the formation of the Free Church in 1843. Called hither in 1766, as was his countryman, Dr. McCosh, a century later, to be college President at Princeton, the vigorous life he imparted to the college justified the expectation entertained at his advent, likened by Moses Coit Tyler to "that of a prince coming to a throne." Before the war for independence he bore a leading part in the organization of American Presbyterianism, mainly on the lines of the Church of Scotland. During the war he sat in the Continental Congress and won distinction by efficient service in military, financial, and diplomatic affairs. Horace Walpole, indeed, thought him responsible for the Revolution itself. The biography of such a man is an inseparable component of the history of his university and church and country. (John Witherspoon. By David Walker Woods, Jr., M.A. The Fleming H. Revell Company, New York. \$1.50, net.)

The Last Spike Cy Warman is well known as a writer of railroad stories, for which his early experiences as a railroad engineer had supplied him with abundant material. The tales in his new book are chiefly of the early days of railroading in the West; the one which gives its title to the volume is the romantic story of a young engineer engaged in the building of the first transcontinental road, the romance culminating with the driving of "the last spike." The stories are readable and entertaining, but they lack that something which, for want of a better name, is called "the literary touch." (The Last Spike and Other Railroad Stories. By Cy Warman. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. \$1.25.)

A very convenient work in Museums and Ruins of Rome of which describes the mutwo small volumes, the first seums and the second the ruins of the Eternal City, by two well-known German scholars, who have revised the English edition. The plan of the work is very simple. Beginning with the Vatican, the student is taken through the Papal collections, the municipal collections, and the national collections, the text describing and characterizing the masterpieces, with sufficient biographical data relating to the sculptors, with succinct but clear accounts of the character of the work, and descriptions which enable the reader to fasten his attention on special characteristics, with a reinforcement of a profusion of illustrations. Each volume is prefaced by a short bibliography giving a list of books which treat of Rome and Romans, selected for the purpose of putting a beginner who means to be a serious student in the way of access to the best literature. (The Museums and Ruins of Rome. By Walter Amelung and Heinrich Holtzinger. In 2 vols. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. \$3, net.)

Five short stories by Mrs. Spofford portraying the struggles for a livelihood made by Southern women in Washington after the war. The "Little Old Woman" is particularly pathetic, "A Colonel's Christmas" foreshadows better times, and true love triumphs over worldly advantages in "A Thanksgiving Breakfast." Humor, tenderness, and an intimate ac-

quaintance with the time characterize these tales. (Old Washington. By Harriet Prescott Spofford. Little, Brown & Co., Boston. \$1.50.)

Since the publication, a Philosophy of dozen years ago, of Otto Religion Pfleiderer's masterly work on this subject, no competitor with its fame has appeared till now, when the present work by the veteran Harald Höffding, of Copenhagen, seems likely to dispute with it for pre-eminence. He defines his task as "to elucidate the relation of religion to spiritual life," of which it is one among various forms. The real nature of religion is not to be found in its beginnings, whatever they may have been, but rather in its development, in which an unchanging principle is discovered operating throughout the continual change of religious forms. Such a principle appears in all popular religions, but especially in the higher types of religion, in "the conviction that no value perishes out of the world," and this is accordingly held to be "the core of religion." Religious need "consists in the desire to hold fast to the conservation of the highest values beyond the limits which experience exhibits and in spite of all the transformations which experience reveals." Thus our religious problem to-day is only a special form of "a great riddle" occurring also in other special spheres, and its axiom, or postulate, of the conservation of values, like the axiom of casuality, or the axiom of the persistence of energy, is only one form of the principle of the continuity of existence. Approaching the religious problem, first, in the intellectual line of epistemology, Professor Höffding, like Kant, finds it no thoroughfare. Turning thence through a line of psychological inquiry into religious experience, which shows the content of religious faith to be that "fidelity prevails throughout existence," he finds, like Kant, the ultimate criterion of the validity of this faith within the ethical sphere. "Ethics is concerned with the production of value:" it is in this sphere that the final balancing of the spiritual account must take place. It belongs to ethics to estimate different values comparatively. Ethically considered, the command is: "Make life, the life thou knowest, as valuable as possible." It is for religion to supply the motives of this pursuit of value. Everything called holy must be estimated by an ethical criterion. In the concept of the holiest religion and ethics ultimately meet. "That which is capable of the innermost appropriation by the individual, and at the same time is able to establish the deepest fellowship between individuals—that is the Holiest." To this

meager synopsis of a work of rare philosophical perspicacity and broad religious sympathy should be added Professor Höffding's remark that the special need of the present period of transition is the creation of "a new type of life," life based on the reality of ethical values with a psalm of confidence in their conservation. "The eternal is in the present, in every valuable moment, 'in each ray of sunshine,' in the striving which takes 'Excelsior' as its motto." (The Philosophy of Religion. By Dr. H. Höffding. Translated by B. E. Meyer. The Macmillan Company, New York. \$3.)

While the purpose of this book Silas Strong by Irving Bacheller is noble and worthy—a strong plea for the preservation of our forests-the actual story is not as impressive as it might be. The hero is somewhat too taciturn; his real character may not be an exaggeration, but its expression falls short of being lifelike. Another strange element is the wood-nymph who, entirely ignorant of life or even thought, captivates a young man who is a power in State politics, and becomes his wife. There is a very sweet tenderness whenever the two little children appear on the scene, relieved by the prickly honesty of their old aunt. The poetic justice of the coincident death of Silas and the "business" destruction of the forest is striking. (Silas Strong. By Irving Bacheller. Harper & Brothers, New York. \$1.50.)

The little village in the Pennsyl-Six Stars vania mountain valley here made the scene of a dozen or more admirable short stories is brimful of human nature, and Mr. Lloyd gets out of it a deal of honest fun and genuine character. There are some passages of serious feeling and indications of currents of passion, but in the main the tales are gently humorous, with a taste of dialect but without its abuse, and with a true perception of what is interesting and worth recording in the lives of simple people. These stories have pleased many as they have appeared in magazines, and they work together capitally in book form to make a clear and harmonious literary picture. (Six Stars. By Nelson Lloyd. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. \$1.50.)

The Study of a Novel

In view the use of this book as a college text-book. It will, however, be found of positive interest to all students of literature. Structure, settings, plot, dramatis persona,

style, subject matter, æsthetic and influence are all, with other phases of fiction-building, analyzed and illustrated by pertinent examples. Sometimes, as is usual with such studies, the analysis is a little stiff and the desire to classify and group ingenious rather than useful, but there is a time to dissect as well as a time to enjoy, and in its own chosen field this book is exceedingly thorough and instructive. (The Study of a Novel. By Selden L. Whitcomb, A.M. D. C. Heath & Co., Boston. \$1.25.)

With this volume there Travel Lessons on belongs an ingenious the Life of Jesus contrivance for making the lessons realistic. A set of stereoscopic photographs of Palestine are so arranged that two or three views can be studied with each lesson. A simple stereoscope is supposed to be used by each class. We can easily imagine that in the hands of a wise teacher, who is willing to follow the sane and clear instructions which are given in an accompanying pamphlet, this simple outfit would be very serviceable. As Mr. Forbush says, this device not only secures attention by isolating a boy behind a hood and directing his sight to a picture interesting by reason of variety, but it also helps to make the scenes and characters which the boy studies real to him. The lessons themselves are well planned, sensible in their approach to difficult questions, human and concrete rather than bookish and abstract, and adapted to boys' and girls' minds. (Travel Lessons on the Life of Jesus. By William Byron Forbush. Underwood & Underwood, New York. 50c. With Stereoscope, 75c.)

This is the second in or-The Vicar der of Anthony Trollope's of Bullhampton Manor House series, although, like all his books, it can be read with perfect comprehension independently. It is pleasant to know that the publication in this country of new editions of the Barsetshire and the Parliamentary series has disclosed a very genuine interest in the fiction of this placid and unexciting but always readable novelist. In truthful portrayal of English society Trollope was supreme, and his novels always have a genuine hold on the attention and a certain element of upheld suspense in the plot which make needless any sensationalism. The men and women are wellbred English people of the kind with whom Trollope was in daily intimacy. (The Vicar of Bullhampton. By Anthony Trollope. In 2 vols. Dodd, Mead & Co., New York. \$2.50.)

This Razor must Pay for Itself before You Payme a Penny Without Charge.

—and a Postal gets it. I Guarantee to Keep your Blades Sharp Forever

24 Blades



I am the man you hold personally responsible for every promise made in this advertisement.

P. C. SHERMAN

WILL you let me send you a razor-without a cent deposit?
Then I will keep it sharp and keen for the rest of your

life free.
That's my plan-my new plan of selling razors.

No other razor makers in the world sell razors this way-because

the world sell razors this way-because they can't-their razors won't stand it. Mine will-it's the way it's made. Now, I don't say, "Send me the price of the razor, a.d if, after you have tried it, you find that it isn't all I claim, I will send your money back." Not me.

On a "money back" proposition you may feel that there was some chance of not getting your money of the world.

not getting your money back if you wanted it—I won't let you feel that way

about my razor.

For if the razor don't do all I say, you send it back at my expense, and you're out nothing, for you've paid me nothing and you owe me nothing. Simply do this—Send me

your name, occupation, home and business address—and in any manner that is

nome and business address—and in any manner that is convenient and agreeable to you introduce yourself to me. I'll take all the risk and send, prepaid, a Sterling Safety Razor with 24 blades, or an Old Style Interchangeable Razor with 12 blades.

You see the Sterling Razor is so much better than any other razor that I can afford to send one without any resyment or denotit.

payment or deposit.

When you have tested it 7 days, if you find it the finest and easiest shaving razor you ever used, keep it.

Then the razor must pay for itself—that's my new

You see the average man should be shaved at least three times a week—at 15c. a shave that's 45c. a week for

three times a week—at l.sc. a shave that's 45c. a week for shaving.

So, if you decide to keep the razor, all I ask you to pay me is what you'd pay the barber—45c. a week for a few weeks until the razor is paid for.

That way I make the barber buy you the razor.

At that my razor doesn't take any more money to pay for itself than you would have to pay out of your own pocket for an ordinary razor.

And I go even farther.

I see to it that your blades are kept sharp forever—free.

I see to it that your blades are kept sharp foreverfree.

With any other safety razor you are always paying out
money because you must keep on paying for new blades or
resharpening as long as you live.

But with the Sterling, all you do is, send me 12 dull
blades, at any time, with 10 cents to cover postage, and I
return them to you perfectly sharp, free of charge.

That's really "no honing and no stropping."

Did you ever hear of anything as clever as this in the
razor line?

It's this way—the reason I can make this offer is be-

It's this way-the reason I can make this offer is be-cause I'm not in the least doubtful or afraid of my

My STERLING blades are made of the finest razor steel that money can buy-costs me twice as much as the

steel used in any other razor blades.

And mine is the only razor on the market that is made of genuine Sheffield steel—that is not a cold rolled steel.

With my careful, systematic process, each STERLING blade is hardened, tempered, ground and honed in oil, all



by hand, and then hand stropped-so that my razor must

And each of my STERLING blades must pass the SHERMAN test, the most rigid test to which a razor blade can be subjected.

No other razor blade could pass this test.

But I must make certain that the temper and cutting edge of every STERLING blade is perfect and lasting. I cannot afford to pass any but faultless razor blades, because my razor is made to shave with, and not made to sale.

to sell.

And, because of all this, I can afford—and am glad—to send you the razor, prepaid, for free trial without any deposit but your name, address and the introduction. If you don't introduce yourself to me I will have to write you to do so, and that will delay shipment of the Sterling. You can buy the Sterling Razor for \$5.00, but I am willing to send it to you and let it pay for itself.

Now—write me to-day, stating whether you wish the Safety or Old Style Interchangeable, and let me send you the razor. State whether you wish to cut close or medium, and whether your beard is wiry or fine. Don't send me any money—only a postal.

Remember the razor is yours for a week free—then either keep it and let it pay for itself with the guarantee that I must keep the blades sharp forever—free—or return it to

return it to

P. C. Sherman, Pres., 302 Water St., New York City



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Alum and Alum-phosphate powders are injurious. Do Not Use Them.







MINER AND OPERATOR A STUDY OF LABOR CONDITIONS

A STUDY OF LABOR CONDITIONS IN THE ANTHRACITE COAL FIELDS BY F. J. WARNE





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The Outlook

Volume 82

Saturday, April 28, 1906

Number 17

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THE OUTLOOK is a Weekly Newspaper and an Illustrated Monthly Magazine in one. It is published every Saturday—fifty-two issues a year. The fourth issue in each month is an Illustrated Magazine Number, containing about twice as many pages as the regular weekly issue, and many pictures.

PRICE.—The subscription price is Three Dollars a year, payable in advance. Ten cents a copy.

POSTAGE IS PREPAID by the publishers for all subscriptions in the United States, Hawaiian Islands, Philippine Islands, Guam, Porto Rico, Tutuila (Samoa), Shanghai, Canal Zone, Cuba, Canada, and Mexico. For all other countries in the Postal Union add \$1.56 for postage.

CHANGE OF ADDRESS.—When a change of address is ordered, both the new and the old address must be given. The notice should be sent one week before the change is to take effect.

DISCONTINUANCES.—If a subscriber wishes his copy of The Outlook discontinued at the expiration of his subscription, notice to that effect should be sent. Otherwise it is assumed that a continuance of the subscription is desired.

HOW TO REMIT.—Remittances should be sent by Draft on New York, Express-Order, or Money-Order, payable to order of The Outlook Company. Cash should be sent in Registered Letter.

LETTERS should be addressed:

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The Outlook

SATURDAY, APRIL 28, 1906

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Shaken and partly de-San Francisco stroyed by earthquake, dein Ruins vastated by fire, with more than half its people homeless, encamped in the open air, and sorely in need of food and shelter, San Francisco appeals to the sympathy and the succor of The calamity is comparable America. only with those which laid waste Chicago, Charleston, and Galveston, and in some ways is more widespread than any that has ever afflicted any American city. Early in the morning of Wednesday of last week (5:15 is the exact time) an earthquake so powerful as to affect seismological instruments on the other side of the world shook part of the Pacific Coast. A second and lighter shock followed at eight o'clock. Not only San Francisco, but a score of smaller Californian places suffered. Santa Rosa, for instance, a charming town north of San Francisco, lost some forty or fifty lives, and the public and business buildings were wrecked; San José suffered even more severely, and, including the loss of life in Agnew's Insane Asylum near by, probably at least one hundred and fifty people perished there; at Palo Alto the fine and beautiful buildings of the Leland Stanford Junior University, including the great memorial church, were overthrown in whole or in part. These, with the lesser disasters in many places, would alone have startled the world, had they not been thrown into relative insignificance by the appalling scenes in San Francisco. Just what the loss of life there may have been is not yet accurately known. No doubt the first fearful guesses of many thousands were much exaggerated, but although the great business houses and public buildings had hardly any people in them at the early hour, there were countless tenement, lodging, and small private houses shaken down, and beneath them and from falling walls

in the streets where they had rushed for refuge, and in single disasters here and there, hundreds of men, women, and children perished or were maimed. One newspaper correspondent thus describes the effect of the shock: "Beginning with a slight tremor, it increased in violence every moment. Before it was over, the smaller and older buildings in the business districts had fallen like houses of cards, the great steel buildings were mainly skinned of walls, and the tenement district, south of Market, was in ruins. In the Western Addition and the hills, where live the wealthy and well-to-do people, few houses went down; but the shock was so great that people streamed out into the streets, where the ground was still quaking." The United States Government buildings fell, with the exception of the Mint, which was favorably situated, and the new Post-Office, which was seriously injured but not wholly destroyed; the City Hall, which cost \$7,000,000, lay in ruins; theaters, business blocks, department stores, hotels, banks, and churches were overthrown by scores. The famous Palace Hotel escaped the shock to fall later by fire. erally speaking, the few steel structures withstood the shock remarkably well, and architects draw the deduction that if a steel structure be properly anchored in rock foundations it is the best form of frame to resist seismic disturbance. even though the outer shell of stone or brick be shaken off. The damage by shock was greatest in the low, made lands which lie mainly to the southeast of Market Street and were occupied partly by the business section, partly by the poorer classes of dwellings, including "Chinatown," which was utterly destroyed. It is a difficult problem for insurance men to say what was ruined by shock and what by fire, but, as we

write, the impression seems to be that the first form of destruction was less sweeping than at first supposed.

Hardly had the ground At the Mercy of Fire

ceased to shake to and fro when a great number of fires blazed fiercely up in all parts of the ruined section. Joining together in centers of flame, soon eight large conflagrations could be counted. Water was not to be had from the broken mains. the wind blew west from the Bay, and the most heroic efforts of firemen and volunteers could not prevent a steady advance of the fire lines toward the northwest, where is the better residential section, and through the southern or Mission section, thickly tenanted by poor people. Dynamite was used freely, but with little effect, and on Thursday it seemed as if the entire city would go. But that night came a change of the wind, and the steady western trade-wind turned the fire back on itself, so that by Friday Mayor Schmitz could issue a proclamation declaring that the fire was under control, the danger passed, and a supply of water at hand; nevertheless, he pointed out the likelihood of other fires being started if citizens should use unsafe chimneys, and urged great caution. The turn in the direction of the fire endangered for a time the great ferry house at the foot of Market Street. While the section actually destroyed is not, geographically speaking, much more than a third of the city territory, it is the heart of San Francisco, including the chief business streets, immense districts inhabited by the poorer people, and a large part of the so-called Nob Hill quarter, where were the finest and costliest residences of the city. Another fine residence section, Pacific Heights, escaped, together with that known as the Western Addition. The unburned territory, although large in extent, was in the nature of suburbs and was not closely built up, so that estimates made as late as Saturday declared that three-quarters of San Francisco's improvements on real estate had been destroyed. The burned district is about two miles from east to west and from two to four miles from

north to south, with, of course, very irregular lines. The money loss by fire may be from two to three hundred million dollars, and it is feared that some of the fire insurance companies may be overwhelmed by their liabilities. What may be the uninsured and pitiful loss of personal property, especially by the poor and homeless families, is not capable of being reckoned in figures.



The Concentration Camps

More than 200,000 people, it is said, slept on Thursday

and Friday nights in the great camps established in Golden Gate Park, in the Presidio, and at Fort Mason, tens of thousands crossed the ferries and sought refuge in Oakland, Berkeley, and Alameda, while other thousands camped in the small parks, public buildings, and the open field. Suffering was serious and widespread despite the mild and clear weather. Water was scarce and its distribution difficult; food was at first hard to come at, and there seemed danger that it might temporarily give All accounts agree, out altogether. however, that the people as a whole were patient, resourceful, and mutually helpful. Attempts at plunder and extortion were promptly met and sternly punished. General Funston, commanding the United States troops, lent the municipal authorities invaluable aid in preserving order, picketing the lines and aiding the refugees. Citizens' committees were active in every direction. Soldiers, police, and firemen toiled incessantly and efficiently. A few miscreants were shot; some provision dealers who tried to charge a dollar for a loaf of bread were arbitrarily forced to desist. The dead were buried in trenches here and there by the older men workers. The injured and feeble were protected and helped to hospitals. Tents were erected by hundreds in the camps. Everywhere were seen picturesque as well as pathetic and heartrending incidents, and everywhere was a disposition to make the best of things. The greatest danger now is from sanitary conditions, which are necessarily bad in the beginning but are rapidly being improved.

Relief at Hand The moment the situation became understood the Nation rushed to the aid of the stricken people of San Francisco. Congress appropriated first a million dollars for relief, and later added a second million. Secretary Taft devoted his whole time to setting in motion the War Department's machinery to hurry from every available point tents, provisions, and, if needed, soldiers. Chambers of Commerce and other public agencies subscribed and gathered vast amounts. Individuals contributed sums ranging from the \$100,000 each of Andrew Carnegie and W. W. Astor to the dollar of the workingman. By Saturday it was estimated that at least ten millions had been subscribed, and from every quarter supplies were hastening by the train-load to San Francisco. President Roosevelt recommended that "the outpouring of the Nation's aid should, as far as possible, be intrusted to the American Red Cross, the National organization best fitted to undertake such relief work." Of this National society Secretary Taft is President, and it is now so organized that it can easily and naturally co-operate with those instruments of the Federal, State, and municipal governments which will be employed in alleviating distress. Many of the States have well-organized branches. It is most fortunate that of these the California branch is among those best established. For money contributed through this channel there will be a public accounting, and contributions intrusted to the Red Cross will have the greater value because they will be utilized in conjunction with the public authorities. For this reason The Outlook advises its readers to make their contributions for the relief of San Francisco, and of other places injured by the earthquake, through the Red Cross Society. Money may be sent either to the State treasurers or to the National treas-The largest State branch is that of New York, and its Treasurer is Jacob H. Schiff, Room 309, 300 Fifth Avenue. The Treasurer of the American National Red Cross is Charles Hallam Keep, Washington, D. C. Dr. Edward T. Devine, Secretary of the New York City Charity Organization Society and Professor of Sociology in Columbia Univer-

sity, has been chosen to assume control of all Red Cross relief work in the State of California. It is certain that support from outside will be needed for an indefinite period. Too much praise cannot be given to the military and municipal authorities in San Francisco for the work already done, but they must have National support and organized relief. That San Francisco will be rebuilt is already an assured fact, and that it will so be rebuilt and so supplied with water as to render impossible, even in case of earthquake, the devastation of last week is confidently predicted.

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The President's Criticism of the Judiciary When Judge Humphrey, of the United States District Court of Chicago, decided

that the beef-packers under criminal indictment were immune, by virtue of the information which they had given to the Bureau of Corporations, it was clear that some change in the law would have to be made unless Judge Humphrey's decision were reversed. It is evident that Congress never intended to make one law for the control of corporations interfere with the operations under another law designed also to control corporations; and yet that was the practical effect of the decision. The President has, consequently, sent a special message to Congress recommending that Congress pass "a declaratory act stating its real intention." The President points out the necessity also of allowing the Government "the same right of appeal in criminal cases, on questions of law, which the defendant now has, in all cases where the defendant has not been put in jeopardy by a trial upon the merits of the charge made against him." He, moreover, urges the desirability of enacting a law "declaring the true construction of the existing legislation so far as it affects immunity." In commenting on this he justly adds:

Our system of criminal jurisprudence has descended to us from a period when the danger was lest the accused should not have his rights adequately preserved, and it is admirably framed to meet this danger. But at present the danger is just the reverse; that is, the danger nowadays is, not that innocent

men will be convicted of crime, but that the guilty man will go scot free. This is especially the case where the crime is one of greed and cunning, perpetrated by a man of wealth in the course of those business operations where the code of conductis at variance, not merely with the code of humanity and morality, but with the code as established in the law of the land.

With this The Outlook heartily agrees. The same principle was laid down by Secretary Taft in his speech at Yale Law School last summer. But when the President goes on to speak in criticism of Judge Humphrey's decision, he employs phraseology which one would hardly like to see even in newspaper comment. He says that "the result has been a miscarriage of justice," that he can "hardly believe that the ruling of Judge Humphrey will be followed by other judges," and that "such interpretation of the law comes measurably near making the law a farce." This language of the President is hardly in accordance with the principle on which he acted when, in reply to the labor leaders headed by Mr. Gompers, he delivered a rebuke to them for submitting to him a criticism of a co-ordinate branch of the Government. In that case it was Congress whose dignity the President regarded. The judiciary is also a co-ordinate branch of the Government with the executive. Its position is such that its power and usefulness are in great measure dependent upon the respect which the people pay to it. There is no occasion for making of the courts a fetish; but the American people are not so lawabiding that it is wholesome for any public man so to speak of the judiciary as to lower popular respect for the courts.

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The Outlook expressed Comment on the its own views of the ' Muck-Rake'' President's address on Speech the "Man with the Muck-Rake," together with a reprint of the speech itself, last week. Those newspapers which made their criticisms of the address before it was delivered discovered after its delivery that they had to do their work over again. Much to their surprise, they found that the noteworthy thing about this speech was not, after all, a criticism of critics, but a proposition for an amelioration of conditions out of which the "muck-rakers" had made capital. The Cincinnati "Post" is one of the few newspapers which thought it worth while to debate at length the President's protest against hysteria. It considers that protest untimely in view of the fact that "our fault as a people is not in too much complaint, but in too easy tolerance of wrongs.' The passage in the President's speech which has aroused discussion all over this country, and even evoked comment from the British press, is that in which he recommends a tax upon fortunes transmitted by gift or inheritance. This discussion has revealed many points of view, and has been participated in by some journalists who seem to have no point of view whatever. One of the most unintentionally amusing comments has been made by the "News and Courier," of Charleston, South Carolina. This paper says, with calm indifference to the meaning of words, that the President's suggestion "is Socialism in one of its most radical manifestations, and it indicates a policy which will meet with high favor by the reactionary element in both the old-line political parties." thus expressing its surprise at such a "radical" and "reactionary" proposition, it announces with entire equanimity a suggestion made "by a thoughtful student of social and political problems in this town," namely, Charleston, that "enormous fortunes . . . shall revert in large part to the State upon the death of their owners." Some newspapers urge that the taxation or confiscation of fortunes should be made, not by the Federal Government, but by the State. this the Milwaukee "Free Press" says:

There is manifest justice in the idea of this tax being imposed by the National Government—the proceeds going into the National Treasury. Most of the fortunes of unhealthy limits as to size are sapped up from the country at large, rather than from one small portion of it—as a State. There would be no justice in the State of New Jersey, or New York, getting all of the Rockefeller wealth except a million or two that might be allowed to pass on to the billionaire's children.

Volatile as the American people often are in matters which appeal to the sentiments and the emotions, they are conservative in matters of thought and opin-

ion. In respect to this proposition of the President's, this conservative trait has been tersely expressed by a Southern newspaper, the "Ledger," of Birmingham, Alabama, in these two sentences:

The American idea has been to allow a man to make all he can. That is so clearly a man's right that nobody except the Socialists object to it.

And the New York "Times" is so confident that the present industrial system and order are of divine origin that it ventures to think that

Upon more mature reflection the President may conclude that it is not wise to undertake to interfere, by Governmental operations, with the natural course of our evolution. He may even come to be impressed with the wisdom of the familiar line:

I sometimes think that it were best to leave the Lord alone.

This conservative opinion, or at least the tendency to be cautious in formulating views about matters that have not been framed in conventional party pronouncements, has been evinced in the disinclination of many public men to express their opinion upon the proposition to put limits upon fortunes. Senator Clark, of Montana, who is reputed to be the richest man in the Senate, expressed the opinion, as reported in the press, that there was "no warrant for this unrest and agitation." On the other hand, Professor Franklin H. Giddings, of Columbia University, who is everywhere recognized as an authority on social science, is reported to have said that Mr. Roosevelt has exercised great political foresight in forestalling a bitter class struggle between the power of great wealth and the power of a workingman's socialism by formulating plans designed to maintain the present social organism by limiting it in the interest of the whole public. Strange to say, very little comment has been called forth by the apparently more immediately practicable proposition of the President for the Federal licensing of corporations doing an inter-State business.

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Operators Reject Miners'
Compromise Offer
The representatives of the anthracite-car-

rying railroad companies on April 16 rejected the final compromise offer of

the representatives of the hard-coal mine employees to the effect that the differences between them preventing a resumption of mining operations be submitted for arbitration to the Anthracite Coal Strike Commission. The formal reply of the operators closes with the statement that "we have no suggestions to make other than those contained in our former proposition," which were to the effect that only questions concerning wages and the adjustment of complaints be submitted for arbitration to at least a majority of the Strike Commission, a proposition that had previously been rejected by the representatives of the mine employees. The reply of the operators states that "the fundamental principles regarding the conduct of this business have all been established by the Strike Commission," and insists that no reason has been suggested why they should be retried. The next important steps bearing upon the situation will be the submission to a special convention of anthracite employees of a report of the negotiations which have been carried on with the operators since December last, and the action this convention will take in the matter. It is possible that the convention will accept the report of the committee, and then by resolution agree to a continuance of the arrangements and conditions of employment laid down by the Anthracite Coal Strike Commission's award. The alternative is the formal declaration of a strike to take the place of the present suspension. Strike conditions already prevail among the mining population of the three hardcoal fields. Marriages have been postponed, thousands of mine workers have left the region to secure employment elsewhere or have returned to their homes in southeastern Europe, family expenditures have been checked, business houses have laid off employees, the crews of coal trains and many yard employees have been thrown out of employment, and a general state of idleness prevails in all the mining Such conditions, although in towns. less accentuated forms, would have prevailed during the summer, however, even if there had been no formal suspension of coal-mining at this time, owing to the

over-supply of coal held by the railroad mining companies. It is estimated that nearly nine million tons of coal are in the different storage yards, and until this had been largely disposed of the mines would have been worked on half-time only, with corresponding idleness for the employees. The important developments in the bituminous mine labor situation the past week are the return of more workers to the mines in different States in consequence of the signing of the 1903 mining scale by other operators, and the rejection by the mine workers' officials of the offer of arbitration by the operators who refused to sign the 1903 scale. offer was referred to in The Outlook of April 21. The reasons given for its rejection by the National Executive Board of the United Mine Workers of America are its limitations in scope and the resulting unfairness of arbitration to those operators who have granted the compromise wage increase. An important announcement relating to the coal situation was made last week. United States Government has employed Mr. Charles E. Hughes, who conducted the insurance examination in New York, as special counsel to examine alleged violations of the Inter-State Commerce Law by the coal-carrying railway companies.

An Avalanche of

Immigrants

On one day last week over eighteen thousand immigrants were await-

ing examination in New York harbor. Large and well equipped as is the immigration office on Ellis Island, efficient and well organized as is the force of inspectors, such numbers are overwhelming. Five thousand a day are about all that can be adequately examined; that means that the equivalent of a good-sized village has to be so closely uspected that no pauper, no insane person or idiot, no case of contagious or loathsome disease, shall be allowed to pass. Of this community, in other words, a census has to be taken, and the physical condition of each of its members has to be diagnosed. Even the normal number of immigrants taxes the ability of the inspectors to the utmost. It requires a high degree of alertness, skill, trained judg-

ment, experience, and common sense to pick out from a steadily moving file of foreigners those who are not legally admissible. When, therefore, there is such human congestion as that which has existed at Ellis Island these past few days. the conditions are serious. By Saturday, 45,000 immigrants, it is estimated, had reached the port of New York during the week. Of course there has been nothing to do but to keep shipload after shipload waiting unlanded. In the meantime other crowded vessels have been arriving, each of them black with people—floating hives covered with human Enough foreigners arrived in New York harbor last week to populate a city a fifth larger than Tacoma, Washington. Is it conceivable that such a host, one-half again as large as the greatest number heretofore arriving in the same interval and greater than the total number of immigrants for any year prior to 1832, can be properly scrutinized in any one place within the space of a week? Is it not clear that inspection ought to be made in the various ports of embarkation rather than concentrated in one place on this side of the Atlantic? There is now pending in both houses of Congress a bill placing further restrictions upon immigration. It seems imperative that some legislative action be taken. Even arbitrary restrictions, although they might do nothing more than limit the number without affecting the quality of immigrants, appear now to be preferable to a continuation of present conditions.



The New York Legisla-The Insurance ture acted last week on Legislation all of the insurance bills introduced by the Armstrong Committee, sending them to the Governor in practically the form into which they had been finally put by the Committee. An attack which promised for a time to be successful was made in the Senate on one of the most important parts of the main An amendment was introduced by Senator Horace White, of Syracuse, eliminating the provision requiring mutual companies to make public the lists of their policy-holders previous, to an elec-

tion. The amendment was forced through the Senate against the protest of Senator Armstrong that it would fatally weaken the whole plan of the insurance legislation and would make it impossible for the policy-holders of the New York Life and the Mutual to exert any influence against the old management at the coming election. An immediate outburst of public disapproval throughout the State and the prompt and energetic action of Governor Higgins secured a reconsideration and the rejection of the amendment the next day. The bill was then passed without further amendment. This completes the work of the Armstrong Committee, crowning it with the success which the faithful, unselfish, and tireless labors of its members so richly deserve. In contrast to the excellent record of the Legislature in the insurance legislation is its action in regard to the tax on the surplus of savings banks. Both the Republican party and Governor Higgins personally had pledged themselves to the repeal of this tax; but, in spite of this pledge, the bill providing for its repeal was defeated in the Senate last week. It is reported that the bill was killed for political reasons in an attempt to embarrass the Senator who introduced The failure to carry out its expressed pledge, for purposes of factional revenge, reflects the greatest discredit on the Republican party in the New York Legislature.

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The two hundredth anni-The Franklin versary of the birth of Celebration Franklin was observed in Philadelphia last week by a series of deeply interesting meetings. It is not often that a great public man is so closely identified with a locality as was Franklin with Philadelphia-his home for many years, and the place in which he worked out many of his experiments, both scientific and practical. There was a large representation of foreign scientists, among them Sir George Howard Darwin, who presented to the American Philosophical Society, in the very building in which Franklin formerly presided over its sessions, a medallion of Franklin, which he put into the hands of the

presiding officer, Professor W. B. Scott, of Princeton, a great-great-grandson of Franklin, and a medallion of Erasmus Darwin, one of Sir George's great-grand-Professor Hugo de Vries, of Amsterdam, Professor Pickering, of Harvard, Professor Knight, of London, Professors Nichol, of Cornell, Chamberlin, of Chicago University, Royce, of Cambridge, and Rutherford, of Montreal, contributed to the discussion of the different sides of Franklin's wonderfully fruitful career. The most picturesque feature of the celebration came at the close of the opening exercises in Witherspoon Hall when Mr. Carnegie, wearing a brilliant scarlet robe as Lord Rector of the University of St., Andrews, conferred upon Miss Agnes Irwin, Dean of Radcliffe College, and a granddaughter of Franklin, the degree of LL.D. from the same Scotch university which in 1759 conferfed that degree on Franklin. Miss Irwin is the fourth woman whom the University of St. Andrews has honored with this degree. The presentation of a degree by a venerable foreign university to the great-granddaughter of Franklin was the most picturesque incident, but the presentation of the Franklin medal to the Republic of France, in accordance with the act of Congress, was perhaps the most significant. The ceremonies were held in the Academy of Music, and the presentation was made by Mr. Root, Secretary of State, to M. Jusserand, French Ambassador. Previous to the presentation, addresses in commemoration of Franklin were made by Dr. Horace Howard Furness, President Eliot, and Mr. Choate. Dr. Furness's interpretation of Franklin's character was especially intelligent and happy. said, among other things:

No more auspicious star twinkles for us in the firmament than that which shone on the birth of Franklin. Under it he was endowed with an unappeasable hunger for knowledge; with a temperament so equable that the sight of injustice could alone disturb its poise; with a wisdom so comprehensive that no experience of life, however humble, failed to enlarge it; with a sagacity so sure that it partook of a prophet's fire; with an honesty so ingrained that in his "Autobiography" he would endure disgrace rather than seem to be what he was not; with a sense of humor so keen that it kept him from

yielding to the obtrusive vagaries of overwrought enthusiasm.

President Eliot, on the other hand, dealt chiefly with Franklin's attitude toward public affairs:

Franklin's political philosophy may all be summed up in seven words—first freedom, then public happiness and comfort. spirit of liberty was born in him. He resented his brother's blows when he was an apprentice, and escaped from them. As a mere boy he refused to attend church on Sundays, in accordance with the custom of his family and his town, and devoted his Sundays to reading and study. In practicing his trade he claimed and diligently sought complete freedom. In public and private business alike he tried to induce people to take any action desired by them by presenting to them a motive they could understand and feel-a motive which acted on their own wills and excited their hopes. This is the only method possible under a régime of liberty.

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Mr. John Burns, the English Civil List labor leader, once contended **Parsimony** that no man's work is worth more than twenty-five hundred dollars a year; he has had to take considerable bantering, however, since he has accepted a Cabinet office which pays ten thousand dollars a year. The fact is, as President Eliot said in his recent address at Chicago, the day-laborer—Mr. Burns was that once-will never believe that any man can fairly earn a great salary. No ironbound rule, indeed, can be laid down in the matter. As regards our Government servants, however, we do not gauge their salaries by the accumulated amount of wealth represented in the business managed—but we should gauge them by a reasonable estimate of the inherent worth of human service. The President of the United States is obliged to be satisfied with a smaller salary than that paid to the heads of some minor European countries; yet what man fills an office of greater responsibility? In a recent article in the "NorthAmerican Review" ex-Postmaster-General James declared that President Monroe, on retiring from the Presidency, was compelled to sell his library for want of money and go to work in order actually to exist, and that President Benjamin Harrison was obliged after his term of office to take up his profession again in order properly to provide for his family,

saving more in the year following his retirement from the Presidency than he had been able to save in the four years of his incumbency; that William Windom, Secretary of the Treasury, was compelled to enter active business after he had retired from President Garfield's Cabinet; that Windom's successor, Governor Foster, administered the secretaryship when his private affairs were really on the verge of bankruptcy, yet, knowing what the Government straits were soon to be with regard to gold, he could have profited by that knowledge had he been so disposed; that Mr. Carlisle came to New York, after four years' service as Secretary of the Treasury, absolutely dependent on the practice of his profes-As Mr. James pointed out, Mr. Wilson, Secretary of Agriculture, showed the other day that the value of the agricultural products of the United States for 1905 considerably exceeded six thousand million dollars, and also showed with what great rapidity the value of the farms themselves is increasing. Notwithstanding this augmented wealth, and notwithstanding the higher cost of living, there has been no increase, in a general way, of the salaries of our public officials.

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Progressive as Amer-The Workman is icans have been in Worthy of His Hire most directions, we are among the backward nations in compensating our high public officers. In the business and professional worlds Americans receive far higher salaries than men of corresponding positions in other countries, but our great Government officials, the men upon whom the prosperity of the country vitally depends, are paid low salaries compared with officials of like responsibility in any other country. We are glad that public attention has now been drawn to this subject by Congressmen themselves. sentative Longworth, of Ohio, in a recent speech pointed out the fact that the salaries of the President, Vice-President, Supreme Court Justices, Cabinet Ministers, and Ambassadors are very much smaller than our Government can easily afford and should pay; for instance, the salary of the

Auditor of the Panama Canal is ten thousand dollars a year, while his chief, the Secretary of War, receives eight thousand dollars. Nor are the salaries of Senators and Representatives adequate for a proper performance of the duties which they owe to their constituents and their country. In this spirit Representative Longworth recently introduced a bill practically to increase the salaries of our diplomats abroad by providing permanent embassies and legations; and as to our home officials, Representative Loudenslager, of New Jersey, presented a bill to increase the salaries of the heads of Executive Departments to fifteen thousand dollars a year each, and the salary of the Vice-President of the United States to twenty-five thousand dollars a year; we wish that he had also included a doubling of the President's salary.

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To Helen Keller's appeal Helen Keller's for the blind, printed Appeal in another place in this issue, we add our indorsement rather for our own sake than for hers. The Outlook wishes to be counted with her. The first duty which every man owes to society is to be self-supporting; the most fundamental charity is help to the willing to become self-supporting. the blind can be made self-supporting, that they are eager to become self-supporting, and that they cannot become self-supporting without aid from the seeing, Helen Keller abundantly demonstrates. In the two States of New York and Massachusetts associations have been formed, first, to give such aid, and, second, by so doing on a moderate scale, to inspire the State to take up the work and carry it on upon a larger The immediate requests of these associations are very moderate. New York's asks for the current year \$15,000. It has, we believe, no paid officers. immediate needs of the Massachusetts organization we are not able to state, but they are not large. When the possibility of rendering the blind independent and self-supporting has been established beyond all question, we may reasonably hope that the States will

undertake the work of providing industrial education and industrial opportunities for them—but not before. Meanwhile, those who wish to be counted among the pioneers can send their contributions, or their inquiries for fuller information, for the Massachusetts Association, to Mr. Charles F. F. Campbell, 393A Broadway, Cambridge, Massachusetts; for the New York Association, to Mr. Herbert S. Barnes, 35 Wall Street, the treasurer, or to Miss Winifred Holt, 44 East Seventy-eighth Street, the secretary. Such contributions will be applied effectively to help the blind to support themselves.

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Daniel Huntington, Daniel Huntington who died at his home in New York City on Wednesday of last week, was probably the oldest artist of rank in the country, and had long been one of the best known. His career may be said to cover the whole history of American art after the close of the period of Copley, Stuart, and Allston. point of age he was the leader of the older school of American painters, and for many years any kind of memorial painting for municipalities or organized bodies was apt to go his way by a kind of predestination, as in Holland it went to Frans Hals or Rembrandt. He had distinguished New England ancestry, was educated in the good old-fashioned way in an academy in the days when academies were places of liberal education. He had the great good fortune to be prepared for college by Dr. Horace Bushnell, and began formal college work at Hamilton. His love of art, however. and his predestination to use the brush as an instrument of expression, interrupted his college course. Fortunate friendships confirmed his taste, and at a very early age he left college and began painting portraits. He studied, meanwhile, under Inman and Professor Samuel F. B. Morse, who at that time was Professor of the Literature of the Arts of Design in the University of the City of New York, and a professional painter. As far back as 1835 Mr. Huntington painted two pictures—"The Bar-room Politician" and "The Toper Asleep" which attracted wide attention and gave

him some reputation. A year later he was painting in the highlands of the Hudson, in the neighborhood of Rondout Creek, and demonstrating his right to be a leader of what has since been called the Hudson River School. Four vears later he went abroad, studied in Rome, Florence, and Paris, and painted a number of pictures which were widely discussed. After a brief residence in his own country he went back to Europe on account of failing eyesight, and lived for two years in Florence. On his return to New York in 1845 he gave the emphasis of his efforts to portraiture. The list of prominent men in England and the United States who sat for him is a long and distinguished one, and his brush has preserved the features of many of the best-known women of New York and Washington. He became an academician in 1840, was elected president in 1862, and held that position until 1891, when he resigned. A contemporary critic said of him that few of our painters "have exhibited greater versatility of talent or more broad and pure artistic sympathies. ... He has delineated scenery and executed genre pictures with eminent success, so that his artist life is singularly representative and suggestive." The large picture, crowded with figures, sometimes known as "The Republican Court," but which the artist called "Mrs. Washington's Reception," contains between sixty five and seventy portraits of men and women, and was painted with the most painstaking fidelity, the artist having sought out and studied all accessible material in the way of portraiture. He is said to have painted more than a thousand portraits and at least two hundred other pictures, his portraits being distinguished by simplicity, dignity, and richness of coloring, and his landscapes by sincere feeling for nature and by admirable technical skill. Mr. Huntington was associated with the best things in the life of New York and of the country. He was one of the founders of the Century Association, and its president from 1879 until 1895. His long life was stainless, his devotion to his profession tireless and enthusiastic, his capacity for friendship notable, and his kindness tireless.

The Glory of San Francisco

Above the awful ruins of San Francisco, above the pall of dust and smoke which overhangs it, is a splendor which will remain long after the ruins and the cloud have disappeared, and no one can understand the true meaning of this tragedy who fails to see this splendor that of brave, true men and women. These, not buildings of steel and brick and stone, constitute the glory of a city, and these are not ruined. Never did they shine more luminous than in the awful days which have just passed. Above the crash of falling buildings, the explosions of dynamite, the cries of the wounded and the dying, one might hear, voiced not in words but in splendid deeds, the chant:

"We will not fear though the earth be removed,

And though the mountains be carried into the midst of the sea;

Though the waters thereof roar and be troubled,

Though the mountains shake with the swelling thereof."

We build our cities with strong and noble architecture, we call on all our knowledge and skill to create material symbols of our wealth that shall be able to defy the forces of nature, and a cyclone blows upon them and they are carried away by its breath like a child's house of cards, or the fire creeps stealthily upon them and they burn like shavings in the furnace, or the volcano opens its mouth and laps them up with its fiery tongue, or the earth shakes them and they fall upon the ground as though smitten with hopeless terror. And cyclone, fire, volcano, and earthquake repeat the lesson we are so slow to learn, that the material is not the real, not the permanent. Its strength is fragility, its endurance transient.

But, at the same time, indomitable courage, unshaken patience, exhaustless charity, find in the disaster their opportunity; in the tragedy their glory. They also repeat to us a lesson—that the immaterial is the real, the spiritual is the indestructible. The real tragedy is the collapse of a human soul, and, thank

God, what the disaster at San Francisco reveals is the soul of a great people unshaken by earthquake, unsinged by fire.

In that hour the hearts of men were revealed, because the conventions of society were loosened, and the people were thrown back upon their instincts and their impulses for guidance. Doubtless there were shameful scenes of panic and of sordid selfishness, but there were also resplendent deeds of unselfish devotion, and it was this spirit of devotion that was dominant. The citizens making their brave fight against the devouring flames after the water supply was exhausted and courage was no longer reenforced by hope, the conversion of the food supplies of the city into a common stock to be shared by the hungry as necessity might dictate, the invitation to the homeless to find shelter in the houses that remained, the offer of free carriage across the bay by the railway company to the fleeing throngs, the inrush of physicians from the surrounding country to tend the wounded and the dying without charge, the volunteer burial service for rich and poor in a common grave, the Catholic priest putting up his altar and conducting service in the open air that reverence and faith might not be without a witness, the Mayor reflecting the purpose of the people in his public message to the Nation that a new San Francisco will be rebuilt upon the ruins of the old, the quick response of the whole country, by Congress and by unnumbered thousands of individual givers, offering their aid before a call had been made for succor these and kindred incidents stand out to show that San Francisco is not destroyed nor America injured. For no city is destroyed while her people remain brave and true, and no country is injured while her people are united in the faith that the injury of one is an opportunity for service to his uninjured neighbor.

"The removing of those things that are shaken, as of things that are made," says the sacred writer, "signifieth that those things which cannot be shaken may remain." The Outlook makes here no attempt to explain the ways of God. We essay a humbler task: to point out a lesson that may be learned from the earthquake and the fire—the

lesson that the glory of America lies, not in her material things, but in her spirit. The material things may at any time crumble to dust or be consumed to ashes; but if so, the only effect is to give her heart of courage and of charity a new opportunity for exercise. And it is this spirit which alone makes either an individual or a nation great.

The Divorce Decision

The Supreme Court of the United States has rendered a decision which it is reasonable to believe will have the effect of putting an end to fraudulent divorces.

The Constitution of the United States provides that full faith and credit shall be given in each State to the judicial proceedings of every other State; but, in order that such credit shall be given, the court whose judicial proceedings are in question must have jurisdiction of the case and of the parties involved. is necessary to give a State court jurisdiction of the parties is a question which has often been before the Supreme Court of the United States. It has decided that if a court grants divorce in accordance with the laws of a State, that divorce is binding on the parties and properties within the State, although the defendant may never have had notice of the divorce proceedings; that if both the parties appear in the case, this appearance gives the court jurisdiction; that if the husband and wife have lived in the State and the wife has left her husband and moved into another State, the courts of the State from which she has moved have jurisdiction and the divorce decreed by them is valid although she has not been personally served with its process. But it has now decided that if a husband and wife have had no residence within the State. and one of them, say the husband, has obtained residence in it, having previously separated from his wife, the decree of divorce granted by such State has no legal effect beyond the boundaries of that State unless the wife has been personally served with process or otherwise brought within the State's jurisdiction. We cannot better indicate the

effect of this decision than by quoting from the opinion of Judge White his statement of the effect which would be produced by the opposite opinion that a State may grant a legal divorce to a man residing in that State though his wife has never resided in it and has never been personally served with the summons:

Under the rule contended for [and condemned by the Supreme Court] it would follow that the States whose laws were the most lax as to length of residence required for domicile, as to causes for divorce and to speed of procedure concerning divorce, would in effect dominate all the other States. In other words, any person who was married in one State and who wished to violate the marital obligations would be able, by following the lines of least resistance, to go into the State whose laws were the most lax, and there avail of them for the purpose of the severance of the marriage tie and the destruction of the rights of the other party to the marriage contract, to the overthrow of the laws and public policy of the other States. Thus the argument comes necessarily to this, that to preserve the lawful authority of all the States over marriage it is essential to decide that all the States have such authority only at the sufferance of the other States.

Grouping these decisions of the Supreme Court, the results may be thus briefly stated: If a State wishes to go back to the pagan-Roman conception of marriage as a partnership which can be dissolved at the pleasure of either party, it is at liberty to do so, and divorces granted by that State will be legal within the boundaries of the State. If a husband and wife living in another State wish to adopt the pagan-partnership conception of marriage, they can move to such pagan State and get the divorce and it will be legal. But if the husband alone wishes to turn pagan and moves to the State where marriage is regarded as a dissolvable partnership, he cannot compel his wife to accept his new conception of the marriage relation, and any divorce which he may obtain within the State to which he has moved will have no force or effect outside of its boundaries.

It is thought by some of the newspapers that the effect of this decision will be to add impetus to the movement for uniform divorce laws. We think that it will have the opposite effect. The chief complaint against the present working of divorce laws in America, by those who

believe that marriage is something more than a commercial partnership, dissolvable at the pleasure of either party, has been that the States whose divorce laws are most lax have been able to impose those laws on all the other States. will no longer be possible. We shall continue to have some States which believe that husband and wife should live together until death do them part, and others which believe that every marital tiff or uncongeniality of temper should lead to a separation and a new experiment. But the people of one State will not have their marriage laws invalidated by the decrees of another State. They will have therefore no longer the same reason that they have had in the past for desiring some amendment of the Constitution limiting the power of those who hold the pagan conception of marriage to impose it upon those who hold the Christian conception of marriage. Any uniform divorce law would be necessarily a compromise between these two conceptions. It is at least questionable whether the injury to the family would not be greater than the benefit.

It may be reasonably hoped that this decision of the Supreme Court will effectually put an end, not indeed to all divorces on inadequate grounds, but to all fraudulent and grossly unjust divorces.

Public Responsibility for Mob Violence

Two months ago a crowd of men and boys in Springfield, Ohio, inflamed by the murderous deeds of two negroes, terrorized a sordid negro quarter of the city, demolished buildings, and set the forces of order at defiance. A number of young men and boys were arrested. Some were acquitted; others were fined one dollar apiece and costs, and their fine remitted. The Outlook, having characterized this proceeding as a travesty on justice, has received from Springfield the following letter:

To the Editors of The Outlook:

As one of the jurors drawn to sit upon the case of the alleged rioters arrested in this city a few weeks ago, and at the request of



other jurors and many prominent citizens of Springfield, I wish to say, briefly: The real rioters in the Springfield outbreak were never before this jury. Thirteen young men and boys were arraigned. Five were acquitted and eight technically convicted. The difference in the jury's verdict was based on this distinction: Those not shown to have started with or followed the mob crowd were re-leased. Those who, in the prevailing excitement, or through motives of youthful curiosity, kept with the crowd, but who committed no act of destruction or violence, were convicted under the first clause of a very severe indictment, namely, of "being found in an unlawful assembly." Not one, even of the latter, was proven to have done a single morally culpable act during the night of the riot. Propriety and public opinion, however, seemed to require a distinction to be made

in the verdict.

The police court officials, fire marshals, and the military authorities would have gladly given out to the world that in the person of these thirteen unoffending youths the real rioters, hose-cutters, and house-burners had been captured and punished. The fact is, the sharks and dog-fish got away, as they usually do, and the minnows were ensnared in the net. Those arrested spent from one to six nights in jail, according as they were or were not able to furnish bail. I repeat, not one of the actual rioters was

tried before this jury.

1906

The Outlook, in its issue of April 7, said: "If there could be any surer method of bringing ridicule upon criminal proceedings, it is apparently unknown in Springfield, Ohio." There could be, however, a "surer method of bringing ridicule upon criminal proceedings." It would be to punish the innocent because the guilty had escaped, and to allow public assumption, or the oratory of an eloquent police prosecutor, to usurp the place which in such a trial can justly be given only to the evidence.

CHARLES S. KAY.

Springfield, Ohio.

Either these boys were guilty of rioting or they were not. If they were guilty, the community could not release them from punishment without sharing in their crime and abetting them in lawlessness. If they were not guilty, the community was inexcusably at fault both in attempting formally to put some of the stigma upon them, and in failing to secure the real offenders. No explanation can change the fact that Springfield, Ohio, has twice suffered a mob to destroy property and menace the safety of citizens, and has twice allowed the mob to go unpunished. That community is in a sorry state of intellectual and moral confusion which

first permits within its borders a vicious quarter to flourish, and then acquiesces in attacks on that quarter by an irresponsible mob. No one community, however, is sinner above all others. As The Outlook said two years ago when the first of the two mobs held sway in Springfield, Ohio, "There are unnumbered communities in the United States. outwardly peaceable to-day, which are in fact as lawless as was Springfield" during the mob rule. And now another of these communities has revealed its law-Springfield, Missouri, has follessness. lowed the example of its Northern namesake, and has permitted a mob to seize and lynch negroes awaiting trial; and citizens of the place have shown a readiness to render judgment without waiting for the due process of law. Wherever, in fact, the community allows lawbreaking to continue unmolested so long as it is not scandalously open and too troublesome, it abdicates its throne as sovereign; it must, therefore, not be surprised if, when the mob seizes its throne, rudely does the work which the community ought to have done in an orderly fashion, and for a time rules in its stead, it loses its repute as a civilized community.

There is a sound foundation for the American public sentiment which holds a community morally responsible for the deeds of violence perpetrated within its borders. We are informed that the State of Ohio has by statute relieved its counties and cities from legal responsibility to property-owners for damage_done by mobs. If this is so, that State has denied to its citizens and residents one of the rights which all people who live in civilized lands ought to have. The man whose house is destroyed by a mob has, under such conditions, no recourse. cannot recover from the community, and of course he cannot recover from the irresponsible, propertyless rioters. He cannot trust for protection to the Government under which he lives; he can trust only to the chance that no mob will rise, or that, if a mob does rise, it will be checked. But, however broadly the State may grant to its local governments immunity for their own neglect, public opinion will justly hold them morally responsible, and will deny to them to

just that extent the right to call themselves civilized.

Great Fortunes

Every child comes into this world without anything. There are only three ways by which he can get anything: he can produce it by his industry; he can receive it from his neighbor; he can get it from the common stock.

Man can produce wealth by his industry—of brain or hand, in making goods or in finding a market for them, in service material or in service intellectual and spiritual. He may weave a piece of cloth or he may organize a factory and give employment to a thousand theretofore idle men. One is industry as truly as the other. Law ought not to put limits on honest and honorable industry. It ought to encourage, not discourage, service, whether of brain or hand. It were well if the State might levy no tax on property thus produced. If it could come by its own, it would no longer need to tax industry.

Man can receive wealth from another who already possesses it. He may receive it as a gift, as the child through his childhood receives from his parent food, clothing, shelter, education. The law may limit the amount which one man may receive by gift from another, and such limitations have sometimes been imposed. But man may also get wealth from his fellow-man otherwise than by gift: as by robbery, by theft, by fraud, by gambling. Robbery, theft, fraud, gambling, ought to be prohibited and as far as possible prevented by law. Little nefarious operations are prohibited, but not great ones the confidence game of the bunco man, but not the confidence game of the unscrupulous financier; gambling with dice, but not gambling in stocks and in grain and cotton. Senator Washburn proposed a bill to prohibit the latter form of gambling: it was defeated; it might receive more favorable consideration now.

The third method of acquiring wealth is getting it out of the common wealth of which the continent is a storehouse—out of the great forests, great prairies, great

mines, great reservoirs of oil, great rivers, great lakes, great natural forces like steam and electricity, and the great highways, whether of the Nation, the State, or the city. These belong, of right, to all the people. Under our industrial system they are offered to any man who is shrewd enough or unscrupulous enough, or both, to get possession of them.

Most if not all the enormous fortunes have been largely made by the second or the third method—by gambling operations or by getting possession of the common stock. If we accept the popular estimate of the elder Cornelius Vanderbilt's wealth at, say, \$180,000,000, and assume the popular chronology of the Bible, then we may say that if Adam had lived six thousand years, worked three hundred days each year, and laid by one hundred dollars each day, he would have earned no more than Cornelius Vanderbilt acquired in a life-Part of that \$180,000,000 he produced by productive industry, and to that he was justly entitled. But if he acquired any proportion of it from the pockets of men less shrewd than himself by gambling operations, and if he acquired any proportion of it out of the common stock by obtaining possession of one of the greatest of the Nation's great highways, to that proportion he was not entitled. The Outlook does not blame him; it does not blame other men, now living, who have acquired greater fortunes in whole or in part by the same method. It blames the industrial system which has produced both them and their methods.

What we want is not a law to take the great fortunes from their possessors when they die; we want laws which will insure to honest industry of brain and muscle all that it can produce, which will prohibit, and as far as possible prevent, all operations by which shrewd men get from their less shrewd neighbors something for nothing, and which will secure the common wealth—the oil in the ground, the unworked mines, the virgin forests, the untilled prairies, the great rivers, the unharnessed forces of nature for all the people. If we can find ways to do this—and this is not impossible we can safely leave individuals to make

as great fortunes as they can make by honest productive industry.

Evolution or Revolution?

The change from autocratic to constitutional government now in process in Russia is the result of a long-continued economic and political crisis. The economic crisis has been due, first, to the discontent of the muzhiks, or peasants, who form four-fifths of the population. The large landed proprietors are producing more than they consume; the peasants are producing less than they consume. In order somewhat to equalize conditions, it naturally occurs to the muzhik, with leagues of untilled soil a little way from his village, that the ownership of part of the arable land might well pass from landlord to peasant, especially as the muzhik has always believed that crown lands somehow would eventually belong to the peasantry. A few well-intentioned ministers have, it is true, helped the muzhik. About a quarter of a century ago the Peasants' Land Bank was created to advance money to muzhik purchasers on the security of property bought, but, though followed by the absorption of millions of acres, has only slightly relieved the pressure on the peasantry as a whole. muzhik now realizes that the general government system precludes agricultural This is emphasized by the reprogress. cent famine and the recent war-events raising agrarian problems from which the muzhiks were the first to suffer.

The economic crisis has been due, secondly, to the growth of industrialism in the towns, where a discontented proletariat class has been produced partly by material hardships, partly by the propaganda of professional agitators of communistic trades unionism among the uneducated. The agitators have not failed pertinently to call attention to the injustice between employer and employed and to the exemption of Government beneficiaries from certain rates and taxes. Hence, in many places workmen went on strike, and the crisis was only slightly

lessened by the Government's admission to the franchise of workmen representing the larger establishments. Russian "industrials," called into being largely by the genius of Count Witte, the present Premier, are now, for the first time, a factor which must be reckoned with, not only in Russia's social but also in her political structure. For the "industrials" will never be satisfied until they obtain, educationally, a sufficient number of Government-endowed schools, and, economically, a system of higher wages and fewer hours, but also, politically, a practically unrestrained access to a Parliament.

The economic crisis in Russia has been due, thirdly, to the strike of discontented Government employees themselves-post, telegraph, railway, and other employees. The disintegration produced by their strike proceeded not only because their cessation of work isolated the Russian Government last autumn from communicating with the rest of the world, or even with the Russian provinces, districts, and cities, by rail, telegraph, or telephone; it has a moral value from the fact that these employees, like the agriculturists and the industrials, up to the present practically voiceless, have now made their appearance on both the economic and the political stage. They demanded concessions. They obtained them, and more than once. These three conscious elements, then, the agriculturists, the industrials, and certain of the Government employees, brought about a material crisis, and from it constituted an argument for practical political reform.

Three additional elements, however, reinforce the argument for political reform. These latter elements form a mass no less conscious, if less coherent, than those already mentioned. First, there are the annexed races and religions. The problem as to these has always been, What shall be made of them—shall they be slaves or equals, enemies or coworkers? A century ago Alexander I.'s generous ideas triumphed; then there was tolerance by fits and starts; finally there was systematic suppression, as we have lately seen in Finland. Out of that suppression, however, has come an effort

of the annexed peoples to regain their ancient liberties, which in the case of the Finns has already been crowned with deserved success.

Again, there is the quieter but stronger influence of the zemstvoists, or members of the provincial councils. Despite the fancied evil of a large representation of the nobility among those members and the real evil of the central Government's nullification of some zemstvo activity, the general zemstvo tendency has shown itself liberal. Reactionary nobles may not freely exercise their landowners' and employers' will under that tendency. Liberal nobles are so many protagonists for its representative and reforming quality; for instance, Prince Troubetskoy has said: "His Majesty can prevent a revolution. There is but one way. He must have confidence in the nation and in its representative bodies."

Finally, there are the revolutionaries. Aside from the extremes of Nihilism in the last century and of Socialism in this. the revolutionaries who command our attention, and not infrequently awaken our respect, are the so-called "intellectuals," the survivors and representatives of the student movement. Its influence has greatly increased ever since Russian students became imbued with the spirit of Comte's positivist philosophy, in which social reorganization is the ultimate object of scientific research; and especially since 1868, when the student exiles at Geneva founded the "Narodnoye Dyelo" (The Cause of the People), and actually succeeded in smuggling it across the Russian frontier—a magazine aiming to draw away the young generation from merely academic Nihilism to more practical revolutionary activity. As usual, throttled public opinion, here represented by the exiled students, took revenge by becoming revolutionary.

There are revolutionaries so crazed by the oppression under which they have lived that they are eager to throw off that oppression at whatever cost and then let come what may. There are other revolutionaries, however, who have a definite, conscious purpose of construction as well as destruction, who keep before themselves the ideal of democracy, and are opposed to anything which does

not promise a Russian republic. If that republic ever comes into being, it may be said to have been born on January 22, 1905—"Bloody Sunday." The events of that day brought forward Father Gapon, a priest who understood the psychology of the masses in so far as defiance to a vacillating "Little Father" is concerned, but who had no clear political policy or principle. Otherwise, when he won his claim against the Government for destruction of property belonging to workmen, he would not have kept for himself part of the award, as it is alleged that he did. A Russian writer has recently confessed, "A backbone is missing both in Russian virtues and Russian vices."

One who apparently contradicts this impression is Nicolas Tchaykovsky, the friend of Kropotkin and Stepniak, and the present able representative of the Russian revolutionaries in America. An article from his pen on the Russian situation will be found in this number of The Outlook. The Tchaykovsky ideal is a republic, but the Tchaykovsky methods are apparently to be those of force. What chance of success have they? Even suppose the peasantry and the army to be more disaffected than they are, with what possibility of victory could the revolutionaries hope to pass over the present transient political stage and meet the requirements of that most advanced political form of government—a republic? Is not their surer path the one now being trod with surprising success in the present elections by the Constitutional Democrats—a party which the revolutionary as well as the State Socialists have energized in part, for in Russia, reversing the usual order, democracy has been awakened by socialism? The condemnation by the revolutionaries of the Constitutional Democrats as being too "academic" is not sustained by the favor just shown at the polls to the latter, who, accepting monarchy as an unavoidable governmental form for the present in Russia, nevertheless stand unswervingly for a Russian constitution on a democratic basis. This is the only firm and feasible footing for a change in Russia from autocracy to democracy. In France, '93 succeeded '89, and was

in turn followed by a reaction of the most extreme kind. Unless the precedents of history are misleading, in Russia reform, to be lasting, must come by peaceful evolution rather than by armed revolution.

Educational Secularization in England

The new President of the English Board of Education is Mr. Augustine Birrell, well known as the author of "Obiter Dicta," "Res Judicatæ," and other charming essays. A fortnight ago Mr. Birrell won another title to fame by introducing in the House of Commons a new Education Bill. So far as personality and style are concerned, it is a long time since any one carried the House with him as did this speaker, and if his bill should pass it would mark a distinct turning-point in English history. the first time in that history an attempt is now made to secularize British education—probably the most important phase in an educational conflict which, ever since Joseph Lancaster opened his school for education on sectarian lines, has been waged intermittently for a century, continuously for a generation.

At present English elementary instruction is controlled by the Board of Education, which came into existence six years ago. In every district instruction must be provided for resident children between the ages of five and fourteen; those between twelve and fourteen may conditionally obtain from local by-laws partial or total exemption from school attendance. Under the Education Act of 1902 the local educational authorities are the councils of counties, county boroughs, non-county boroughs with population over ten thousand, and cities with population over twenty thousand. These local authorities must establish educational committees, which in turn appoint from a majority of their members a managing council.

Prior to 1902 there were two kinds of schools in England—established by the Act of 1870—the board or public schools and the voluntary or church schools.

Both were supported in part by grants from the central Government; the board schools, however, were empowered to draw upon the local "rates" for their supplementary income; the voluntary schools were so called because largely supported by local voluntary contributions. As the school-board rate grew, it became increasingly difficult to get voluntary subscriptions, and there was a consequent decline in the quality of the voluntary schools. In the board schools unsectarian religion was taught; in the voluntary schools sectarian doctrines were inculcated. In 1902 each was educating about half of the six millions of working-class children in England.

The Education Act of 1902 co-ordinated these two classes of schools, but it did not completely co-ordinate them. The board schools were thenceforth known as "provided" schools; the voluntary schools became "aided" schools. educational expenses of the latter were paid not only by the central Government but also by the local rates—despite the agreement of 1870 by which there was never to be sectarian teaching in rateaided schools! In return for this favor the managers of the aided schools gave the use of their buildings free of charge for elementary school purposes, agreed to maintain the buildings and to comply with pedagogical requirements, including the number and qualifications of the teachers as prescribed by the local education authorities. Regarding popular control, however, the Act of 1902 gave to the public but two seats out of six on the managing committee of each "aided" school; the religious composition of those committees therefore was frequently if not generally such as to favor the application of religious tests in selecting teachers for those schools. The whole scheme reminds one somewhat of the famous Concordat, now abrogated, between Church and State in France. The English Concordat aroused a storm of protest from those who did not belong to the Established Church. They vehemently objected to being taxed twice so as to provide for Church of England teaching; they also refused to pay school taxes on the ground that a system of taxation without representation had been

instituted; there was a consequent haling to court of hundreds of these convinced "passive resisters." Their case is strengthened in the new Parliament, in which there are upwards of a hundred and seventy Dissenters, most of whom are supporters of the Liberal Cabinet and the party in power.

Their protagonist is Mr. Birrell himself, in face, manner, and style a fine example of the "early Victorian" Non-The provisions of his bill, conformist. as reported, should be welcome, not only to all dissenters from State-aided Anglican methods in particular, but to all who oppose State aid given to any sectarian school, whether Anglican, Wesleyan, Roman Catholic, or Jewish. Mr. Birrell's bill transfers the control of all schools maintained at the public expense from county and city councils to the popularly elected local school boards. The Government will no longer subsidize "aided" schools; if continued, they are to receive Government grants of money only on condition that the school managers accept the same unsectarian religious teaching as now given in the "provided" schools. Beginning with 1908, all Government schools are to be "provided" schools. The bill authorizes the local education authorities, whenever necessary or desirable, to arrange with the owners of the "aided" school buildings for such use of them as is required to carry on an elementary school five days in the week, between the hours of 9 A.M. and 4 P.M. the authorities to be responsible for the maintenance of the school building. all schools unsectarian Christian teaching may be given between 9 and 9.45 A.M., the attendance of children not to be compulsory until after 9:45; thus any parent who objects to Bible teaching. either because it is insufficient or because he is an agnostic or a non-Christian, need not send his child to school until the secular curriculum begins. By consent of the local authorities, sectarian religious instruction may be permitted on two mornings a week outside of school hours, free of any charge to the taxpayers or of compulsory attendance to the children. In cities, however,

where there is a choice of schools to which parents can send their children. extended facilities for sectarian teaching are offered: should four-fifths of the parents of children attending any particular school desire it, sectarian teaching may be given every day outside of school This is probably meant to meet the needs of the Roman Catholics and Iews, though here and there an Anglican school would benefit by it. No member of the regular staff of teachers is allowed to give sectarian religious instruction, however, nor is any religious test to be applied in the selection of teachers, who are to be chosen solely by the local authorities. Thus public control is to be supreme and absolute over every primary school supported out of the public funds. For the taking over of the "aided" schools the bill provides an additional annual grant of five million dollars to the education budget from the imperial exchequer.

Mr. Birrell's bill is confessedly not a complete educational measure; for instance, it contains nothing about training colleges for teachers; it is, however, an excellent scheme for English primary education.

The outlook is not bright for its passage through Parliament. Even if it should get through the House of Commons, it could hardly pass the House of Lords, with thirty bishops and perhaps a majority of the peers in opposition. As an indication, nevertheless, that the Church of England is not a unit under the lead of the Archbishop of Canterbury in opposing the bill, such broad-minded ecclesiastics as the Bishop of Hereford, the Dean of Ripon, and Canon Hensley Henson have already come forward in its favor. Their expressed opinions show that a popular discussion of the subject is the necessary means to bring two principles closer than before, not only to "the Nonconformist conscience," but also to the native good sense and good judgment of all Englishmen: that there shall be no public taxation without public control, and that the existence of a State Church does not necessarily involve direction of the schools.

EARTHQUAKES AND THEIR CAUSES

BY JAMES F. KEMP

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THE past few years have brought home to people in all parts of the world, and with exceptional emphasis, the destructive work of those two mysterious geological agents, the earthquake and the volcano. Of the two, the earthquake is the more to be dreaded. It rises without warning from the unknown and invisible depths; it shakes into dismembered fragments the structures on the surface and dies away. leaving irrepressible and incurable apprehension in its wake. The volcano, on the other hand, gives warning. monitory rumblings, columns of steam and dust, and even earthquakes themselves, attest its growing restlessness. The lingerers who remain too long within the range of its bombs and ashes are the ones who run the risks. The molten lava moves too slowly to cause danger, and rarely indeed has a blast of hot gas destroyed a town as at St. Pierre. of the two the earthquake is the easier of explanation by natural causes.

Close observation of the rocky strata forming the visible portion of the earth has led inevitably to the conclusion that they have often been subjected to move-Beds which must once have ments. been flat upon the floor of the ocean are tilted at angles or bent into arches and Strata which were obviously troughs. once continuous over wide areas are now broken by great rifts called faults. and the portion on one side of the break has either risen or sunk with reference to that on the other. \vee The movement may be slight, or, in the course of time, it may become a total of imposing dimensions. North of San Francisco, for instance, on the western side of Mount St. Helena, is a fault whose displacement is estimated at 2,500 feet. The movement in all such cases has progressed, it is thought, a few feet or inches at a time.

Three great causes have been suggested by geologists for the readjustments of the rocky strata. The timehonored view is that the earth was originally a highly heated and probably gaseous mass, which has cooled, and in consequence has consolidated. Experience in deep mines and determinations with self-registering thermometers at various points in deep bore-holes have shown that the temperature rises with descent. The general rate is one degree Fahrenheit for approximately each seventy-five feet in depth. A simple calculation based upon this rate of increase soon reveals a highly elevated temperature at moderate depths. These relations and the general conception of the heated original lead to the further conclusion that the earth must be still radiating and losing heat, and therefore contract-When the loss becomes appreciable, then contraction asserts itself; the outer portion bulges in folds from the strain, or else adjusts itself along the great fissures mentioned above.

The objection to the contractional idea is this: When, with any loss of heat which we are justified in assuming, we endeavor to calculate the shrinkage, it appears to be much too small to accomplish the familiar results. Some have therefore sought another explanation, as follows:

Theearth is a rapidly rotating spheroid, and is flattened at the poles and swollen at the equator. Its shape is precisely that which centrifugal energy would produce upon a somewhat plastic, rotating mass. The flattening is proportionate to the rapidity of rotation. Were this more rapid in the past, then the polar flattening must have been greater. Is it diminishing at the present, then the spherical shape must assert itself, and a return to a true sphere must result. The return would cause readjustments; the

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equatorial diameter must become less. the polar greater. Wrinkles, faults, and surface movements follow. The chief objection to this view is that we would expect our great ranges of mountains to run around the earth, roughly parallel with the equator and on either side of While the vast line of upheaval marked by the Pyrenees, the Alps, the Caucasus, and the Himalayas does coincide with the inferred direction, yet other great mountain systems run north and south as do the Andes, northeast as do the Appalachians, or northwest as do the Cordilleras.

There is one other fundamental suggestion which should be outlined before we pass to the more immediate causes of earthquakes. For the sake of analysis the spheroidal earth is imagined to consist of a series of sharply tapering pyramids whose apexes come together at the center and whose bases form the sur-Despite the apparent stiffness and resistance of rocks, considered in small masses, they must, when taken in huge masses, such as these pyramids, balance one another, and the earth must preserve equilibrium as does a drop of water. If we add to the bases of some pyramids, and increase their weight, they will overbalance others and cause the surface elsewhere to bulge outward. Readjustments follow. Now, the rivers, shore currents, and tides are constantly wearing away the land and piling up the materials in other places on the sea bottom. After a time the balance around the center is altered, and movements result.

There may be other causes than these three, and ones of which we are as yet uninformed, yet the above are the ones in which the chief confidence has been hitherto placed.

Let us now return to earthquakes, and, admitting the movements and readjustments, see if they throw light on the cause of these vibrations in the rocky strata. When the shocks occur in regions remote from volcanoes, we have no reason to connect the two phenomena. For these localities we must turn to something else. The fault furnishes the most probable cause. From time to time, when the strain becomes too great for the sides

longer to resist, a slip occurs. Great masses of rock move along on others, until, with a jar almost inconceivably great, they come suddenly to rest. Vibrations spread in every direction, and when they reach the surface and have the much lighter atmosphere alone to restrain the movement, they become very violent. In their march they pass through different kinds of rocks. Some varieties transmit the shock better than others or vibrate at different rates. Their adhesion may not be able to resist the strain, and they part, leaving crevices or rents. When the shock passes from hard rocks to soft and incoherent sands or gravel, critical places are met, and if a crevice does not form, the sands may be shaken up and settle. When the earthquake passes to the crest of a cliff and causes a precipitous front to swing back and forth like a cantilever standing on end, the upper portion may be wrenched away from the rest and fall with a crash. Were a great hotel placed upon such a cliff above a beach or above the water below, it might go off in a heap of ruins.

In the special case of San Francisco, the inquiry is natural, Are these faults in its vicinity? There are several, and they have been long recognized. As much as twelve or thirteen years ago Professor A. C. Lawson, of the State University, established the existence of two principal ones and others of a minor character on the peninsula upon whose northern point the city stands. The two master faults run northwest and southeast. They look off with precipitous escarpments toward the southwest. slipping down upon these or upon others like them is the most natural explanation which can be advanced for the Realizing this faulted structure. and knowing from the records of shocks in California, which have been very carefully kept, that the State is a fruitful field for disturbances, many geologists have looked for some years for the appearance of a great one. While no such destruction was anticipated as we have recently seen, it was felt that the behavior of tall steel buildings would be tested. On the whole, they seem to have stood well.

The San Francisco shock differs in

one respect from other notable ones along a coast line. No tidal wave seems to have been caused, at least none which wrought havoc. Yet in the great Lisbon earthquake it was rather the onrush of the sea than the fall of the buildings which destroyed the victims. That fire should follow the shock and consume even the uninjured buildings is an experience at once exceptional and harrowing.

In volcanic regions earthquakes are one of the common attendant features of eruptions. While even amid these surroundings they may be produced by the slipping along faults, yet there are other causes more closely connected with the eruptive outbreaks. Thus one of the common forms in which the hardened lava appears in a volcanic district is the one called a dike. A mass of molten rock has been forced from below into a fissure and has there consolidated. It is revealed as a relatively narrow, dark band crossing older strata. All visitors to the shore resorts along the coast north of Boston are familiar with them, since the "trap dike" is one of the most striking features of the cliffs. At Nahant something like five hundred have been mapped within a rather small area. A moment's reflection will show that a wedge of this character could not have been driven into a fissure without starting not only one but numerous shocks. And as we have every reason to infer that the movement of the eruptive rock deep within the earth at any active cone of to-day is reproducing these familiar phenomena of eroded and dissected volcanic districts. so we naturally refer the shocks in part to the entrance of dikes.

But there are other possible causes. The records of the self-registering instruments in volcanic districts sometimes exhibit curves whose characters are similar to those obtained when great quantities of dynamite are exploded in engineering operations. So far as possible, scientific men improve the opportunity to record and study the earth vibrations whenever blasting takes place on an unusually large scale. For example, at the excavation of the old reefs at Hell Gate, in the East River, New York City, the oscillations were very carefully investigated, twenty-five or thirty years

ago. When, therefore, similar records are obtained near a volcano, the presumption is raised that some subterranean explosion has occasioned them. Lava, we know, comes to the surface highly charged with steam and other gases. Explosions, often of enormous violence, take place in the crater. Were the uprising tide of heated rock to encounter quickly a body of water and cause it to flash into steam, a shock would inevitably result, analogous to the work of dynamite.

But, again, still other possible causes may not be overlooked. The outpouring of lava removes in a brief period of time a vast volume of rock from the interior. For example, one of the flows from Hecla, in Iceland, has been estimated to be equal in volume to Mont Blanc. rocks surrounding the reservoir whence this passed to the surface must have closed in and readjustments quite sufficient to produce shocks could not but result. Even in mining regions where great amounts of coal or ore have been removed without due precautions, the collapse of the wall-rock has caused small earthquake shocks, which have spread to moderate distances and have caused alarm to local residents.

The uprising of mineral springs and of waters carrying in solution former components of the rocks underground may in time transfer much material to the surface and lead to collapses which produce mild shocks.

In many minds the question at once arose, when the news from San Francisco spread abroad, Has the earthquake any connection with the eruption of Vesuvius which is now subsiding? The coincidence in time is somewhat striking, but when one reflects on the thousands of miles of ocean and continent separating the two localities and upon the superficial nature of the two phenomena as compared both with the horizontal distance and with the diameter of the earth, it is impossible to reach any other conclusion than that the connection was purely fortuitous. California is a place of rather frequent shocks. Vesuvius, with short intervals of comparative repose, is almost constantly in eruption. It is not surprising that a

shock and an outbreak, each of somewhat exceptional severity, happened near-

ly together.

Much interest has been felt by investigators in determining the probable depths at which earthquake shocks originate. The method pursued is as follows: We believe that from some interior place the vibrations spread in roughly spherical The place where the waves first emerge at the surface will be directly over the place of origin, since this is the shortest course, or will be nearly so, for rocks of different conductivity may be involved. If, therefore, we can carefully learn the times at which the shock was first felt in different localities, and mark these on a map, the later times will surround the earliest in widening circles. The earliest time will be approximately over the place of origin.

Again, if we have instruments which show the direction and angle of emergence of the waves, or if, in a few concentric places, we can determine this in any other way, we can project the wavepaths downward, and the point where they intersect the radius of the earth passing through the point of earliest shock will be the place of origin. It is improbable that earthquakes from slipping originate at a greater depth, even in the hardest rocks, than six miles.

Instead of the times of emergence we may use the violence of the shock, as shown by the destruction of buildings, and plot upon a map an interior area of greatest effect, surrounded by concentric circular areas of diminishing injury. The area of greatest destruction usually corresponds quite closely with the place of earliest emergence, or, in other words, with the place immediately over the point of origin. Order and system of observation and deduction may thus be established, and from what would otherwise be almost hopeless confusion some tangible conclusions may be drawn. Undoubtedly this course will be at once undertaken by some of the San Francisco scientists, and their results may be awaited with interest.

THE PRAYER OF SOCRATES

BY JOHN H. FINLEY

Socrates

Ere we leave this friendly sky, And cool Ilyssus flowing by, Change the shrill cicala's song For the clamor of the throng, Let us make a parting prayer To the gods of earth and air.

Phædrus

My wish, O Friend, accords with thine; Say thou the prayer, it shall be mine.

Socrates

This, then, I ask, O thou beloved Pan, And all ye other gods: Help, as ye can, That I may prosper in the inner man;

Grant ye that what I have or yet may win Of those the outer things may be akin. And constantly at peace with those within;

May I regard the wise the rich, and care Myself for no more gold, as my earth-share, Than he who's of an honest heart can bear.



THE SPECTATOR VISITS A BUFFALO HERD



I was the morning after the close of the recent Sportsmen's Show in Boston, and the Spectatorentered the main hall of the Mechanics' Building to watch the removal of the animals which

had been on exhibition, and which were now to be returned to their respective homes. A man clad in light corduroy had just entered a pen containing elk, which he intended to remove in separate crates, one of which was even then at the door of the pen. There were three animals in the inclosure, two does and a superb stag, as large as a horse

and crowned with massive, pointed antlers. This creature was evidently in a bad temper. He had been in close confinement for three weeks, and now the presence of the man seemed to make him furious. He strode up and down, held his head high in the air, turned back his lips, and ground his teeth until the sound could be heard all over the large Suddenly there was a chorus of "Ohs" from the crowd about the pen as the big brute sprang forward and with almost incredible speed struck out with both fore feet. Quick as he was, the man was quicker; otherwise the Spectator would have been writing some other story. And the man, smiling just as though it was not Death he had shaken hands with, prepared to throw a lariat over the horns of the angry stag.

moment later the noose left his hand and whirled in the but as air. touched an antler the great elk flung it off, charged upon his would-be captor, and, with a scythe-like sweep of his antlers, knocked the man down and speared him through the thigh. Quick as a cat the man was on his feet again, and, though bleeding profusely, went quietly on with his work, and did not stop until not only the stag, but both the does, were safe in the crates and ready to put on the cars. Then, after giving orders con-

cerning the shipment of some other animals, he allowed himself to be taken to a surgeon.

The Spectator was interested. Here was a man who took risks as other men took oatmeal for their breakfast, and who juggled with his life as if he had a dozen more in reserve.

"Who is he?" was asked of the man left in charge of the work.

"Why, that's Will Morrison, of Corbin Park—the Corbin buffalo man some people call him, because he's had charge of the Corbin herd for sixteen years, and is said to know more about the breeding and handling of buffaloes than any other man alive."

"Why, how many buffaloes are there at Corbin Park?"

"Don't know; biggest herd in the country, anyhow; Morrison could have told you all about it."

One bright, frosty afternoon, not long after the above conversation, the Spectator alighted at the little railway station at Newport, New Hampshire, and, declining the assistance of the hackmen, started on the six-mile walk to Corbin



WILL MORRISON AND SOME OF HIS CHARGES

Park to have a chat with "the Corbin buffalo man." After leaving the busy little town, the road stretched. northward through flattish country covered with spotless snow, but far in front there loomed up a range of forested mountains. The sleighing was excellent, and the Spectator had not walked more than a mile when the rapid jingling of bells in the rear announced the approach of a sleigh, evidently drawn by a fast-trotting horse. As it drew near, a glance behind revealed a great brown stallion

fairly flinging the road behind him, and through the shower of snow which mingled with the flying mane and tail could be seen the form of the driver. The latter reined in his splendid horse with a steady pull, and a broad Scotch voice asked, "Will ye ride?" It was Will Morrison, the "buffalo man" himself.

The invitation was promptly accepted, and the Spectator, pulling one end of a heavy sleigh-robe over his knees, found himself snatched along beside the very man he had come to see.

On learning that he himself was the special object of the visit, Morrison was highly amused, but promised all possible information concerning the game preserve in general and the buffalo herd in particular. The line of mountains we saw in front of us were for the most part in Corbin Park, he said, and were a part of the twenty-four thousand acres inclosed by a thirty-mile fence. The preserve contained, besides the great buffalo herd, large numbers of Virginia deer, elk, wild boar, and some moose. The deer and the moose got their own living the year round, but the buffalo,

elk, and boar required feeding in the winter. In answer to an inquiry as to whether the animals did not become too numerous, Morrison said that they were never allowed to; that the deer and elk and boar were thinned out regularly every fall and winter. Last winter over two hundred deer were taken out, some alive for the restocking of other preserves and others dead for the market. It had not been necessary to take out more than half that number this year, but nearly a hundred elk and almost as many boar had been shipped away.

The brown stallion was now making good time over a woodland road, which ran along a hillside, from which were caught occasional glimpses of the park. Great stretches of evergreen forest, alternating with belts of hardwood, doubtless marked the hiding-places of thousands of wild creatures which found a home in the great preserve, while broad snow-fields on the mountain sides showed where the buffaloes would find good grazing in the spring.

Another mile through a shower of hoof-tossed snow, and presently the big horse swung round a bend in the lane and stopped before a tall gate, and from a sign above it concerning hunting and fishing, and signed "Austin Corbin," the Spectator knew that he had arrived. Morrison opened the gate, and presently drove along a road which traversed a large amphitheater of meadow land, surrounded by woods. The road itself was bordered by an avenue of young white pines, and at the end of this there was seen a neat red building, long and low, from whose chimneys white smoke curled cheerfully against the dark mountains which rose behind. Beyond the house were many buildings, including an immense barn, all in perfect order and painted red like the house. The whole place bore the stamp of order and good management.

Morrison put up his horse, quickly changed his coat for one of light corduroy, and invited the Spectator to go with him and get an idea of his evening's work. This work consisted chiefly in feeding the animals under his care. Scarcely had our footsteps sounded on the floor of the barn than from a dozen directions came expectant voices—the whinnying of horses, the lowing of cows,



FEEDING





the bleating of sheep and goats, and the whining of puppy dogs. And, with a kindly smile on his bronzed face, Morrison went from stall to stall, from pen to pen, distributing, besides the welcome food, a gentle word, a pat, or a stroke to each of his many charges. And over each he ran his experienced eye, noting at once the least thing wrong. Here a horse had received a scratch which needed and received attention; there a goat was not getting her fair share of food, and was quickly lifted into another pen where there was less competition. He knew each individual animal by sight, and most of them by names he had given them. And they knew the man, and trusted him. Not one was there that was nervous in his presence; not one that would not allow him to handle it as he pleased.

This work was about finished when a man was seen filling a sack at one of the corn-bins.

"Hello, Charley! Going to feed the boar?" cried Morrison; and on receiving an affirmative answer, he inquired if the Spectator would not like to go into the woods and see how the wild boar were fed in winter. The Spectator being willing, snow-shoes were produced, and the party set out. After passing through a well-wooded inclosure known as Number 4, which contains several acres and which is used to hold elk and other animals intended to be shipped alive, the main park was reached, and Charley led the way to the feeding-grounds.

The latter were not far away, for presently the guide turned from the trail and entered a bit of dense spruce woodland entirely clear of undergrowth. The snow on the floor of this woodland was beaten down hard, by wild boars, it was presently explained. Charley now threw down his sack and began to distribute his corn; and he did so after the manner of a sower, strewing it far and wide, a handful at a time. Asked why he scattered it thus, he answered that this method assured all the animals an equal chance and gave them exercise which they needed and which they would not get if they found the grain in heaps.

It was now getting dusk, and as Charley told us that the boar would soon be coming in, we decided to wait and watch them. Each member of the party crouched behind the trunk of a big spruce, near the outskirts of the woodland. The Spectator had picked out a splendid tree for this purpose, but Morrison suggested that as it was on the windward side of the feeding-ground, the boar would starve to death before they would venture in with the human odor in their nostrils. So there was nothing to do but move to another tree on the side away from the wind.

After watching for perhaps ten minutes in silence, there came a grunting sound which told us that the boar were on the march. It was very much like the grunting of domestic pigs, and soon there came some vigorous squeals, as though the animals were squabbling over something. Then, as the Spectator looked off through the trees, he saw a number of boar running toward the feeding-grounds in single file. Only the upper halves of their bodies were visible, for they were coming along a deep, trenchlike trail which had been beaten in the snow during previous journeys to and from the feeding-grounds. In a moment the leaders arrived, and at once began to pick up the nearest grains of corn. Before long there were more grunts from a distance, and other herds of boar were seen coming in from different parts of the woodland. In a few minutes there were some forty animals of all sizes, running back and forth in every direction, picking up the corn as if they were doing it on a wager. There was nothing slow about these pigs; they were active, muscular beasts, apparently full of health, and ready at an instant's notice either to fight or to run for their lives. They were of all ages—some small, and evidently born last spring, for they still bore traces of the stripes which, Morrison said, were characteristic of young wild boars, and others huge gray, hairy brutes, weighing perhaps two hundred and fifty pounds, and with gleaming white tusks, the sight of which made the Spectator glad that he was near a tree. Every pig of the lot was absorbed with his interesting occupation of gobbling up the scattered corn, when suddenly the wind changed for a moment and blew from behind us

directly over the feeding-ground. Instantly a dozen of the animals started as if bullets had struck them. Then, after an almost imperceptible pause, there came a storm of disgusted "whoofs" which sounded as though the pigs were attempting to blow from their nostrils the obnoxious odor with which they had been offended, and the next instant a few savage, rolling grunts set the whole herd in rapid motion, and they fled for life along their deeply beaten snow-paths leading to the deeper recesses of the forest.

It was now too dark to think of seeing the buffaloes, so the Spectator accepted an invitation to stay all night at the low red building, which, with the ground which surrounds it, is known as "Central Station." After supper he was shown into a neat, clean little room by the housekeeper, who first, however, showed him with pride the room which had been occupied by President Roosevelt when he visited the park some years ago.

After an early breakfast, Morrison led the way to the buffalo yards, where his special charges spend the winter months. Down a narrow lane we went, until, rounding a turn, we saw a high and heavy wooden gate; it barred the en-

trance to the first of the buffalo yards. As the Spectator approached it he saw a group of perhaps a score of brown creatures which reminded him more or less of domestic calves, except that they had longer horns, longer hair, shorter necks, and a much greater appearance of strength and vigor. As the gate was opened these creatures stared very hard for a moment, then threw their short tails in the air, and galloped like mad to the farther end of the inclosure, where they turned and stared as before.

"Those," said Morrison, "are the babies. They're only ten months old." Then to the buffalo calves, "Hello, bossies, d'ye want some hay?" And, going to the door of a shed, he took out an armful, clean and sweet-scented, and in a moment the youngsters had surrounded him and were eating from his hands. The Spectator asked to be allowed to feed them too, but when he held out the hay the calves backed up and stood in a circle about three feet off, eying him with suspicion. He advanced a foot, but they retreated about as much. and it was only after ten minutes of patient waiting that two or three of the boldest calves consented to thrust their hairy little faces forward and take a mouthful of the food held out to them.



A YOUNGSTER



A PATRIARCH

Splendid, healthy-looking, bright-eyed creatures, these—every movement full of rugged character; nervous enough to stampede if necessary, but apparently not vicious in the least. Morrison threw them some more hay and led the way to the next yard.

Here, evidently, were the grown-up buffaloes, but the Spectator was disappointed. There were about fifty—splendid animals all of them—but they were not what the Spectator had pictured to himself as the former lords of the prairies. Perhaps, after all, the great size and grandeur of the buffalo had been exaggerated, and he was simply paying for his credulity with disappointment. With half an apology he asked if these were the largest animals in the herd, and it was with considerable relief that he learned that this yard contained nothing but young stock, and that there were larger animals to see.

In the next yard the Spectator saw what his fancy had painted, and more,

for there he found buffaloes like those he had read about—like those old plainsmen had told him of; only he felt that none of the descriptions had done the animals justice. Here was grandeur difficult to describe in words-grandeur which depended not wholly upon the form and bearing of the kingly beasts themselves, but partly on what they stand These were not merely animals: they were living, moving pictures from the pages of early American history. The Indians who hunted them, and whose lives depended on them; the pioneers, whose tasks would often have proved insurmountable but for the presence of the great wild ox; the early settlers, whose hard lives would have been harder still but for the buffalo—all these have passed away forever; yet this great picturesque figure still remainsin small numbers, to be sure—a valuable aid to the study of the history of those early times.

As the Spectator watched the giant

forms before him the fences seemed to fade away; Morrison and all connected with Corbin Park were for the time forgotten, and in place of the buffalo yards he saw in imagination a limitless prairie. rich brown as far as the eye could reach with a myriad marching buffalo. Hundreds of thousands there were in sight, and millions, perhaps, beyond. The scene changed, and the Spectator stood in front of the great medicine tent in a Mandan Indian village. A band of "braves" had assembled, and each, donning a mask made from the skin of a buffalo's head with the horns upon it. and taking a bow or spear in his hand, joined in the weird ceremony known as the "buffalo dance," performed in order "to make the buffalo come." Then he saw the naked Indian hunters, astride the bare backs of their well-trained ponies, ride into the thick of a flying herd, shooting down the shaggy monsters in full flight, while the air was filled with the sound of rolling thunder and the earth itself trembled beneath the impact of their countless hoofs. Again the scene changed, and he saw a herd of buffalo standing in the snow, watching in calm preparedness the approach of a great gray wolf. But he saw what the buffaloes did not see-the bronzed and sinewy arm of an Indian steal from the shoulder of the wolf, and he marked the flight of the long, keen arrow as it whistled to its mark and caused the nearest bull to sink upon his knees. Once more there was a change of scene, and the white man came in hordes and camped upon the prairie, and soon the

turf was soaked with blood and the air polluted with the rotting carcasses of unnumbered buffalo. The white man disappeared, and the moonlit prairie gleamed with whitened skulls and bones, practically all that was left of one of the grandest animals that ever trod the globe.

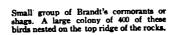
It was with a feeling of relief that the Spectator came back to the present, to see that little band of healthy, vigorous creatures. Here at least was proof positive that the buffalo was not quite a thing of the past, and a suggestion that, if action was taken promptly, the great race might yet be saved from extinction. Then came the recollection of a recent account of the organization of a society which has for its object the preservation of the buffalo. The particulars had escaped the Spectator's memory, but as he shook hands and bid Morrison goodby he asked, "Do you know anything about a society which has just been formed to save the buffalo?"

"The American Bison Society, ye mean? Well, I ken a bit. But ye see that highest peak yonder [pointing to Croydon Mountain]? Well, the secretary lives right over there at Meriden. Theodore Roosevelt's the president of it, ye ken, an' that's a gude sign. The buffalo is the grandest beast in this country, or in ony country for that matter, and he should never be allowed to dee out. And I dinna think he will dee out, if folks'll only back Roosevelt. That lad says the buffalo maun hae his due, so he maun hae it, mark ye, for the hour has come and the mon,"

BIRDS OF THE SEA LEINLEY & H.T.BOHLMAN





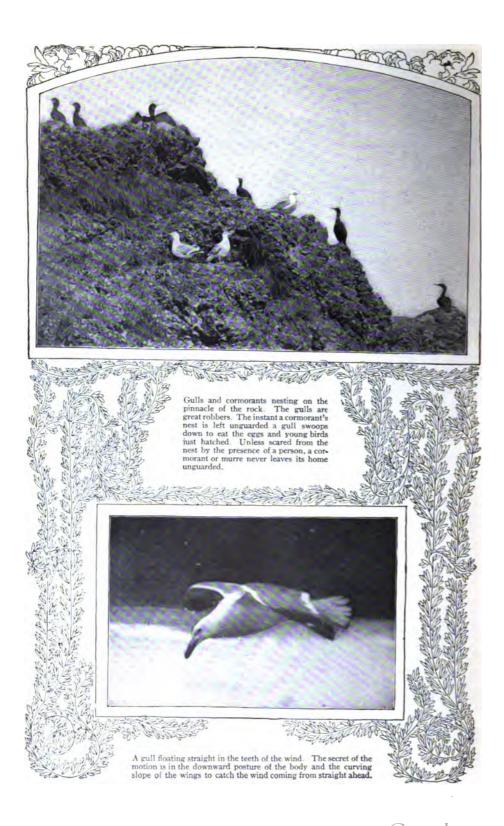


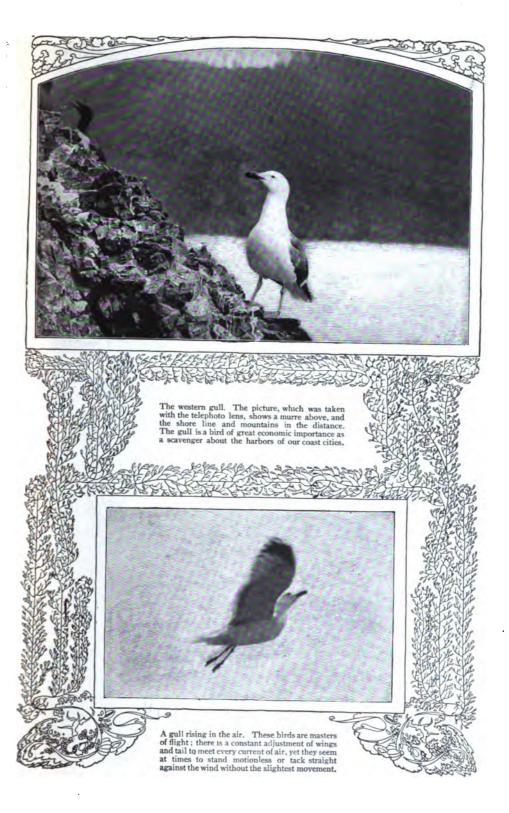


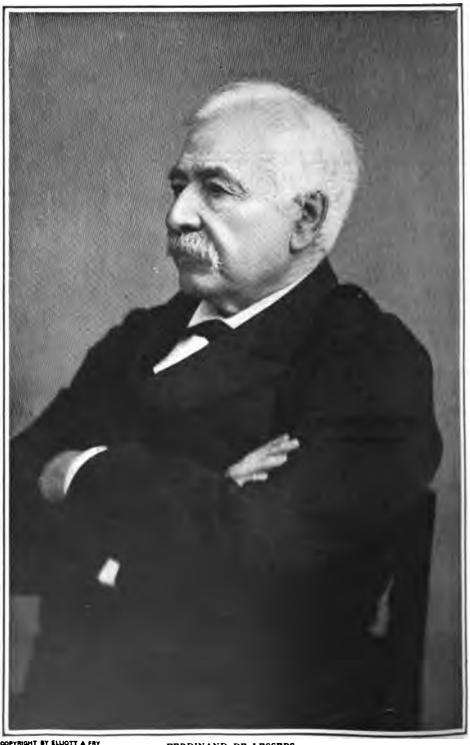












FERDINAND DE LESSEPS

THE PANAMA CANAL

History—Conditions—Prospects BY JOHN FOSTER CARR

First Paper

USTING after gold and adventure, the explorers of the sixteenth century eagerly scoured the seas of the western Atlantic, and searched the rivers and bays of America for the shorter course to the Indies. The Northwest Passage was a universal dream, and for nearly two centuries life and treasure were squandered in its vain quest. Yet

undauntedly Spaniards took up the splendid alternative of a canal across the Isthmus almost as soon as Balboa, with the young Pizarro, had clambered up the jungle-covered heights of a Darien peak and discovered the Pacific. Angel Saavedra, a galleon's captain, or a man of arms-for the tales differ-in 1520 made the first suggestion to pierce the Isthmus. Soon afterwards Cortez had Tehuantepec surveyed for a canal. Nicaragua found its first advocate in an Alvaredo in 1535,

and it was in 1551 that Lopez de Gomara first talked of the advantages of Panama. His eloquence finally moved the heavy-jawed and morose Philip of Spain to send two Flemish engineers to examine the Isthmus. Charles V. found time from his wars and imperial intrigues to study the project; but he soon grew wearied and disgusted over the impossible task, and

threatened death to the man who should again speak of it.

Balboa had his ship carried spar by by spar through the matted forest and over the divide, and for more than three hundred years the plundered gold of Peru and the spoil of commerce were borne on mule-back to Porto Bello or over the paved Cruces road to the Chagres. But before the final destruction of her empire Spain again grappled with the problem which only the pyramid-buildcould have solved without mod-



PHILIP II. OF SPAIN

From an engraving after the painting by Titian

ern machinery. In the winter of 1814 the Cortes ordered work begun on Tehuantepec; again a survey was made, but the scheme died out in an unused concession. The French interest in a canal dates back to the early forties, when Garella reported to Paris a well-developed Again the project was actively discussed, and the proposed routes multiplied until there were seven of them. The last of the princes in the list, the futile Louis Napoleon, in exile at Ham, meditated a grandiose scheme for an Isthmian waterway to which his Imperial name should be given.

Practical beginnings of work at Panama were made in the brief, businesslike surveys of the young naval lieutenants Réclus and Wyse in 1876, 1877, and 1878. Upon their labors De Lesseps based his first great plan for a sea-level

canal. He was a diplomat and not an engineer; but his prestige, his enthusiasm, his genius for organization, made the scheme a popular success. He had carried through the Suez project when some of the most eminent engineers of the day had said that a canal at Suez would become a stagnant ditch, that the sands of the desert would fill it, that it would be impossible to keep open its entrances, that labor sufficient could never be found. But M. de Lesseps appealed to the pride of France in those excited days of '81. He became the idol of the nation, and over two hundred thousand people, men and women of every class, rushed to subscribe to his scheme.

Never since the days of the South Sea Company had there been such a national frenzy of speculation. Again the un-



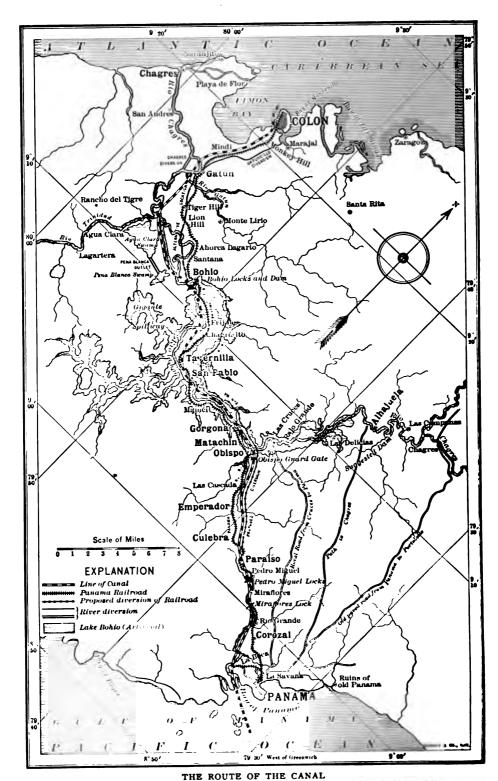
THE ISTHMUS ACCORDING TO A STANISH MAP OF ABOUT 1520



BALBOA
The Discoverer of the Pacific

known wealth of Spanish America was the bait, and it is said that, in the end, securities amounting to a face value of nearly \$440,000,000 were sold. An old French engineer in Panama has told me the story of the failure of De Lesseps. Neither yellow fever nor engineering difficulties prevented his success; it was thievery and "graft." During the eight years when work was being done on the Isthmus there was an orgy of extravagance in Paris. The bankers seized upon perhaps half of their subscriptions, Senators and Deputies had to be bought

by the dozen, contractors and manufacturers with influence made great fortunes, and the blackmailing press grew rich with bribes. Work stopped in 1889, and again the days of the South Sea Bubble were recalled; for the crash of the Canal Company beggared tens of thousands and brought a crisis in the nation. The Ministry resigned, ten Senators and Deputies were directly inculpated, suicides and arrests became the order of the day. Men said that Prince Victor was in Paris. Royalist plotters were busy about the Duc d'Orléans. But the



According to the plan recommended by the Isthmian Canal Commission of 1999-1901, and inferentially adopted by Congress in the Act approved June 28, 1902. This plan is for a lock canal at an 85-ft. level

storm died down in protracted investigations, and a number of the responsible promoters, under promise of immunity from prosecution, were allowed to reorganize the company on condition of raising a capital of \$12,000,000 to proceed with the work. Henceforth economy reigned; plans were carefully restudied; energies were concentrated on the mountain of Culebra. But the confidence of the peasant investors of France was definitely lost, and it was seen to be impossible to charm another hundred millions from their pockets. Progress became fitful, until, with the exhaustion of financial supplies, it ceased altogether, and the only hope of the company lay in selling outright to the United States.

A dozen different Colombian interests—patriotic, speculative, corrupt—conspired to defeat the Hay-Herran treaty. When the news of its rejection came, the whole Isthmus was thrown into despair. Radical measures were needed or Panama would lose its long-promised prosperity; and the revolution of 1903 was soon being plotted by the notables of the city as they met in each other's houses over the savory sancocho stew. There were a few men of character and standing to head it, and they had the help of as fine a band of whispering conspirators and professional revolutionists—some of them Americans—as ever strode the boards of comic opera.

Dr. Amador, who became the first President of the fledgling republic, was sent to New York on a mysterious mission. His first cable message was the word "Disappointed;" his second, before his return, "Hopes." The official historian of the movement, in bombastic adjectives of praise, describes the event of the final stroke. It had long been rumored that General Huertas, the commander of the Colombian garrison in Panama, was to be removed by the Government at Bogotá. He therefore became a speedy convert to the revolutionary cause. The uprising of the people was set for the 4th of November, but the arrival of a Colombian war-ship off Colon in the early morning of the 3d precipitated the great act.

COLON Executation done up to February. ON THE PLAN SHOWN ON THE OPPOSITE Exoavation remaining to be done at that time Summit Level Length 21.58 Mile

Four of the new detachment of generals were rash enough to cross the Isthmus alone. In the small plaza before the Cathedral, set like a stage with its palms and benches, the conspirators assembled. Twice the generals visited the barracks. "With great acuteness General Huertas took note of his critical position, and realized that, in spite of the apparent affability of his superior officers, a tremendous tempest was about to burst upon his head. Then, in a moment of sublime heroism, he resolved to execute a plan as bold as it was dangerous. He ordered a captain with a squad of thirty men to arrest the generals. He narrowly observed his army, but his orders were carried out without a hitch, and the prisoners were marched to the police station accompanied by some of the conspirators and by a part of the populace." No war game played by two college professors was ever more bloodless than this revolution, and if you sniff a doubt at the

THE PANAMA CANAL COMMISSION FROM A STEREOGRAPH ST C. L. CHESTER, COTTRIBET, 18 9, ST UNDTRACOO & UNDERWOOD, NEW YORK

Charles E. Magoon, Governor of the Canal Zone Brigadier-General O. H. Ernst, Engineer Corps Joseph Bucklin Bishop, Secretary Rear-Admiral M. T. Endkoott, U. S. N. Benjamın M. Harrod, C. E. Brigades-General P. C. Hains, U. S. A., retired Theodore P. Shonta, Chairman

official version, you will have pointed out to you in the Cathedral Plaza the very man who paid the Colombian generals their \$8,000.

Among the mixed results of so much buffoonery, the people of the Isthmus at least won freedom from Colombian oppression; the Canal was saved to the French stockholders to be transmitted to us at a better bargain than we had ever dreamed of getting; and a number of the conspirators acquired fortunes that are considered large when judged by Panamanian standards.

The interest of the French in the Canal was not political, but speculative, commercial. It spoke to their idealism and roused a delirium of enthusiasm. A Frenchman had pierced the Isthmus of Suez, and the same Frenchman was to transport the Straits of Magellan to Panama and complete a great equatorial highway for commerce that would belt the globe. For the United States, present interest in the Canal is more political than commercial. While we have been becoming a great world power, and the dominant nation of the West, the Monroe Doctrine has been developing from a benevolent will to oppose foreign aggression when it threatens a weaker neighborhood to a calm assertion of paramountcy. Our isolation has ended in a logical growth of policy involving no violent break with the past. Hamilton foresaw it when he wrote in the "Federalist" that "our situation prompts us to aim at an ascendant in American affairs." There is no rivalry for the possession of the Canal, but Panama has become as important to the United States as Suez is to Great Britain. America has become to us like the Balkan States to Europe, with Cipriano Castro playing the Sultan's part. We carefully avoid interference in the domestic politics of these southern republics, but their turbulence and the incapacity of their governments may at any time burst into a dangerous conflict with Europe. With the open canal our naval power for offense and defense will be doubled. The ocean coasts of the United States will be drawn nine thousand miles nearer each other, and it will be possible to concentrate our fleets in three weeks—a

feat that might otherwise require three months.

The recent expansion of the United States has made the Pacific almost an American ocean, and we are beginning to see with Captain Mahan that the empire of the sea is the empire of the world. Our coast line on the borders of that ocean is nearly as great as that of Russia, China, and the islands of Japan taken together. With a single small interruption, it runs from Mexico to the Arctic, circling by the Aleutian Islands almost to the northern shores of the Japanese Empire. Then, beginning close to Formosa, the Philippines stretch for more than a thousand miles along the coast of Asia. The Canal will not only give us a highway to lands where some of our most necessary food staples are produced; it will bring Japan, China, Siberia, and Australia as near the Atlantic seaboard and our chief manufacturing centers as they now are to western Europe. In other words, it will give us an equality in competition for the trade of half the population of the earth. Our commerce with the awakening East is already developing by such leaps and bounds that before the Canal can be finished it will have become a greater commercial than political necessity. Consider the recent growth of our trade with the Far East, in spite of our scanty merchant marines. Our imports from Asia and Oceania have mounted from 105 millions in 1891 to 185 millions in 1905. During the same time our exports to these far countries and islands of the Pacific have more than quintupled. late as 1895 they were only thirty millions; by last year they had risen to 161 millions. As the industry and intelligence of the Nation becomes organized for greater conquests of commerce we shall build ships equal to the demands of our trade. As it is, although Panama will divert little European traffic from Suez, the merchant fleet of Great Britain. the great carrying power of the world, will be the first to profit from the new waterway.

At midday in the Caribbean the sea looks like indigo oil; the sun blazes all about you and the heat is heavy. The



FROM A STEREOGRAPH B. C. L. CHESTER, COPYRIGHT, 1908, BY UNDERACOD & UNDERWOOD, NEW YORK
A PRIVATE MESS AT CRISTOBAL



BASEBALL AT COROZAL—TYPEWRITERS VS. MARINES
Photographed by the author

noon bell rings; the officer on the bridge takes the position of the sun, makes his calculation, and the day's run is posted up in the companionway. You study his chart more closely as you approach Colon, and you find that the Isthmus is a place of surprising geography. It runs east and west, and not north and south; and the western end of the Canal lies east of the eastern end. Colon is more than two hundred miles south of the northernmost point of South America.

and disordered succession. It is not very hot, but you had not thought that the sunlight could be so flaming and blinding, the shadows so black, the green of the leaves so dazzling. Colon has about it something of a Southern village, something of a mining town. It is a wooden encampment, a dusty—in the rainy season a muddy—city of shacks. The grime and hustle of the canal work fill the streets. The "Engineering News" lies about on the little round tables of



DIGGING A DRAINAGE CANAL IN COLON

These canals will be connected with the sea, permitting a fast flow of sea water through them

An old resident tells you that in Panama the sun rises in the Pacific and sets behind a rugged chain of hills—the beginnings of the Rockies. You get a large map in the chart-room, and you discover that the Canal is almost in a line with Pittsburg, and that the continent of South America is swung by the Isthmus, as by the great arm of an Atlas, so far out into the Atlantic that the whole of it lies east-of the longitude of Savannah.

You land at an ancient dock, and your first impressions of the Isthmus are vivid, and come crowding upon you in rapid

the cafés, and men in loud voices tell each other how the Canal ought to be built. English is spoken everywhere, and the Panamanian is almost a stranger in this one of his two largest towns. You walk out in the direction of Fox River; you see a house on stilts with green scum beneath it, and you remember that your train leaves at four-thirty.

For the first ten miles the railroad runs mostly through swamp land. The trees, creepers, and ferns are gorgeously, tropically, they seem even dangerously, beautiful. At Bohio you reach higher



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THE SANITARY COMMISSION CLEANING UP CULEBRA



FROM A STUREOGRAPH BY C. L. CHESTER, COPYRIGHT, 1908, BY UNDERWOOD A UNDERWOOD, NEW YORK

ENTRANCE TO THE MAIN CULEBRA CUT

ground, and the country gradually becomes rolling, hilly, almost mountainous in places. Negroes swarm about all the stations; and continually getting on and off the train, nervously quick in their movements and full of business talk, are ruddy and sunbrowned white men in khaki breeches and brown leather leggings, in colored shirts and cowboy hats. A dog's-eared memorandum-book, a surveyor's pole, a quiet "hello," tell you that they are all fellow-employees of the Isthmian Canal Commission. In the last ten miles, before Panama mountains fill the distance, the near-by hills are bolder and show their volcanic origin. You begin to wonder that you have never read that the Isthmus is a beautiful place. You see the Bay of Panama and its lofty mountain islands, and you think that it should be famous among bays for its loveliness.

Panama itself needs to be known well. It dominates the Isthmus and is the crux of many of the difficulties our Government has to face. The overhanging balconies, the red-tiled roofs, the dazzling 958

plastered walls, that seem all white in the direct sun, are relics of old Spain. But you see many costly stone houses abandoned, crumbling to decay, and splendid churches of which only bare, roofless walls remain. Walking on the sea-beaten ramparts of Las Bovedas by moonlight, the romantic history of the ruined city throws a spell over you. But to know the people you must study them by the broad light of day.

They are very unlike in appearance, not molded to one type by ancient blending, as in Taboga. You will hear fullblooded Africans speaking Spanish. You will see a swarthy policeman with Indian cheek-bones and Chinese almond eyes. You may meet a slender, graceful woman with soft black eyes and a face of Spanish pallor. A thin black shawl is over her head and wound tightly around her body. You will bargain in the clatter of the market with the oldest wife of them all. She has the face of a squaw and wears her hair in two braids, each plaited close behind the ear. Her skin shows startlingly dark out of her low-cut

white blouse. They are all Panamanians and all equal, and yet from those in which the white blood predominates the aristocracy and the ruling class are formed. Still, the different races are here in the melting-pot, and the Indian beyond the Zone, the negroes along the line of the Canal, and the diluted Spanish of the towns are fusing, and a national type is slowly being evolved. The mark of the Indian is stamped heavily upon it; there is nearly always a trace

of the negro; only a lightened skin tells of the white.

Although no two Panamanians look the same, there is yet a likeness of character that is national. The Isthmus is the land of mañana—and of a long-deferred to-morrow—where proverbs of up and doing are unknown. Mañana is the word you hear most often along the streets and from the open doors and windows. I went with a friend to the custom-house for a trunk that had come



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EMPLOYEES' QUARTERS AT EMPIRE



FROM A STEREOGRAPH BY C. L. CHESTER, COPYRIGHT, 1906, BY UNDERWOOD & UNDERWOOD, NEW YORK

A DINING-CAR USED BY CARPENTERS AND MACHINISTS ON THE PANAMA RAILWAY



FROM A STEREOGRAPH BY C. L. CHESTER, COPYRIGHT, 1808, BY UNDERWOOD & UNDERWOOD, NEW YORK

A STEAM SHOVEL IN CULEBRA CUT

"Fifteen recommended in control of the control of

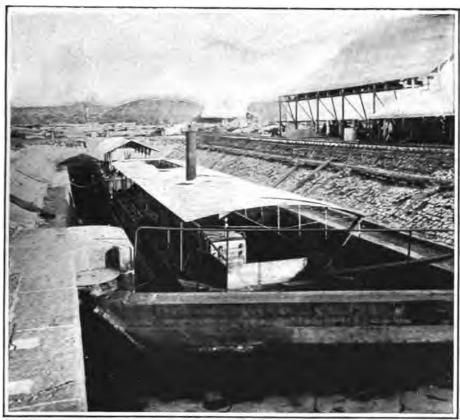
"Fifteen seventy and ninety ton shovels are excavating between Pedro Miguel and Bas Obispo. A vast network of rails is being laid to carry off the spoil from the great Cut"

on a preceding steamer. The official stared stonily and dreamily at us, blew a ring from his cigarette, and said, "Manaña." We returned the next day, and were told to come again on the next. We finally had to appeal to an American of authority.

The primal curse seems remitted in Panama. Men do not need to labor in order to eat, and the large local profits of truck-farming no more excite the poor native's ambition than the generous wages paid laborers on the Canal. Of the 22,000 employees of the Commission and the Panama Railroad only about 500 are Panamanians. The native will sell what he has in the garden, if he is tempted with a good price, but no desire "to get ahead" leads him to quick replanting. The soil is marvelously fertile, but vegetables are scarce and dear.

Oranges and bananas are poor and cost as much as in our Middle West. Sleek cattle, the pride of the Isthmus, are seen everywhere along the railroad, but Ancon Hospital cannot buy milk for less than \$1.20 gold a gallon, and the only butter you can buy comes from Denmark. Indolence lies like a blight over the whole land, and you are not astonished when you are told that there was not a savings bank in the Republic of Panama until our advent.

Colonel Gorgas, the Chief Sanitary Officer, believes that this is less the result of tropical degeneracy than of malaria and the hook-worm disease. In an extensive series of microscopical tests made by his department it was found that more than seventy per cent. of the natives examined had the malarial parasite in their blood. Their physique is so



FROM A STERSOGRAAM BY C. L. CHESTER, COPYRIGHT, 1906, BY UNDERWOOD & UNDERWOOD, NEW YORK

UTILIZING WHAT THE FRENCH COMPANY LEFT

Rebuilding two suction dredges in a dry-dock built by the French. Most of the machinery left by the French has been rendered worthless by years of idleness. Whenever possible, however, it is repaired and rebuilt

uniformly poor that our American boys seem a race of giants beside them. Yet the tropics undeniably have a powerful effect in producing sloth. At home selfhelp is the condition of existence, but in Panama the handicap of nature is not livening and tonic like the cold of the north. Such eternal summer reigns that the falling flowers of some overhanging tree are always floating down the Chagres. Nature is prolific, and the rapidly advancing jungle must be fought through a great part of the year in depressing heat. It is so difficult an enemy to overcome that the crushed stone roadbed of the railway can be kept free of vegetation only by frequent spraying with a solution of arsenic. The jungle is so dense that a party of surveying engineers hacking their way through it with machetes passed within twenty feet on

either side of a hill as high as a threestory house without seeing it. It was only discovered when the ground was completely cleared for a careful survey. It takes energy to get on in the world in the face of such obstacles.

Panama is a republic precisely after the kind of those of South America. The old civilization inherited from the Spaniards is decaying. Many of the virtues of the Spaniards have disappeared; many of their vices have survived. There is a perfect lust of blood, seen in cock fights, bull fights, and in the incredible ferocity of the policeman when he makes an arrest in which the smallest amount of force is necessary. Colombia passed through fifty-three revolutions in fifty-seven years, and in Panama, its emancipated province, revolution is still thought of as an ordinary legal



HOW THE JAMAICAN NEGROES WORK Eleven men to move one piece of timber Photographed by the author



LABORERS FROM NORTHERN SPAIN

These are the best rough labor yet found for work on the Canal. They receive twice the wages of the negro, and earn every cent of it

Photographed by the author

process of election. It is now a very general expectation that an attempt at revolution will accompany the next election. Secretary Root's letter pledging the United States not to interfere with the liberties of Panama is interpreted to mean that fighting without the Zone will be permitted. Distinction is not made between a declaration of policy and the legal right to suppress disorder which our Government may assert at any necessary time.

To complete the picture: The Panamanian who succeeds is generally either foreign born, or of more virile foreign extraction. The men of eight families hold all the realities of political and financial power in Panama. One is Cuban, one is English, two are Colombian, three are Jewish; only one is of the ordinary mixed Panamanian blood, and he has his position, not through his own force or ability, but by the accident of marriage. One of them has the tobacco monopoly, just renewed, though all monopolies were abolished by the Constitution. Another has the market concession. A third has the lottery. A fourth makes a handsome yearly sum from the assessments of liquor licenses and from blackmail levied on gamblers—and gambling of all kinds is strictly forbidden by the Constitution. Another has the telephone and telegraph concession. Another enjoys various banking privileges, and another is the Fiscal Agent and the head of the cattle trust. New forms of "graft" are being continually discovered.

Bolivar gave his life to an attempt to weld the ancestors of these Panamanians, and their kinsmen, into a great and free nation. His dying words were: "I have plowed in the sea." We have adopted the generous and impossible faith that the Panamanian is a man the equal of all other men; and as far as his salvation depends upon us, it is bound up in that faith. But we shall need to take care to see that we do not treat him like a child and spoil him like a child.

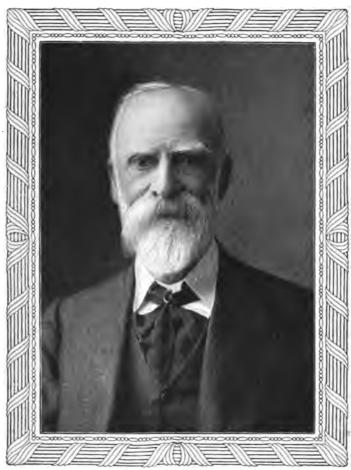
Into the quiet streets and plazas of Panama our men have come like an invading army. They have brought an incessant din with them, from typewriter,

saw, hammer. The sound of pick, shovel, and stone-crusher rings loud under the balconies as they rush the paving of the newly christened "Central Avenue." A foreman like Kipling's type American "shambles forth in cosmic guise," and with his brisk "Come on! Come on!" he makes his gangs of Jamaicans and Martiniquans work as I have seen negroes work nowhere else on the Isthmus. And this is only one thing of the thousand they are doing. Reservoirs and pumping stations are being built to supply the entire line; Colon is being sewered and paved; new quarters, hotels, houses for married folks, hospitals, are going up everywhere; huge docks are under way at Colon and La Boca. They are double-tracking the railroad; fifteen seventy and ninety ton shovels are excavating between Pedro Miguel and Bas Obispo. A vast network of rails is being laid to carry off the spoil from the great The sanitary men are at work in every division inspecting, burning, fumigating. I have talked with the judges of the courts; watched the work of the police managing crowds, making an arrest, patrolling the savannahs. I have seen the plan for the organization of a fire department, for the building of schools. I have attended the first teachers' convention ever held on the Isthmus, where a dozen papers in pedagogy were read—one of them on Expressive Reading, another on Children's Farm Gardens.

Gradually there pieces itself together a splendid human story. You begin to understand that our Republic is doing something more on the Isthmus than the mere building of a canal. It is creating a State with all the machinery and equipment of our home civilization adapted to strange needs. The work is being done in a hurry, but it is being done Not perfectly, as these articles may show, but still well enough to justify the pride of the Nation. Best of all, it is being done at no serious cost of life. Less than a week ago I attended morning inspection of the fever wards of Ancon, our largest hospital. About fifty patients were being cared for; only one of them was in peril of death.

Panama, Republic of Panama.





THE RIGHT HONORABLE JAMES BRYCE Chief Secretary for Ireland

THE NEW IRISH GOVERNMENT

BY JUSTIN McCARTHY

Author of "A History of Our Own Times," etc., etc.

HE results of the recent general elections and the arrival of Lord Aberdeen for the second time as Lord Lieutenant of Ireland must have seemed to the Irish people like the opening of a new era for their country. There was, indeed, a common impression everywhere throughout these islands that the new Liberal Government must be greatly strengthened in power by the results of the appeal to the country. But it was hardly expected anywhere,

so far as I know, that the defeat of the Conservative party could be so absolute and so overwhelming as it proved to be. It will be remembered that Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman and his colleagues had come into office because the Conservative Government under Mr. Arthur James Balfour did not care to face the immense financial and political difficulties into which they had brought themselves, and probably thought their best chance lay in resigning and in leaving

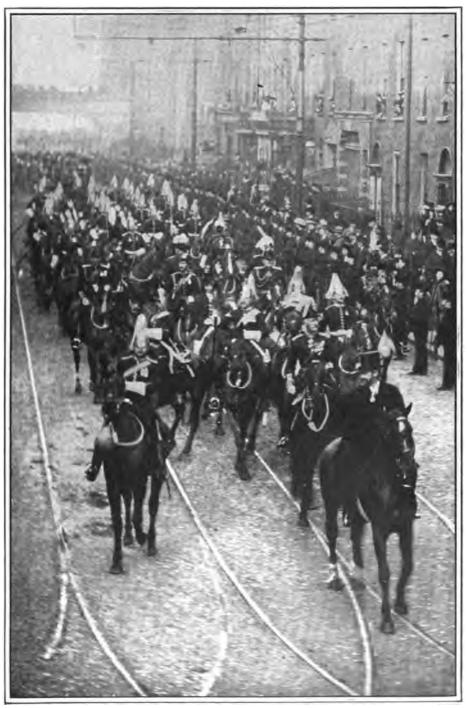
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to a Liberal Government unprepared for such a responsibility to make the best they could of the conditions bequeathed to them, or to fail utterly in the attempt, and thus mar their chances for the The Liberal Government, however, very wisely determined to throw upon their Tory predecessors the full responsibility for their ten years of office, and to appeal at once to the constituencies of all Great Britain and Ireland for their deciding choice between the two political parties. The choice de-. clared itself, I need hardly say, in a majority for the Liberals the like of which has never been known in the history of that party, or of any other party here since the great Reform Bill of 1832. In all recent generations a Ministry has been held safe and strong which could count on a majority of 100 in a party division—the Liberal Ministry under Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman has already on several occasions defeated the Conservatives by majorities of more than 300.

Under these auspicious conditions Lord Aberdeen occupies for the second time the Irish Viceroyalty. Nearly twenty years have passed since Lord Aberdeen's first appointment to the place which he now holds. The first appointment was given to him by Mr. Gladstone at the time when Gladstone brought out in the House of Commons his earlier measure for the granting of Home Rule to Ireland. At that time, however, there were no such prospects open to a Viceroy of Lord Aberdeen's principles as those which welcome him now. When he first came to Ireland as Viceroy, the great mass of the Irish people were ready to give him their most cordial welcome because he came as the representative of a Home Rule policy, but few indeed had any real hope just then that Gladstone's great reform was des-Yet it must be said tined to success. that no Irish Viceroy had ever before been sent to Dublin who endeared himself more to the people he was commissioned to govern than did Lord Aberdeen during the short time allowed to him by adverse political fate for his maintenance of the office. He would, of course, have been welcome in any case

were it only because he came as the representative of the Home Rule policy, but he soon showed personal gifts and graces, a generous heart, a sympathetic spirit, and an intellectual capacity which must have won for him the admiration and the affection of the Irish people. He now returns to Ireland the same man, to hold the same position, but under very different conditions. He is now in Ireland as the representative of the strongest Liberal Government we have had for many generations. The present Prime Minister has long been a proclaimed Home Ruler, and in his Government leading places are held by men like John Morley, James Bryce, and many others who have always in the darkest times for Home Rule held firmly to its principle.

The Irish Nationalist party is stronger now in numbers than it ever was before, and is thoroughly united in political purpose and has even won some seats from that Orange province of Ulster which at one time made itself the camping-ground of every anti-Irish faction. Then it has to be added that the Labor party, which is now for the first time a numerous and powerful party in the House of Commons, is prepared to stand shoulder to shoulder with the Irish Nationalists on the question of Home Rule for Ireland. Within the last few years, also, some of the British colonies have in their local parliaments passed strong resolutions calling upon the Parliament at Westminster to grant Ireland's demand for the right of governing her own domestic affairs while remaining under these altered conditions a contented and loyal partner in the British Empire. My American readers will readily understand what a difference these changes make between the conditions of Lord Aberdeen's former mission to Ireland and the conditions which welcome his second Vicerovalty there. The present Liberal Government have not thus far delivered any formal announcement of their resolve to bring in a Home Rule measure at any definite time. But it has been clearly made known by Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman and by other leading members of his administration that the principle is accepted, and that when the



STATE ENTRY OF THE LORD LIEUTENANT INTO DUBLIN



LADY ABERDEEN

huge burden of unfinished work left upon their hands by their predecessors shall have been dealt with to some reasonable extent, and when the errors of their predecessors shall have been as far as possible corrected, the Government will begin the movement to give to Ireland her right and her system of selfgovernment.

Lord Aberdeen was not trained to political life in the House of Commons, because he succeeded too early to his family title, which gave him at once a place in the House of Lords. A man of ability. devoted to a political life, loses much by having no training in the stirring and vivid debates of the House of Commons. The House of Lords is for the most part a rather dull assembly; its meetings do not usually occupy more than an hour or two; it very seldom becomes the scene of any great parliamentary struggle, and only on rare occasions listens to a really important and thrilling debate. There are always some powerful speakers and eloquent debaters in the House of Lords, but most of these have come from the representative chamber by the succession to or gift of a title, and some of these have already accomplished the great political work of their lives and do not feel called upon to trouble themselves much about making a display in the unstimulating atmosphere of the House of Lords. Aberdeen, however, soon gave evidence in the Peers' chamber that nature had given him some of the best qualities of a parliamentary debater. He had a fine voice, had been a devoted student of literature and art as well as of history and politics, had a ready and fluent utterance, and a remarkable power of sustained argument; and these qualifi-. cations were enhanced by his fine figure and handsome face. Lord Aberdeen soon discovered that the old-fashioned Conservative political principles were not suited to his progressive mind, and he became before long an advanced Liberal and a devoted follower of Glad-The result was that Gladstone stone. soon saw in him a man who could render high service to the State if only the State allowed him opportunity; and when he brought in his Home Rule measure,

he made Lord Aberdeen Lord Lieutenant of Ireland. I have often wondered whether Gladstone did not at the time take account of some other advantages possessed by Lord Aberdeen which must help to make him especially welcome to a susceptible and enthusiastic people like those of Ireland. Lord Aberdeen was the husband of one of the most gifted and charming women that it has ever been my good fortune to meet. Lady Aberdeen was the daughter of a noble house, and she always appeared to me as if nature had especially designed her to be the wife of the man whom she had accepted as her husband. She was a handsome and singularly interesting woman, endowed with a remarkably fine intellect, a most attractive manner, and a generous love and devotion for every noble cause and enterprise. Her whole life seems to have been guided by a love for humanity and a sympathy with human suffering, and she had a certain instinctive originality of perception which made her an invaluable companion, and often, I should think, an invaluable guide to a husband with such a career before him as that which was assigned to Lord She had been in a certain Aberdeen. sense a ruling power, among some sections of the aristocratic and fashionable society of London, and she had won that position, not by making herself an exponent of fashion or a light of aristocracy, but by devoting herself to the cause of the poor and suffering. Lady Aberdeen was a true and energetic champion of the genuine emancipation of woman, and she accomplished her work with such grace and such sympathetic charm that the humorists of the time, who loved to describe the advocates of women's rights as unsexed declaimers and termagants. could not but feel that Lady Aberdeen was in herself a living refutation of their satirical arguments and illustrations. For all her high intellect and her practical activity in the cause of progress and human welfare, she was the very type of gentle and graceful womanhood. who were interested in the cause of Ireland could not but feel that the career of Lord Aberdeen as Lord Lieutenant must be sustained and advanced in every way by the companionship of such a wife

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and every one who knew anything of the pair knew that they lived in the most thorough companionship of feelings and of purposes. I had at that time, and for long after, many opportunities of meeting Lord and Lady Aberdeen, and I am therefore not depending merely on the testimony of others, however well qualified to judge, when I thus give my ideas as to the qualifications of both alike for the work which they then undertook and are now undertaking once again. The impression which Lord and Lady Aberdeen made on the people of Ireland during their stay in Dublin on that first occasion was exactly what those who knew them must have anticipated.

The Viceroy in Ireland had up to that time, except in rare instances, represented merely the mastery which English rule had enforced upon a reluctant and resisting people. Dublin Castle, the home of the Lord-Lieutenant, was the social as well as the official center of all that part of the community who maintained the principle of English domina-It need hardly be said that that part of the community was very small indeed so far as numbers were concerned, and consisted almost altogether of the landlord class and such of the Dublin shopkeeping classes as were dependent mainly on Castle patronage. The whole national population of Ireland had no more to do with the social life of Dublin Castle than with the social life. if there be any such, of the planet Mars. Lord Aberdeen and his wife changed at once these conditions of official life in London. They offered their most liberal hospitality to Home Rulers and Nationalists, and at the Viceregal festivities were to be frequently met Irish Home Rule members who had been denounced, over and over again, by leading London newspapers as the enemies of peace and order, the promoters of assassination, and the instigators of civil war. All this was done without the slightest suggestion that the host and hostess were making an effort to secure a welcome in Ireland, but merely as if they were welcoming familiar guests to the Viceregal home. Lord and Lady Aberdeen have, indeed, always been in the habit of associating in England with Irish Nationalists as

freely and as genially as with advanced English and Scotch Radicals, and it costs them no more effort to be friendly in one place than in the other.

Up to that time, however, it would have been difficult to meet with an Irish Nationalist in the Dublin home of an Irish Viceroy, for even if the Viceroy were to invite the Irish National representative the Nationalist could hardly accept the invitation, because its acceptance might lay him open to the odious suspicion that he was seeking to court the favor of Dublin Castle and might thus be regarded as failing in his devotion to his National cause. Now the Irish Lord-Lieutenant and his wife had come to Dublin as proclaimed advocates of Home Rule, and they were welcomed by a national enthusiasm rarely expressed or felt by the Irish people for the representative of English dominion Ireland.

My American readers know already how the golden promise of that happy time was not destined then to be realized. Gladstone failed in carrying his first Home Rule measure through the House of Commons, and the great Liberal leader went out of office. Lord Aberdeen went out of office with his chief, and he and his wife took their leave of Dublin amid public demonstrations of gratitude, affection, and regret such as an ordinary mortal, living before those days and unendowed with prophetic vision, could hardly have believed it possible for a British Viceroy and his wife to receive in the Irish national capital. When the Liberals came into power again, Mr. Gladstone brought in his second Home Rule measure and succeeded in carrying it through the House of Commons, but, almost as a matter of course, it was rejected when brought up for consideration by the House of Lords. There was nothing astonishing or alarming to the advocates of Home Rule in this action on the part of the hereditary chamber. Every measure of political reform brought forward in England is sure to be rejected by the House of Lords when first it is sent up to them. We all know that it will have to be sent up to them time after time until they can at last bring themselves to recognize the fact that the majority of



DUBLIN CASTLE



THE OLD PARLIAMENT HOUSE

Now the Bank of Ireland

the constituencies are determined to carry the measure, and that further resistance may be fraught with danger to the principle of legislation by hereditary lawmakers.

The appointment of Lord Aberdeen has especial and peculiar interest and importance just at present. It is well known that there are in the new Liberal Government, and even in the new Liberal Cabinet itself, some members whose minds do not seem to be quite made up on the subject of Home Rule. I do not know that any one of these has proclaimed or is likely to proclaim himself an absolute opponent of Home Rule; but it is certain that some of the new Ministers give to it only a qualified and rather reluctant acceptance, and are anxious to put off as long as possible the raising of the whole question in Parliament. Under these conditions it is a matter of the highest importance that Lord Aberdeen has been sent to Ireland as Lord Lieutenant. It would have been quite easy for the Prime Minister, had he been so inclined, to obtain the appointment to the Lord Lieutenancy for some Peer who, even if a Home Ruler, had never pledged himself publicly to the principle, and thus have allowed uncertain Liberals to hope that the question was not pressing, according to the judgment of the new Ministry. But when it was made known that the Prime Minister had chosen as the Government's representative in Ireland a man like Lord Aberdeen, already devoted heart and ... soul to the cause of Home Rule, there came an end to all possible doubt as to the policy of the men who will lead the new Government. The appointment has been welcomed with the utmost delight by the Irish people. If the whole event were _ to have no other result, it might well be a subject of congratulation to every patriotic Englishman and Irishman, because it will at least help to make it evident that the more Liberal an English Prime Minister is, the more firm he is to the Home Rule principle, and the more thoroughly he recognizes that Home Rule for Ireland must be a blessing to the English as well as to the Irish people.

It is no part of my purpose in this article to say much about Lord Aber-

deen's career as Governor-General of Canada. When, some years after the failure of Gladstone's first Reform measure, the Liberal party came back into power, Mr. Gladstone appointed Lord Aberdeen to act as the representative of English rule in Canada—one of the highest and most important positions which can be given to an English public man. It is enough to say that Lord Aberdeen and his wife made themselves as popular in Canada as they had been in Ireland, and were regarded with equal confidence and admiration by the French as by the British Canadians. To accomplish such a success as this is indeed as high a proof as can well be given of statesmanlike impartiality, sympathy, and justice. My object in this article is to speak of Lord Aberdeen as he showed himself in his dealings with Ireland, and we have him now once again as a representative Dublin Castle of a Government pledged as a whole to the principle of Home Rule for Ireland.

The return of Lord Aberdeen to his former position bears, in one of its conditions, a special and peculiar resemblance to his first appearance on that political stage. When he came to Ireland for the first time, he brought with him as Chief Secretary a man who had won an equal fame in literature and in politics-Mr. John Morley. Now that he comes for the second time, he brings with him another man who also stands in the foremost rank of authors and of Parliamentary statesmen. It is a curious fact that in a volume of "British Political Portraits," which was published for me in the United States nearly three years ago, I said that, "In a certain sense, James Bryce might be described as belonging to that Parliamentary order in the front of which John Morley stands just now." There was at that time but little prospect of any return of the Liberal party to power in England, and there was not, in my mind, any thought of the possibility that James Bryce might come to hold the same position under Lord Aberdeen in Ireland that John Morley had already held.

James Bryce is one of the very foremost of modern historians. His work "The Holy Roman Empire" is already

recognized as one of our modern classics. and his book "The American Commonwealth" must be well known in the United States. He was born in Ireland, but his family belonged, I believe, to Scotland, and the city in which he was born, Belfast, has much of the Caledonian atmosphere about it. Belfast is the leading city in that small part of Ireland which still strives to hold out against Home Rule, but is becoming less and less able to maintain its old influence in Parliamentary representation. James Bryce was educated at the University of Glasgow and at Trinity College, Oxford; studied at the Bar, and practiced the profession for a time; became Professor of Civil Law at Oxford, and afterwards gave up that position and went in for a life devoted at once to letters and to politics. He made a distinct mark in the House of Commons, and although he could hardly be described as an orator in the higher sense, he was unquestionably one of the influential debaters in the House. His speeches were always instructive, dealt closely with every subject on which he had to address the House; he never spoke on any question concerning which he had not something of his own to say, and never addressed the House when he did not feel himself compelled by his own knowledge of the subject to take a part in the debate. He was always listened to with the closest and deepest attention, for the good reason that every member of the House well knew that when James Bryce arose to speak the House would be sure to hear something which it would not willingly lose. He was from the beginning an advanced Liberal, to use a phrase familiar in our Parliamentary world, and carrying with it a distinct meaning. He was also a strong advocate of Home Rule for Ireland. He soon won an acknowledged reputation in the House of Commons. When the Liberals came into power, he was made Under Secretary for Foreign Affairs, and during a later Liberal administration Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster. As successor to John Morley he becomes the latest of a trio of gifted and high-minded men appointed to the office of Irish Chief Secretary,

and I cannot doubt that Bryce will show himself during his work in that position as a fitting successor to the other two.

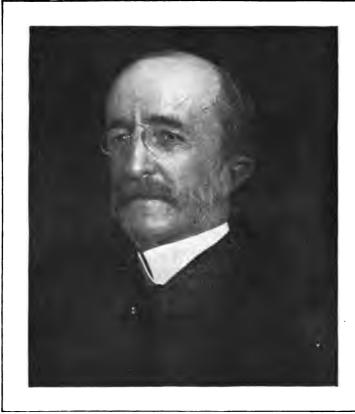
Thomas Drummond was an Edinburgh man by birth, distinguished himself in practical science, then turned to political work, and in 1835 was made Irish Secretary. During his stay in Ireland he thoroughly gained the affections of the people by his absolute impartiality, his sympathy, and his resolute efforts to sustain the Irish peasantry against the tyranny of the landlord class, whom it was the fashion of the ruling British powers in those days to endow with an almost absolute mastery over the tenants. One of Drummond's famous phrases, "Property has its duties as well as its rights," has made itself memorable in the history of Ireland, and it was upon the principle embodied in that phrase that Drummond ever acted while he had to do with the government of Ireland. It may seem to many readers in our times nothing better than a truism, but in the days of Drummond it must have seemed to the ruling class in Ireland an audacious heresy, and some generations had to pass away and many troubles had to be gone through before it became a recognized maxim of constitutional law in the government of Ireland. Each of these three men-Drummond, Morley, and Bryce-had, it will be seen, won celebrity in other than political life before he was appointed to the office of Irish Secretary. John Morley now holds one of the highest positions which can be given by an English Prime Minister the office of Secretary of State for India; and that fact in itself shows how well the present administration must feel satisfied with the work which he was able to accomplish during his opportunities of Irish administration.

I do not, however, desire to convey the idea that no one but an advocate of Home Rule could now make himself popular as representative in Ireland of a British Government. The late Viceroy of Ireland, Earl Dudley, represented, in Dublin Castle, a Government positively pledged to resist the demand for Home Rule, and yet I know that he and his wife won the full respect, and even the affectionate regard, of the Irish peo-

ple, and that their leaving Ireland on the fall of the Conservative Ministry was made the occasion for a most impressive demonstration of popular regard and grateful feeling. The reason for this was that Lord Dudley and his wife did ail in their power to show their thorough sympathy with the Irish people in everything outside the range of political movements: did all they could to help the poor; to make the administration of the laws equitable and merciful; to improve the condition of the farming and the laboring classes; to spread education, and to make the homes of the poor The Irish people knew perfectly well that it was not within Lord Dudley's power, even had he been thus inclined, to help the cause of Home Rule, but they were fair-minded enough to see that the Viceroy and Lady Dudley were sincerely anxious to promote the happiness of the people around them, and to work in the cause of humanity. Lady Dudley helped her husband in his good work with untiring energy and sympathy, and the Irish people would be the last in the world to fail in the recognition of

such purposes and such merits merely because the Lord-Lieutenant and his wife were not advocates of Home Rule. I have been reading lately an article written and signed by my friend T. P. O'Connor, in which he pays the highest tribute to the work done by Lord and Lady Dudley during the late Viceroyalty, and to the manner in which that work was recognized and appreciated by the Irish people. My readers in the United States do not need to be told that T. P. O'Connor is one of the most thoroughgoing, as he is one of the most gifted, among the leading members of the Irish Home Rulers in the House of Commons, and that the praise which he gives to a Conservative and anti-Home Rule Viceroy of Ireland and his wife must have been well deserved. I have to say is that the one great cause of estrangement between Lord Dudley and the Irish people does not exist in the case of Lord Aberdeen and James Bryce, and that the Irish Lord Lieutenant and Chief Secretary are now in political as well as in personal sympathy with the people whom they are sent to govern.





DR. TRUDEAU

EDWARD L. TRUDEAU: A DEVOTED PUBLIC SERVANT

WENTY years ago a young physician, unknown outside a small circle of men in his profession, had been carrying on a series of experiments in a room in his house in Saranac Lake, and while he lay ill in New York during a temporary visit to that city, the lamp used for heating the thermostat in the little experiment station exploded, and in a few minutes the home and the workshop were totally destroyed. Two days later this note came from Dr. Osler:

"Dear Trudeau: I am sorry to hear of your misfortune, but, take my word for it, there is nothing like a fire to make a man do the Phœnix trick."

The great physician not only made a prophecy which has been brilliantly fulfilled, but he described the career of the sick man upon whom had fallen one of those blows which often prostrate strong men and send them to that shabby shelter of the unheroic and ineffective-bad luck, or fate. Dr. Edward L. Trudeau, educated at the Lycée Bonaparte in Paris, graduating from the College of Physicians and Surgeons in the city of New York in 1871, had barely set out in that city on what promised to be an exceptionally successful career when he fell a victim to tuberculosis of the lungs and sentence of death was pronounced

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upon him. On the ruins of those early hopes, with a courage as intrepid as Ney's, he has accomplished a work which puts him in the front rank of scientists in his field, and has rendered a service to his generation which places him among the first public men of America.

Two years later, in 1888, Robert Louis Stevenson was in Saranac Lake railing against the climate and nursing a wood fire with much picturesque and minatory language. The house in which he lived stood on a plateau overlooking the river, and within sight of a bold sweep of mountains. Those who saw the author of "Treasure Island" that winter will never forget the contrast between that fiery spirit and his surroundings. To see him pacing up and down his living-room, his long hair tossed impatiently back from his forehead, pausing now and again to stir up or hug the fire, and then resuming his quick tramp to the accompaniment of the most vivid description, the most telling criticism, the most exaggerated, semi-humorous condemnation of everything American and wintry, and then to catch sight of the dark river, the bleak opening in the hills, the stretch of still white landscape, made one feel as if some spirit from the tropics had delayed too long the southward flight and was fighting for cheerful vitality in the rigorous northern woods. Stevenson was artist to the tips of those sensitive hands of his; he loved warmth, color, light, and joy, and hated cold, darkness, disease, and death. Dr. Trudeau, on the other hand, was facing and fighting these terrible facts with very little support or comprehension in those days, and giving to a community slowly rising round him a revelation of heroism as great as Stevenson's, a self-denial far more exacting, and a beauty of character and life which have given hope and peace to a multitude who were slow to learn that beauty is in the skill of the artist far more than in the material on which he works.

There has been a surfeit of late of the kind of achievement which, expressing itself in fortune or position, reveals, when the light of revelation falls on it, a pitiful emptiness of spiritual meaning and turns to shabby tragedy in the light of its own

success; it is time to set out the careers of those who have touched the goal and may be ranked with the successful men of their age. Such men are modest and shun the lower kinds of praise, the cheap imitation of reputation which most newspaper notoriety means; but good works ought not to be hidden when evil works intrude themselves at every turn; and, after the pitiful procession of failures who have lately filed across the stage, the country needs the tonic of the vision of the successful man.

Thirty-two years ago Dr. Trudeau went to the Adirondacks to spend a few months hunting rabbits and then to die as other consumptives died. The great stretch of forest, with its multitudinous lakes, was known to men who used the rod and gun and to a few adventurous lovers of outdoor life; but the young physician, whose career had been ended at its very beginning, was a pioneer of the great host who have since found health and life in the bracing air of the pine forests. Saranac Lake was forty-two miles from a railroad; a primitive village with a sawmill and less than a dozen houses and a handful of people; now it is a community of six thousand souls, of whom between seven and eight hundred are health-seekers or the friends who have come with them. "old resident" told the writer the other day, you could have bought a long stretch of frontage on the main road through what is now the center of the town for eight hundred dollars; now "you can't buy a piece big enough to set down on for a thousand dollars."

When Dr. Trudeau found that a summer in the woods helped him, he resolved to spend the winter in the same surroundings. It was a radical step to take, and there were the usual dismal predictions which accompany the launching of new ideas and movements; but the sick man held to his purpose and found the dry cold, severe as it was, beneficent and kindly. He began to hope for a few years more of life; he even began to dream of some professional work. His first winter in Saranac Lake was spent out-of-doors; he and one other man, who sought refuge in the village, were the advance guard of the army of

health-seekers. There was little interest in consumption among physicians, and it was generally accepted as a form of fate by its victims. A Silesian physician had published several articles, to which small attention was paid here or abroad, urging the curative effect of out-of-door life in all weather, and insisting that the locality was of less importance than the manner of life; and that nutrition, rest, and open air were prime factors in throwing off tubercular diseases. Dr. Trudeau had been moving in the same direction, and was confirmed rather than led by Dr. Brehmer's experiments and conclusions.

After several years in the invigorating Adirondack air he recovered his power of working, and faced the fact that whatever he was to do must be done where he was. He was practically alone; a long distance from a railroad; without apparatus or money; crippled in health and an exile for life. Under these conditions he began a career which has been marvelously fruitful in three directions.

He was eager to make a test of the new methods of treatment, and conceived the idea of founding a sanitarium at Saranac Lake. Dr. Alfred Loomis gave the new enterprise the backing of his great professional reputation, and the earliest of the large group of devoted friends whom this single-hearted physician has bound to himself with bands of steel furnished the necessary means. A site was selected on a sheltered hillside commanding a noble view to the east and south, and two small buildings were put up; the first cottage consisted of one room, was heated by a wood stove and lighted by a kerosene lamp, and cost three hundred and fifty dollars. was a small covered piazza, and there, with two patients, began the first out-ofdoor treatment of consumption in this country.

On this beautiful hillside, with Whiteface and Marcy and their kindred peaks against the horizon, and the river flowing through the heart of the landscape, there is now a charming village of about twenty-five attractive buildings; including a picture sque stone chapel, a large assembly-room where fur-clad audiences gather

for plays and other entertainments, and where, with a temperature below zero and the many-windowed sides of the room wide open, ardent billiard-players pursue the game without regard to weather. There are a library, an infirmary, a corps of trained and devoted physicians and nurses, and every appliance which science has devised to fight this terrible disease. When the first cottage was opened, there was no money for physicians or nurses; there was widespread skepticism among physicians, and the feeling that exposure in such a climate was little short of suicidal was so general that it was difficult to fill the beds. Dr. Trudeau has lived to see a large community rise about his first modest venture; to have a million dollars pass through his hands for construction, equipment, endowment, and support; to develop a large institution free from the institutional atmosphere; to accumulate an endowment fund of about three hundred thousand dollars; to organize a staff of expert physicians and nurses; to be compelled to raise every year a deficit of about twenty thousand dollars. The Sanitarium needs a further endowment of half a million dollars, and the need ought to be met at once. A work of such magnitude and importance, created and carried on for twenty years by a semi-invalid, ought not to rest on that willing but overburdened courage any longer. patient costs the institution about nine dollars a week and pays five! A more vigorous and interested group of patients has never been collected than the men and women who live the out-of-door life on the piazzas by night and by day, or tramp over the hills about Saranac Lake.

In the field of institutional work Dr. Trudeau has also lived to see an imposing sanitarium erected by the State within a distance of two miles, two similar institutions organized in other parts of the Adirondacks, a large number of such institutions starting into existence in remote sections of the country, and to be constantly consulted with reference to their construction and management. He has also had the satisfaction of seeing a generous and far-sighted woman, who was formerly his patient, build a most attractive and thoroughly equipped hos-

pital on one of the most beautiful sites in the village.

Not content with providing the conditions and to test methods of treatment, Dr. Trudeau became a scientist as well as a physician, and side by side with his curative work he has carried on the work of an original investigator. A paper by Dr. Koch, published in 1883, inspired him to make an exhaustive study of the nature of tuberculosis, and started him on an ardent and patient search for a preventive and a remedy. His first laboratory, the destruction of which has been noted, was a small room in his house, and his only apparatus a microscope. He devised and made his apparatus as he went along, and, after many failures, he obtained the tubercle bacillus in pure cultures, and with these cultures began his experiments in inoculation. His guinea-pigs were kept in a hole under ground, heated by a kerosene lamp; there were no other accommodations in Saranac Lake in which these humble helpers in scientific research would not have frozen to death. He studied the conditions of infection, the effect of different conditions on inoculation, the production of artificial immunity in animals, tested all specific methods of treatment and cure, made a long series of experiments with tuberculin; every phase, aspect, and condition in any way related to the disease in any stage was subjected to the most searching analysis, and a long list of publications preserves the record of more than two decades of tireless study and experi-Dr. Koch, Dr. von Behren, and Dr. Trudeau have been patiently moving to the same great and benignant endthe discovery of an antitoxin which shall destroy the tubercular bacillus and rid the world of one of its most terrible scourges.

The value that scientific men attach to Dr. Trudeau's experiments is brought out in a recent paper by Dr. Flexner, of the University of Pennsylvania:

To whom belong the credit of protective inoculation against tuberculosis? In biological science, as in the physical sciences, discovery proceeds, not by isolated independent observation of fact, but by orderly procession. Even the newest, most unexpected, and startling discoveries are bound

up with previous knowledge. The successful attempts to produce immunity from bovine tuberculosis do not stand out as isolated performances, but are merely the ultimata of many unsuccessful and some partially successful experiments which have gone before. It is a matter of congratulation and National pride that the two essential prerequisites to the later important studies upon tuberculosis just cited should have been supplied by American investigators. The first of these was the demonstration by Theobald Smith of the differences between bovine and human tubercle bacilli; the second, the protection by Trudeau and de Schwenitz of rabbits and guinea-pigs from certain tuberculous infections by previous inoculation with tubercle bacilli of diminished virulence. Because of the high intrinsic value of Trudeau's experiments, and because they have generally been overlooked in the published accounts of the protective inoculation of cattle, it is only just that they be recalled and be given the high place they deserve among the facts of this recent important addition to our knowledge of tuberculosis.

In this work, as in the building of the Sanitarium, Dr. Trudeau has found devoted friends, and has turned what appeared to be his misfortune into the most fruitful opportunities of advancing and broadening the scope of his activi-Dr. Osler's prophecy was fulfilled when the burning of his house was followed the day after by an offer to build a fireproof laboratory. A substantial stone building, with tiled floors and walls, lighted by electricity and furnished with every appliance for chemical and bacteriological work, has taken the place of the little room and has become one of three or four outlying posts of scientific investigation in this field. Dr. Trudeau collected about him a staff of able young physicians, equally devoted to him and to science, who worked with him and under his direction; and, in connection with the Sanitarium, has made Saranac Lake a center of special study in one of the most important departments in modern medical science. If the writer were giving a report of this work, the services and attainments of Dr. Edward R. Baldwin would call for special comment; they are known to the profession everywhere; but this brief sketch is a study of a great personality rather than an account of the development of a center of medical study and teaching. Four physicians and two assistants constitute the staff of the Laboratory, which has

been supported of late years by the generosity of Mrs. A. A. Anderson, a large-minded woman whose benefactions to higher education constitute an important part of the beautiful housing and of the endowment of Barnard College in New York. Dr. Trudeau has lived also to see the movement for the study and prevention of tuberculosis started, developed, and become National in its scope, and to be the first President of a society to further the great work and educate the public to a sense of its immense importance.

The establishment of the Sanitarium and of the Laboratory have been parts of the larger work of Dr. Trudeau as a physician. The little village of guides and a sawmill has grown to the dimensions of a town, and the health-seekers have increased from two in 1876 to seven or eight hundred. Drawn thither by the reputation and presence of the widely known expert and by the provision made for comfort and the facilities for treatment, Saranac Lake has become a great sanitarium; the inspiration, the center, and the example of the curative energy, the recuperative vitality of the out-of-door life. The "Journal of the Outdoor Life," well edited and charmingly housed at the Sanitarium, commenting on the occasional skepticism expressed touching the possibility of curing tuberculosis, reports that of a certain large number of patients discharged from the Sanitarium apparently cured, ninety-three per cent. of the "expected living" (according to a life table) are still alive; of those discharged with the disease arrested, sixty-five per cent.; and of the cases discharged with active symptoms, twenty-three per cent.

On the coldest day the streets of the village look like the deck of a steamer in mid-ocean, so continuous are the rows of reclining chairs. In that dry atmosphere the fear of fresh air, which survives from the times when Nature was a source of terror to men, and they hugged the fire in the great mediæval fireplaces as a refuge, not only from cold, but from demons, vanishes and leaves behind a new sense of liberty. The caller in Saranac is cordially wel-

comed on a hospitable piazza with the mercury ten degrees below zero, is given an extra rug, and recalls with a glow of present satisfaction the stuffiness of over-furnished and under-aired drawingrooms.

Never were invalids and semi-invalids more cheerful and buoyant. The whole community is pervaded by a quiet courage, an unpretentious and for the most part an unexpressed pluck, which cover the casual visitor with shame at the remembrance of his repinings over petty inconveniences.

At a time when the story of self-seeking and greed is writ large in the newspapers, and honorable reputations are shriveling in the fierce heat of a great indignation, it is in the last degree heartening to report a community in which mutual helpfulness and service, generous bestowal of great gifts of skill and experience, and indifference to the lower ambitions are pervasive and characteris-At first in loneliness and isolation and now with the companionship of expert physicians, Dr. Trudeau has ministered to hundreds of men and women who have gained strength from his strength and serenity from his courage. They have known that he has himself passed through all that they are passing through, and that he is not only an expert physician but an expert patient. Sorrows too great to be recorded, a support and faith too sacred to be commented upon, have been part of his personal life. They have given him a depth of sympathy, a quiet tenderness of touch on overborne spirits as well as on wasted bodies, a simple, unrepining, pervading strength, which have made him to a multitude of those who have been under his care, to a whole community which reveres and honors him, a living incarnation of the spirit of the Great Physician who suffered that he might heal and died that he might cure. Singleminded devotion, indifference to opportunities of "making money," self-forgetfulness, quenchless enthusiasm, and the habit of tireless observation and research, have made this semi-invalid the great figure he has become, and touched his career with a heroic quality and dignity.



Charles Ray Dean Secretary of the Delegation Edmund J. James

William I. Buchanan New York Chairman of the Delegation

Tulio Larrinaga Porto Rico

THE AMERICAN DELEGATES TO THE PAN-AMERICAN CONGRESS

N the development of America as a world power Dewey's gun at Manila, May 1, 1898, was a historic event. It is safe to assume that on or about July 21, 1906, another equally important event in that development will take place. On that date, it is expected, an American Secretary of State will, for the first time in history, officially visit South America, and the event will have a double significance because of the assembling at Rio de Janeiro, the capital of Brazil, of the third Pan-American Congress.

The leader of the American delegation to that Congress is, very appropriately, the Hon. William Inseo Buchanan, one of the most efficient agents ever sent by this Government to Central and South America. For six years Mr. Buchanan was Minister to the Argentine Republic. During that period he was designated by the Chilian and Argentine Governments, with the approval of the Congress of each country, as the deciding arbiter of the commission to fix the boundary between the two States. Mr. Buchanan. who had been in charge of an important department in the World's Fair at Chicago, became in 1901 Director-General of the Pan-American Exposition in Buffalo. The following year he was one of the delegates from this country to the second Pan-American Conference. The Conference met in the City of Mexico. Mr. Buchanan's latest service to his country was as the first United States Minister to the Republic of Panama.

Mr. Buchanan's colleagues are President Edmund J. James, of the University of Illinois, formerly Professor of Political Economy at the University of Pennsylvania, and Professor Leo S. Rowe, who now fills that chair at Philadelphia. Drs. James and Rowe are publicists of standing and will add weight to the commission. President James has given special attention to the subject of federal constitution: and city charters, as is indicated by the titles of his many publications. Five years ago Professor Rowe

was a member of the commission to revise and compile the laws of Porto Rico, and reported codes which were, with some modifications, adopted as the law under which the island is now governed. He is President of the American Academy of Political and Social Science.

Two other members bring to the work a special equipment by reason of work already accomplished in Spanish-speaking countries. They are, first, the Hon. James S. Harlan, a son of Associate Justice Harlan, of the Supreme Court; Mr. Harlan was Attorney-General of Porto Rico from 1901 to 1903. The second is Señor Tulio Larrinaga, Resident Commissioner in Congress from Porto Rico formerly Chief Engineer of Provincial Works, and a member of the Porto Rico House of Delegates.

The secretary of the delegation is to be Mr. Charles Ray Dean, at present Chief of the Bureau of Appointments in the Department of State. In the Venezuelan preferential treatment case before the Hague Tribunal Mr. Dean was secretary to the American Consul, and is familiar with South American customs and methods, both social and legal.

Such a personnel certainly ought to strengthen the t.es between the Washington Government and those south of They will certainly have well prepared the way for the Hon. Elihu Root, Secretary of State, who is prepared to reassert at Rio, and at the other South American capitals which he will visit in his circumnavigatory tour, the Monroe Doctrine in a way to assure to every Government in the Americas the respect and friendliness of our own Government. The interpretation of the Monroe Doctrine by a world-statesman like Mr. Root, in conferring personally with the ruling Powers of South America, ought not only to conduce to their own individual good but also to mark the advent of the United States Government to a beneficial social, commercial, and political influence throughout the Western Hemisphere.

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PHOTOGRAPH BY WHITMAN STUDIO, CHEISEA, MASS

MISS HELEN KELLER

HOW TO BE BLIND

Give the Blina a Chance to Become Self-Supporting, Self-Respecting Citizens

BY HELEN KELLER

THE New York Association for Promoting the Interests of the Blind lately held a great public meeting in New York City. Its object was to present a truthful account of the condition of the blind in America, who are now living in a state of idleness more terrible even than loss of sight, and to rouse the people to secure for these neglected thousands man's greatest privilege. opportunity to work. The blessings of a liberal education, equivalent to that provided for seeing children in common schools, are within the reach of all blind children in this country. But almost nothing has been done for industrial education, which is necessary to alleviate the tragic condition of blindness, and without which the benefits of other kinds of education are all but annulled. this moment thousands of strong, intelligent blind persons who could be trained as workers in the world of honest toil are enduring the keenest anguish because they are numbered among the unproductive dependent classes.

I am sincerely glad that our country is at last awaking to a realization of this condition. But at the same time I deplore the fact that this realization did not take place fifty years ago. For the problem is not one that began to-day or that can be solved in a day. It has called for solution ever since the first blind man faced the terrors of darkness. We had a champion and liberator half a century ago, but we failed to follow whither he so bravely led. Our leader was Dr. Samuel Gridley Howe, founder of the Perkins Institution for the Blind in South Boston, who brought the light of his genius into every corner of the cavern where the blind man dwells.

Constantly as he labored to instruct, by the best methods available, blind children and youths, he never forgot that in the nature of things blind girls and boys become adult blind, that most of the blind lose their sight in adult years, and he never ceased to plan and provide as far as he could for their wel-He opened a workshop for them connected with the Perkins Institution. He demonstrated their ability to earn and their skill to work. He even looked forward to the establishment of workshops large enough to receive all the sightless of New England who could be taught to work. At the end of five years he found that he had paid to twentyeight blind persons for the work of the fifth year nearly two thousand dollars, at a cost to the Institution of only three hundred dollars. Six vears later the amount paid in wages was forty-six hundred dollars. Ten years later, during war time, the amount decreased only a thousand dollars. Dr. Howe's reports outline for directors of schools wise, careful plans for the training and employment of those who are blind from childhood, and also for those who lose their sight in years of maturity. He was tireless in his efforts to open wider fields for their usefulness and self-help. What has the last half-century done to fulfill Are the blind in this his labors? country the self-supporting, self-respecting citizens that he prophesied?

According to the recent report of the Massachusetts Commission on the Adult Blind there are "some fifteen or twenty" blind persons employed in the workshop which Dr. Howe founded and which, under his supervision, half a century ago employed twenty-eight. It may be manifest to others, as it is to the Springfield "Republican," "what advantages this long-established institution . . . must have over any volunteer organization in

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the matter of finding the right blind persons to employ, of directing their industry and marketing its product." These advantages certainly have not been fully



BLIND GIRLS WEAVING

At the Massachusetts Experiment Station for the Trade Training of the Bland. The purpose of the station is to find new employments in which the adult blind may be self-supporting. The woven fabrics sell readily for their beauty and excellence.

appreciated by those who enjoy them, for it was the "volunteer organization" referred to, the Massachusetts Association for Promoting the Interests of the Adult Blind, which took up the work of industrial education for the blind of Massachusetts about where Dr. Howe left it, secured the appointing of a commission by the Governor, and directly inspired the organization in New York of a similar volunteer association.

Three years ago, at one of the early meetings of the newly organized workers for the blind in Massachusetts, a blind man gave his experience. He had been foreman in a lithographing establishment. At the age of

thirty-six, young, vigorous, industrious, he had been stricken with blindness, and for four years he had groped his way from one kind of work to another and

had failed. He declared that he was eager to work, and craved no other boon in the world but work. "What can you do?" asked one of the investigators. "I do not know," he replied. "That is what I have been trying to find out." There was no one to advise him what he could profitably learn to do, much less a place where he could learn to do it. could not go into the little shop at South Boston. The only occupations outside it which seemed to have survived in Massachusetts as suitable for blind men were pianotuning, caning chairs, and selling pencils and



MOP-MAKING AT THE MASSACHUSETTS EXPERIMENTAL STATION

The manufacture and sale of the mop invented by a blind
man promise a self-supporting industry for the blind

shoestrings on the street corners. It had been nobody's business to teach a blind man to work, to find him work after he had been taught, even to give him intelligent advice. Many important

things seem to be nobody's business. The agent of the commission which was afterward appointed to find out something officially about the blind, discovered in the State eighteen blind children of school age not in the Perkins Institution which the public had provided for them; it had been nobody's duty to see that they were educated. This has been the state of things a few miles from the scene of Dr. Howe's labors.

children, and enjoyed his recreation after the burden and toil of the day. With God's candle shining upon his head he has worked and thought and planned and faced the vicissitudes of life with his own help in him and a strong heart. In a moment all is changed. The terrors of a strange dark world close in upon him. He no more knows his way in the street, along the familiar road, even about his own house. He is as a cap-



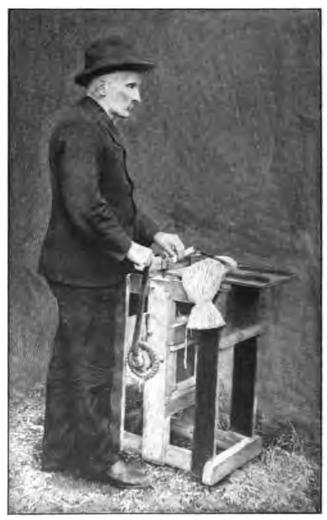
STRIPPING TOBACCO

This partially blind woman does the work practically as well as a seeing person. The manager of the factory says that her presence "calls out the humanitarian side of the others in her department"

Imagine, if you can, the feelings of a worker like that lithographer, stricken with blindness and cast out from the occupation to which he had been trained and in which he had risen to a position of competence. To him light and life have been synonymous. He has earned his bread in work which required his sight. He has known his family and his friends by the light that shines upon their faces. In the light he has read his newspaper, and walked abroad with his

tive, dependent on any one he may chance to stumble against, and if he has no relatives or friends, he becomes an object of charity along with the pauper and the degenerate. He flounders in a stagnant sea of apathy, without course or horizon or guiding star or haven. Or he grows bitter against a fate that he cannot master. The blind are brave, they try to be cheerful, but the "happy disposition" with which seeing people so often tell you the blind are endowed is a fiction more comforting to the seeing than to the sightless. With new hope the blind man hears that there are people who will teach him to read with his fingers. That is something; but it cannot lead him back to the active joy of work. Perhaps he visits the school for the blind in his State, with the hope that he may find something to do and something worth doing. He is speedily disappointed, for he learns that the blind children will be almost as helpless as he is when they graduate from school!

Great as the misfortune of blindness must always be, it has been much greater in this country than it need be. For the blind of Europe have advanced far through their limitations toward self-maintenance. The causes of failure in America are not far to seek: lack of initiative, intelligence, and enthusiasm on the part of those to whom the public has intrusted the welfare of the sightless, including the managers of the schools for the blind, whose attitude toward industrial ventures the Massachusetts Commission characterizes as "unsympathetic, to say the least." What we need, and what we have not, is expert supervision, adequate industrial training, some



A BLIND INVENTOR

He has invented a mop of novel design and devised a machine for its manufacture



BASKET-MAKERS
In the Wisconsin Workshop for the Blind

agency to find positions for the capable blind, to stand behind them till they get a start, and to find a market for the work of their hands.

It is the policy of most American

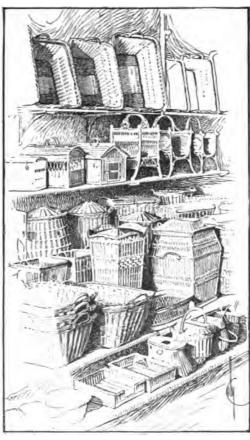
institutions for the seeing and the unseeing alike to let their graduates shift for themselves; to keep a record of their signal successes, but not of the failures. the blind such a policy is ruinous. A blind man cannot, like his seeing fellow-citizen, learn his work after his schooling is done, bear the brunt of learning it alone, and know the excellence of his work without the eyesight of another.

Suppose a young woman tries to knit and crochet in her home. She may work constantly, yet earn nothing. This is one of the kinds of work for the blind which can be

profitable only under careful supervision. Hand-made articles must be of the finest design, color, and workmanship in order to compete with the cheap machine-made articles, and only the well-to-do will pay

for them. Now, most of the blind are poor, and have but crude ideas of design, so that if their shawls and afghans are to fetch anything in the market, they must be done under the eye of a skillful teacher.

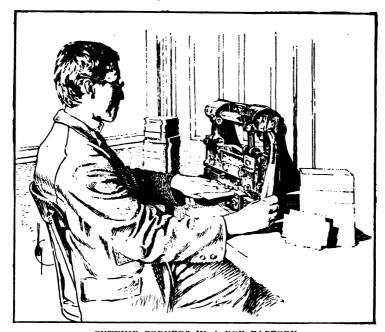
Even if a blind person can do something premely well, he cannot find a position for himself. Some sympathetic and intelligent agent is necessary to help him, not only to hunt a place, but to overcome a prejudice against Unfortunately, there is a presumption in the public mind that blind a man's work must be inferior to that of a seeing com-



THE WIDE VARIETY OF BASKETS MADE BY THE WISCONSIN WORKERS

petitor. The blind organist hears of a vacancy, goes to the church committee himself, applies for the position, and proves his musical powers. They refuse his services simply because he is blind. It is assumed that he cannot read new music, that he cannot teach others, that he cannot even be depended upon to get to church and find his seat at the organ. The deepest pitfall to the feet of the sightless is the black gulf of ignorance in the minds of the seeing. Modest, disappointed, abashed, the blind man does not argue his case. He needs a special

for the blind, instead of taking a minimum of interest in this work, ignoring it as outside their province, even openly or secretly opposing it, ought to be the leaders in all undertakings for the welfare of the blind. Does the real friend of a class, head of a respected and powerful institution specifically intended for a part of that class, bound his interests with the walls of his institution? A great educator like President Eliot understands that, if only for his own sake, if only for the welfare of his institution, he must concern himself with the entire



CUTTING CORNERS IN A BOX FACTORY

This blind boy works in a factory with seeing people, and does as good work as his companions

friend whose business it shall be to insist that people give the blind man a chance. What State in this country has long had any such authorized agent?

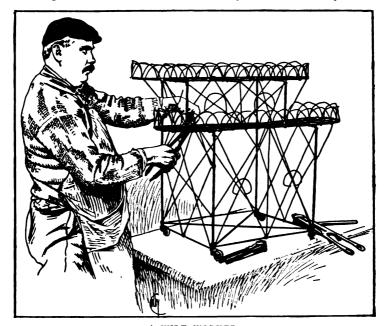
The existing schools for the blind are good as far as they go; there is little to censure in their instruction of children. They cannot do everything for all the blind, but they should feel that the problems of the blind are related, and they should be the first to encourage, inspire, and demand, with all the influence of their institutions behind them, the right kind of industrial aid for the sightless who need it. The directors of the schools

problem of which his special work is a part. We find him interested in a trade school across the world from his university, and laboring upon the curriculum of the lowest primary school. We quarrel with none of the excellent work for the blind which the existing schools are doing, but we say to the directors and trustees, "Encourage others to do for the blind what your excellent school is not intended to do for them. Do it all if you can and will, otherwise do not look with unfavorable eye upon efforts guided by other wisdom than that which emanates from you and your institution."

All these circumstances furnish a clue whereby to understand a great deal about the actual condition of the blind and explain the nature of the assistance that must be given to them at once. America, proud of being "progressive," has not learned the lessons which the practice of conservative European nations has mutely striven to teach us these many years. What the blind of America need, to open the door of usefulness and keep it open, is organized aid and intelligent encouragement. Europe affords good types of such organized aid for the blind.

When the graduate goes into the world as musician or weaver, an agent persuades the doubting employer to give the blind applicant a fair trial, and pledges his word for the candidate's ability. The blind man comes, surprises his judges by his skill and ease and freedom of movement, and conquers his fortune.

The results of the energy and good sense of these societies and agents are splendid. At the Glasgow Asylum for the Blind the average annual sales for three years were twenty-nine thousand



A WIRE WORKER

This man, after he became blind, was encouraged to continue his trade at home, which he has done successfully. His work is as good now as before he lost his sight

The "Saxon system" in Germany aids blind men and women in their homes, secures raw material at favorable rates, and markets their wares. The Valentine Haüy Association in France, and the associations connected with the institutions for the blind in Great Britain, find positions for capable blind persons and hold up their hands until their employers approve and accept their work. The schools co-operate. They strive to give their pupils a good industrial training and then pass them on to an agency that will turn that training to practical account by finding employment for it.

pounds, and for eighty years the workers have produced salable articles. Not only do the women make bedding for the institution, but they have secured contracts with shipping firms and other institutions. In London, which is declared behind the times but is far ahead of us, six per cent. of the blind are in workshops. In other English cities thirteen per cent. of the blind are employed. The chief industries open to them are many kinds of mat-weaving, a few kinds of carpentry, cordage, massage, brushmaking, mattress-making, and the manufacture of all kinds of baskets, from

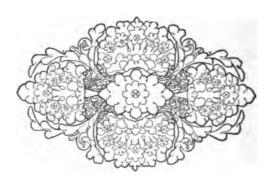
ornamental ones to heavy baskets used for bales, coal, and food. There is, moreover, a tea agency in London, the managers of which are wholly or partially blind. Hundreds of blind agents sell its teas, coffees, and cocoas all over England. Finally, eighty-five per cent. of the graduates of the Royal Normal College and Academy of Music for the Blind in London are self-supporting.

What shall we say when we contrast with this the report of the New York Commission for the Blind, which finds that only one per cent. of our sightless countrymen are in workshops? We have delayed all too long in our work for the adult blind, and the example of other countries is witness against us.

But already the States are roused. Better days for the blind are coming. Massachusetts, Connecticut, Maine, Pennsylvania, Michigan, Wisconsin, have turned from their darkness of ignorance, prejudice, and neglect, and have begun to help the blind to help themselves in the darkness from which there is no turning. As soon as the people know the needs of the blind all the States must answer in justice and generosity to a cry that is not for charity, but for rightful oppor-We must experiment carefully The little and then act with energy. experiment station which the Massachusetts Association opened two years ago has already shown what blind persons

can do. Here industries and processes are tested with a view to their fitness for blind workers. In a surprisingly short time the small group of blind people has acquired skill in making beautiful curtains, sofa-pillows, table-covers, and rugs, and the public has bought their work because it is beautiful. They also manufacture a mop invented by a blind man and made and sold by the blind. If the Association succeeds in keeping its title to the patent, this mop will go far toward giving the blind profitable occupation.

The general direction of the work of the Massachusetts Association is the right one for other States to follow in their first experiments. The effort is to find three kinds of remunerative workfirst, for those who cannot leave their homes; second, for those who can do best in workshops for the blind; and, third, for those who can learn some process in a factory for the seeing. people are ready to help if we show them the way. A prominent manufacturer in Massachusetts said that if it could be demonstrated that a blind man can work side by side with the seeing, the State should insist that a man losing his sight be trained to work in a factory near his home. No objection is feared on the part of seeing labor. There would be only one blind man to a thousand seeing workmen. And the human heart is kind.



GRATITUDE

BY HENRY VAN DYKE

Do you give thanks for this, or that?—No, God be thanked, I am not grateful

In that cold, calculating way, with blessings ranked As one, two, three, and four,—that would be hateful!

I only know that every day brings good above My poor deserving;

I only feel that on the road of life true Love Is leading me along and never swerving.

Whatever turn the path may take to left or right,

I think it follows

The tracing of a wiser hand, through dark and light, Across the hills and in the shady hollows.

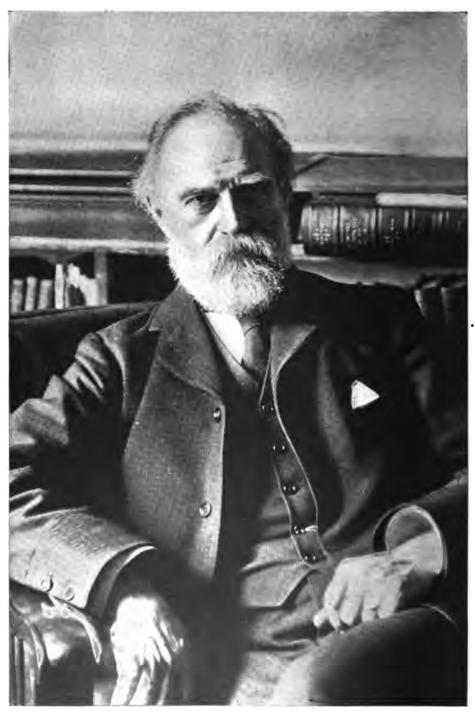
Whatever gifts the hours bestow, or great or small,

I would not measure

As worth a certain price in praise, but take them all And use them all, with simple, heartfelt pleasure.

For when we gladly eat our daily bread, we bless The hand that feeds us;

And when we walk along life's way in cheerfulness, Our very heart-beats praise the Love that leads us.



N. W. TCHAYKOVSKY

Photographed for The Outlook by Arthur Hewitt

THE RUSSIAN REVOLUTION-ARY MOVEMENT

BY N. W. TCHAYKOVSKY

The author of this article is sometimes called the "Father of the Russian Revolutionary Movement." He has been for over thirty years actively engaged in organization looking to political reconstruction in Russia. He was graduated at the St. Petersburg University in scientific courses in 1873, but during his final examination was interrupted and put under arrest, was detained in prison for several months, and there prepared the concluding papers of his examination. The fact that after such a detention no serious proofs were brought forward against Mr. Tchaykovsky illustrates the arbitrary methods employed against Russian students suspected of disaffection. Partly as a result of this persecution, Mr. Tchaykovsky took up his life-work of political agitation, spent several years of study in free countries, including a stay of four years in the United States, partly in the Russian colonies in Kansas and New York. In 1879 he returned to Europe to rejoin the active work of the Revolutionary party, and has since made his headquarters in England. While he has written articles and pamphlets bearing on the world's radical movements, the greater part of his time has been occupied in forwarding, as organizer and practical manager of societies, the cause of Russian political freedom. His experience of life covers a variety of professions, such as student of science, farmer, ship-carpenter, laborer in a sugar refinery, newspaper correspondent, editor of a technical periodical in Russian, teacher, manager of works, commercial agent, managing director of an industrial concern, consulting chemist, and writer He is now visiting this country once more.—THE EDITORS.

THEN the magic word "volia" (freedom) first swept the whole length and breadth of Russia in 1861, I was but ten years old. Living with my parents in their country estate in the northeastern part of Russia, I spent most of my playtime with the village boys, and learned very early to understand the joys and sorrows of the peasant life. I sympathized with them instinctively; their secret thoughts and aspirations were familiar to me. They actually believed at the time that the Czar, the "Little Father," was at heart on their side against nobles and chinovniks (officials), and no arguing could persuade them to the contrary.

With age and learning these early impressions of mine gathered into a consciousness of deep historic injustice to the peasants, a conviction that all privileged Russians must make reparation to the toilers of Russia. This feeling was very general among the youth of our generation. It formed a sort of philanthropic though quite sincere undercurrent for the reform movement of that time. The question of how this debt to the people could be most successfully re-

paid formed one of the standard problems and its solution a common mission of the decade 1860 to 1870.

The factors that caused this undercurrent to be transformed into a widespread craving for deep revolutionary upheaval later on were two: first, the reaction of the Court, headed by men like Muravieff, "The Hangman," and P. Shuvaloff, the arch spy; and, second, the tide of new republican and socialistic ideas flowing in from Europe. The former tended to paralyze all reforms of Alexander the Second, while the latter proved to us the futility of merely political liberal reforms granted from above and not obtained by sportaneous efforts of the people themselves.

This explains the fact that the first steps of men and women of our generation like Peter. Kropotkin or Katharine Breshkovskaia were invariably merely liberal attempts to help the toiling masses in their cultural development by starting private schools, spreading and reading among them useful booklets, assisting them in court in numerous disputes for land, procuring medical assistance, etc.

I was not an exception to this rule. I

started my public career as soon as I entered the University in Petersburg in 1868 as a member of the circle for organizing a private school for children, together with Sophie Perovskaia. But by the end of the same year the students' movement was started for obtaining corporation rights and privileges, and I was involved in it. The broader current of political ideas soon swept away the previous philanthropic thread of our views, and we began to think of the destiny of the whole Russian nation instead of our personal obligations to the poor and the oppressed. The necessity of forming an organized popular force for advancing the interest of the toiling masses became clear to us, and we decided to work for it. A group of five prominent students representing the three most important higher institutions in St. Petersburg the University, the Medical Academy, and the Technological Institute—was the result; and I represented the University. This was the group of initiative for recruiting and organizing all the revolutionary elements of our generation into an advanced guard of the future popular party on the basis of common political and ethical ideas.

At first the work was limited to the intellectual youth, but in the course of two years our organization grew so strong and spread so far throughout the country that it was decided in 1872 to transfer the main field of our action from students' lodgings in cities into the industrial suburbs of towns and into villages. This new work was carried on at first through individual connections and by forming small groups of factory workmen and peasants animated with the same ideas as ourselves.

The new gospel we announced was a "true volia." It included the communal possession of the whole land by the peasants, and our adherents were urged to gain their rights and liberties themselves by fighting instead of waiting till the Czar would order re-allotment of the land. This was the famous movement "back to the people," and our organization, to which my name was usually attached, occupied the central position in this agitation. So swiftly did it spread that in the report of Baron Palen, the Minister of Justice, in

1874, it was said there were signs of revolutionary propaganda in thirty-six provinces of European Russia, and the persecutions followed as a matter of course

The further evolution of this movement under the names of "Zemlia and Volia" (1877-79) and the "Narodnaja Volia" (1879-87) has been so admirably described by Mr. George Kennan, S. Stepniak, and recently by Prince Kropotkin in his memoirs, that I do not need to dwell upon it now. It is to be pointed out, however, that although this movement failed to involve in its ranks broad popular masses, and eventually was crushed in 1885 by the reactionary party, it accomplished an important historic mission. It destroyed the mystic faith in the "Little Father" in the breasts of the masses of people; it produced a splendid band of heroes and martyrs of the democratic cause; it created glorious revolutionary traditions for the future, and it outlined the platform of the democratic party in Russia.

A question probably will be asked why peasants and masses of workmen did not respond to the call of "Zemlia and Volia" (land and freedom), in 1877. This question has formed a disputed ground for the two last decades in Russia. Its answer can be given in the light of the recent events. mass of peasants at that time still continued hoping, against evident facts, for further reforms from the Czar. They actually believed the story invented by the reactionaries—that Alexander II.had been assassinated by nobles for having liberated the serfs. The only response which those revolutionary organizations received from below came from the town artisans and factory workmen, who formed several half-economic and halfpolitical organizations of some thousand members which formally joined the " Party of the People's Will." The author of the attempt of 1880 (Narodnaja Volia) to blow up the Emperor in his dining-hall in the Winter Palace was one of the leaders of such a purely workingmen organization (the Northern Union), a cabinet-maker by trade, S. Kholturine. Nevertheless, it has to be admitted now that the revolutionary wave which culminated in the "Party of the People's Will" has been mainly a movement of intellectuals followed merely by groups of town workmen and by only a few individual peasants.

Circumstances have entirely changed since that time. The revolutionary wave of the present day, although it covers all classes of the nation, is mainly based upon the movement of popular masses of workmen and peasants, who form the bulk of the democratic parties.

Therefore this part of the story requires our special attention. These men not only take active part in struggling for liberties and the new democratic order, but they evolve from themselves a new class of half-intellectuals, peasants and workmen, so-called "conscious workers," who undertake and very effectively do the part of the leaders of the masses. Although deficient in the rudiments of school education, they are well versed in all burning problems of the day, and can discuss and argue them from their point of view against any intellectual scholars; as a rule, they are well read in political and economic standard literature, and a special class of current literature sprang up in Russia within the last ten years to answer their mental needs.

When the Emperor Alexander III. went to Moscow to be crowned in 1883, he took particular care to receive the deputations of peasants from various provinces, in order that they should hear his personal declaration that no re-allotment of land whatsoever was to be expected, and that they should obey the heads of the nobles. This solemn declaration of the autocrat was almost equivalent to his abdication. It opened the eyes of the peasants, since they learned from the Czar himself what we had told them long ago-namely, that the Czar of Russia is but the wealthiest and the mightiest noble pomeschik (landlord), wno never could side with them in good earnest against his own class. Similar declarations, almost in the same words, were repeated by the present Emperor to the deputations of peasants when he visited Kursk for maneuvers a few years ago. This cold shower to the patriotic hearts of the peasants, together with

their own economic difficulties, accomplished the miracle. Peasants even of the remotest parts of Russia began thinking for themselves.

The misery of the Russian peasant is almost proverbial, and it has been ever growing since the emancipation of Their land allotments were insufficient enough at that time (1861), on an average of about seven acres per family. The population has doubled since, and the average allotment now is about three acres and a half per family. The productiveness of the land in the meantime has rather decreased than otherwise, owing to the reduced number of cattle in possession of the peasants and the natural exhaustion of the soil. No improvements in the methods of agriculture were possible, owing partly to the want of capital and partly to the deficiency of education, which was systematically denied to them. The only way open for the peasant out of this situation was either to look for a job at the factory gate or to rent more land at an exorbitant rental from the neighboring pomeschiks. He actually tried both, but to no purpose, for the market prices were against him. grain which he produced had to be sold for ready money as soon as it was gathered in order to pay the taxes—and that at prices which grew lower and lower every year, probably owing to American competition. On the other hand, all goods that he had to buy for ready moneysalt, petroleum, iron tools and implements, calico prints, tobacco, and winewere more and more heavily taxed and therefore grew in prices. The two ends of the millions of toilers, that is to say, their earnings and expense, ran farther and farther from each other, to their infinite perplexity and dismay. They growled under the burden, but could not comprehend the causes, "as it was known to everybody from olden times that the market prices are God-made." there was a period, indeed, when our people were on the brink of despair.

Now there comes a clever intellectual who puts into the peasants' hands a concise little booklet which explains everything. It says that market prices are not God but Czar's-Minister made; that there are such things as indirect taxes

and protective duties on articles of popular consumption, which make prices rise as obediently as water in a pump underpressure; that these taxes and duties are made high by the Government of the Czar in order to suit the convenience of the privileged people, such as rich manufacturers and Czar's highly paid officials; that the Government increased the yearly budget of the State for the last ten years from one billion rubles to two and a half billion rubles, and that almost all this enormous heap of money was obtained from the peasant class by means of an artificial rise in the prices by means of indirect taxes and tariffs, since it was impossible to fleece and flog out of the people any more direct taxes (they were 120 per cent. in arrears in 1902) than were already demanded.

This was quite a revelation to the peasants. The booklet went from village to village, was read and discussed at hundreds of private meetings, until it was torn in pieces. Then the readers asked their town friends to send them some more of those precious booklets. Their desire being readily gratified, they further learned that they will never get out of their difficulties and misery unless they have a voice in the matter of prices and taxes through an elected assembly of deputies from all classes, including themselves, and in equal proportion; that they ought to have all officials to be elected and controlled by themselves instead of being appointed by the Czar, as at present; moreover, that they will never be able to elect the right men or control them effectively until the people have liberty of press and speech, liberty of meetings and unions, in addition to the liberty of faith, and that these ought to be guaranteed to them by handing over the land and the control of the budget to the people.

This completed the course of political education of the peasants. They formed, in the course of the last eighteen months, local branches of the Peasant Union, and the ties of friendship between the village toilers and the advanced intellectuals were drawn closer; they concluded an alliance against the whole autocratic bureaucracy and their system of self-aggrandisement and tyranny, and became

parts of the new-born conscious democratic force of the country.

As to the younger brothers of the peasants who went to town to look for jobs, they learned the truth still quicker. As soon as they commenced working they found that there was quite a net of fines and tricks in the factory system, enabling the foreman to exact extra profit from the men. But as soon as the men grumbled and began to discuss the situation, and especially when they declared a strike, they were threatened by the factory police, by the factory inspectors, and, last but not least, by sotnia of Cossacks. In this way they found by bitter experience that the price of their labor was, after all, kept down by the Czar's agents, and that in order to improve their position they ought to change all that; they ought to have liberty of meetings and of strikes, liberty of speech and press, and, above all, liberty of forming unions; and that all these privileges ought to be guaranteed to them by a constituent assembly elected upon equal, direct, and universal suffrage. Consequently they joined the union of their trade, the purpose of which was to get not only improved conditions of labor, but also the rights and liberties of the people. They elected representatives to the council of the workmen's delegates and took enthusiastic part in the political demonstrations and public meetings on Sundays, held in spite of the prohibition of the police. There they heard from their leaders that nothing short of the general political strike could settle their claims; and they believed it. This completed the course of political education of the factory hands, and completed their alliance with the intellectuals who opened their eyes. Next they wrote home to their village relatives that they had joined the union, and learned from them in reply that they had done the same. Now they were parts of the huge national organization which they believed could accomplish miracles and was sure to obtain them liberties, rights, and land, above all.

The year 1905 was the year when such a course of political education was actually completed by many millions of Russian toilers. The "Bloody Sunday,"

when Father Gapon said that the "last link between the Czar and the mass of the workers had been broken," was merely the last straw that broke the back of the camel. Sympathetic strikes and demonstrations in all parts of Russia, involving millions of people, followed. All attempts of the Government at suppressing them acted like oil poured upon fire, and enhanced the enthusiasm. But the practical outcome of all this gigantic commotion was the formation of thousands of unions of all trades and professions, with branches in the provinces. They sprang up all over Russia, met in local conferences, passed resolutions demanding liberties, convocation of the constituent assembly on the basis of universal suffrage and granting the land to the people, besides general improvement in conditions of work. These local organizations sent delegates to the national conference, who formed national unions, and finally these national unions federated into a Union of Unions. The whole federation covered from seven to ten millions of people, including the peasant union (up to three million members) and the railway employees' union (about eight hundred thousand men). Delegates of this most important organization, together with the representatives of local organizations of the capitals and the representatives of the advanced political parties, formed what was called the Councils of Workmen Delegates in St. Petersburg and Moscow, which practically ruled the situation. It comprised 320 delegates, representing 170,000 workmen in St. Petersburg alone.

It would not be right to say that the democratic and republican force covered workmen and peasants alone. Professional unions, as those of doctors, lawyers, engineers, writers, artists, etc., played an important part by placing their knowledge at the disposal of the organi-They withstood the hardships of the struggle side by side with wage-They stopped work when the general political strike was proclaimed, and very often lost their positions after the strike ended. They were arrested for attending committees and public meetings, and speaking at them; some of them attended sick and wounded under the fire of the Government machine guns, and were afterwards shot for doing their duty. Lawyers attended to the legal business of the unions, defended the persecuted members of the advanced parties and of the unions, and looked after the interests of the amnestied comrades, doing all these things of course free of any charges.

These are the elements upon which the present republican and democratic movement in Russia is based. No wonder that these men showed such splendid pluck at the critical moment. They are the pick of the nation. In Moscow they withstood the artillery fire for eleven days. Trains full of railway men came to the town every morning to do their risky duty and used to return home for the night.

There is another question which I may expect from the reader. Are Russian peasants and workmen ripe enough to participate in republican self-government? This I am bound to answer in the affirmative. Russian peasants as a class have not lost the habit of taking active part in the management of their own communal affairs, in spite of all the moralizing efforts of the local autocrats (Zemskie Natchalniki) appointed since Moreover, the new class of halfintellectual peasants alluded to above forms a very effective body of men to guide and protect their interests. as to the want of elementary education and the illiteracy of peasants (who form about fifty per cent. in the central part of Russia), their craving for education is so strong that the greatest probability is that under favorable circumstances they would soon overtake other classes in this respect.

What was the reply of the Czar's government to all these splendid manifestations of the young vigor and constructive strength in the nation? Brutal oppression and promises which it never meant to carry out. Not even an attempt to grasp the needs of the nation as a whole and to satisfy them. Is such a government worthy of another chance to try its skill? It ought to go; and the sooner the better.

A MOTIF FOR AN AUTUMN ROMANCE

BY EMERY POTTLE

T ten o'clock Bartlett conducted Mr. Hatch to the park-an unvarying event on fine mornings. It was late October, and the day was bland with sun. The slight depression incident to the falling, sear leaf and the wane of the season became in the brilliant warmth of the morning hardly more than a motive of gentle retrospect, an agreeably modulated memory of the past. Even Mr. Hatch, keyed to a mood of more than usual petulance, had to admit—as he trotted crossly through the Seventy-second Street entrance, Bartlett properly behind him with a rug—that he'd seen worse weather, though all days in the city were makeshifts.

Mr. Hatch made for the center of the park. Presently, casting about with his little, sharp, gleaming eyes, he drew a gloved hand from his pocket, and, pointing, said, with a mixture of deference and imperiousness, "I'll sit over there on that bench, I guess, Mr.—or—Bartlett."

"Very good, sir."

The footman tucked the rug carefully about the knees of the old man, and then stood impassively back of the bench. Mr. Hatch endured this polite espionage for several minutes, fidgeting in his seat and growing inwardly more irritable.

"Go away," he exploded at last, fretfully, "and walk around—walk way off.

I'll sit here."

"Yes, sir; and when shall I come back for you, sir?"

Mr. Hatch smothered a mild curse.

"Beg pardon, sir?"

"An hour, I guess—an hour! That's about all I can stand of anything," the old man snapped.

"Very good, sir."

Mr. Hatch watched him woodenly depart, with a frown of extreme displeasure on his wrinkled forehead.

"It ain't decent," he muttered, "wearing monkey clothes like that and being

called by your last name. Seem's if a man ain't got any notion of the Constitution or his freeborn rights, to be shilly-shallying around at anybody's beck and call like those fellows do. 'Very good, sir!' Puh! If he'd get out on a farm and do a day's haying! He reminds me of old Sam Ward's idiot boy—he was always standing about, saying nothing, dumb as a pump. They ain't no company to a man, these chumps."

Furtively Mr. Hatch jerked the kid gloves from his knotted hands. He stared at them contemptuously. "Kid gloves! And in October! My Lord! Mittens are good enough for me—when it's cold." He unbuttoned his topcoat, taking occasion to rub the silk lining between his thumb and his forefinger. "Good goods," he grudged. "Must have cost George an awful lot of money. No warmth to it, though. I'd rather have my old brown overcoat than two of these."

He gazed about him critically. "It's the best they can do, I s'pose—nice walks and trees—but they don't seem real. But I can stand it here better than being cooped up in them! He waved his cane indignantly toward the row of imposing stone apartment-houses rearing their handsome heads above the splendid mass of autumn reds and yellows—arrogant mansions confident of their expensiveness.

"Receiving vaults," he sniffed. "And they call 'em houses—no upstairs and no downstairs! Can't see how they stand it in 'em. Don't seem's if I could stand it in George's house. 'Twenty-five foot front'! My Lord, our old house was—" The irascible old gentleman lapsed into a monotone of gloomy, scornful phrases.

Gradually the benignant sun and the placidity of the gracious park began to soothe Mr. Hatch even against his will. He settled more comfortably upon his

bench and let his eyes stray tolerantly over the green lawns and brilliant trees. His mind, indeed, wandered out across the pleasant expanse, beyond the troublesome confines of the city, far into a cleaner, greener land.

"Everything's harvested at home," he mused, lonesomely, " and the boys must be gethering the hickory-nuts and the walnuts on the farm. Everything's harvested but-me. I'll bet 'twas a fine morning home—one of them crisp, sparkled kind of mornings, sort of frosty on the grass and a frisky feeling in the air. I'd hitched up and gone into the village by this time, to get the paper. Seem 's if I got more news out of that paper! These here they have are so big, and fancy, and such liars I can't seem to find out much from 'em except about the divorces. I'll warrant Drummer 'd kick up his heels to-day a littlepshaw! getting too old to drive colts, am I? I could show 'em. I wonder if they'll paint the barns this fall? They need it. My Lord! 'twas twenty-five years ago I put 'em up! Everything is I'm old, too. The women I knew are old or dead. Everything is old but this place!"

Mr Hatch roused himself with a little shiver, and moved into a greater warmth of sun. He looked about him with renewed belligerence. "But this place!" he reiterated, pettishly. "Hullo! there comes that old woman again." He sat up more stiffly, and watched a tiny, delicate old lady slowly moving toward him along the walk. He was vaguely aware that she was expensively gowned, that the furs she wore—even on so warm a day—were very costly. There was a maid with her, a pretty, foreign creature, with a pert air of disdainful service.

"I'll bet that girl don't give a hoot for the old woman," considered Mr. Hatch, with interest, "no more than that Bartlett does for me. Somehow she don't seem city-bred, the old girl, for all her fine clothes. Wonder if she'll sit here like she did yesterday."

Indeed, at that moment the little, fashionably dressed old woman was saying, with a delightful air of importance, "I'll sit right down here, Maree."

"Yes, madame;" and the maid rather

contemptuously folded the rug about her knees.

"You can walk around, Maree. I guess I'll sit here about an hour. You can come back then."

"Thank you, madame, yes." She tripped neatly away.

The little lady fluttered her wings and settled her plumage prettily, with an obvious delight.

"Just like a canary," considered Mr. Hatch.

Presently she glanced curiously at the old man on the next bench. Certainly he was a most respectable old man; his broadcloth was dignity itself, she thought, as he sat in the rigidity of perfect propriety. "A nice-looking old man, but quite feeble, I should think. I shouldn't wonder if he came from the country—somehow he reminds me of—of—dear me, so long ago!" She patted her furs caressingly. Her movement of hands and head was most alert; indeed, her whole body, despite its undeniable age, was vibrant with youthful pride and satisfaction.

The two continued to steal furtive glances at each other. Mr. Hatch coughed suggestively. His neighbor conspicuously arranged her white-gloved hands outside her rug.

They sat silent and decorous. A fat, bold squirrel coquetted lightly toward them. Mr. Hatch, with an involuntary look of pleasure, began to toss the animal nuts which he drew from his pocket. So absorbed did he become in his pastime that he was quite startled to find himself saying to his companion: "Tame, ain't he?"

"Yes—oh yes," she answered, almost unconsciously. "I'm used to the red ones, though."

Mr. Hatch threw out the last nut. He straightened up slowly and regarded the little lady with a franker manner. "I guessed you were from the country when I saw you," he said, simply.

She flushed uncomfortably. "I'm sure I—" she began, distantly.

"No offense, ma'am, and it was not from your clothes," said Mr. Hatch, hastily but diplomatically.

She smiled with ill-concealed pleasure. "Well, how—?"

"Oh, I don't know," he replied, vaguely.
"I just sort of knew."

"I guessed the same of you," she hazarded in a twitter of a voice.

"No! Did you, now? Well, I'm glad to hear you say that—I've been kept dressed up so for the last year, I didn't know, but—and you guessed?"

She nodded.

"Old dogs."

"New tricks?" she queried.

"You've hit it," he chuckled.

She pursed her lips and smoothed her gown admiringly. "I don't know," she asserted, "about that."

"I know about me," he declared, irritably. "Have you been here long,

ma'am? Do you live here?"

She hesitated, but her desire to talk was too strong for personal ideas of decorum. "Not so very long—last spring, and we were away for the summer—and this fall. I live over there in Central Park West."

Mr. Hatch shoved nearer on the bench. "Do you like it here," he asked, confidentially, "in these human warehouses?"

"Where?" she asked, blankly.

"Flats, then? Apartments? Whatever you call 'em?"

"Oh, yes-very much."

Mr. Hatch stared. "You said you were country-raised?"

She laughed outright. "I don't know as I did. But—I was."

"And you like those houses—and this great, big, bellowing city?" He was quite incredulous.

"Yes, I⁻do. It seems to me that for the first time in my life I am actually—" she broke off confusedly.

" What?"

"Living like folks. Seeing things," she completed, defiantly.

"My Lord!" groaned her neighbor.

She sat up very primly, pulling her furs closer about her neck. Mr. Hatch

eved her despondently.

"To me," he continued, gruffly, after a long silence, "it's just like the circus. When I was a boy I used to like the circus. Start off and make a day of it—peanuts, pink lemonade, the whole thing!—if I could run away from the farm. And, great guns! wasn't I tired

when night come? Well, I've outgrown the circus. But I have to go to it—night and day—now. And I'm tired—tired clean through." He sighed laboriously.

The old lady regarded him with compassion. "I wasn't allowed to go to the circus when I was a girl," she smiled.

Mr. Hatch completed the analogy. "And now you're going it to make up for lost time?" he snorted.

She decided not to take offense. "Well, if you call it that. I—I like it."

"I never understood women," remarked Mr. Hatch, with a pious note of self-congratulation.

She replied with some asperity. "I s'pose you were like most men, so busy telling women about yourself you didn't have time to understand 'em."

Mr. Hatch grinned good-naturedly. "I guess you got me there. But I always say they's two times when you don't understand a woman. Before you're married—and after." He chuckled over his little joke until he coughed alarmingly. His companion took it all with a polite smile.

"Some one said that to me once before," she said, abstractedly. "I was trying to think—when I was a young lady—"

"Now that's queer. Your previous remark sounded mighty familiar."

They laughed happily over the encounter. After this the ice was rather more broken.

"Do you live here all alone?" he asked, curiously.

"Oh my no! I live with my married daughter."

"I live with my married son."

They edged closer to each other, quite unconsciously.

"I s'pose—" he essayed, hesitatingly
—" they—you—you said you liked it—"

She was quick to catch his meaning, and drew herself up with proud satisfaction. "You mean—do they treat me well? Why, Harriet—"

"Your girl's named Harriet?"

She nodded. "Harriet can't do enough for me. And her husband—he's something big on Wall Street—why, he—he —he calls me *mother*. He says I'm just the same as— His mother died, you know, when he was a baby. And I

never had a son. Oh, I never thought it would be like this—it's just heaven!"

She looked at her companion with sympathetic, questioning eyes. He interpreted, shrewdly. "Oh, no, nothing like that." She started guiltily. "You probably think that because I—I kind of act discontented, that my boy George — Don't you believe it. That boy'd give his last cent to make it comfortable for me. He's the best boy a man ever had. I say so. Look at these clothes—George got 'em. Wanted to get me a vally, too, but I kicked. And Caroline, George's wife, that girl's doing for me all the time. They don't imagine I don't care for it here."

"I'm real glad," she murmured. "I was afraid—"

"Nothing for it but I must come and live with 'em," he continued, with justice, though with a touch of sarcasm. "Been at me for ten years. Ever since my wife died. And then last year my daughter got married, and that left me alone in the house. I had to come then. They said I was too old to stay alone! Too old! I ain't but sixty-nine. I could have stayed alone. I could do a day's work with any of 'em," he scolded. "But George is a good boy, though; I shouldn't want him to know I want to get home."

The little lady was deeply interested. "I guess he is a good boy from what you say. I thank the Lord every day for the good boys and girls in this world. Oh, there are some children that—it just makes my heart ache to think of their fathers and mothers. I just come last spring to Harriet. I was living alone, except for the shiftlessest fellow and his wife who lived on the place. And do you know, it was the funniest thing," she leaned toward him confidentially. "I don't know why I should be telling you," she hesitated, shyly.

"Go on, ma'am. I guess we're two birds of a feather."

"Well, do you know," she went on eagerly, "they'd been wanting me to come and live with them ever so long, but they wouldn't ask me because they thought I'd be unhappy in the city!" She laughed delightedly over the absurdity of the idea.

"Sensible folks, I should say," grunted Mr. Hatch.

She disregarded this. "And they are so pleased now that I'm here and like it, and so afraid that I'll not stay contented. Honestly, it seems sort of wicked when I look at the things that Harriet and Robert have given me. Dear me, I try to think of the suffering poor in the world that need so much, but—I'm dreadful, I guess-but somehow I don't seem to care. I'm just glad for myself." With a charming ingenuousness she drew off her glove. On a trembling, wrinkled finger, the joints swollen with rheumatism, gleamed a splendid ring of diamonds. "Robert gave me that this morning-it's my birthday. Isn't it beautiful? I've dreamed nights of having a diamond ring."

Mr. Hatch was fumbling at his cravat. "It's a fine one," he commented, "but just look at this that George gave me." With thinly assumed indifference he ex

tracted a shimmering opal pin.

"It's lovely," she breathed admiringly.
"I don't care much for such gimcracks," said Mr. Hatch, sternly, replacing the pin with great pains.

For some moments they sat, quite in silence, basking like aged cats in the

grateful sunshine.

"You can talk about your diamonds," broke out Mr. Hatch, argumentatively, but, ma'am, on a morning like this the diamonds that'd please me are the frost-diamonds in the grass out in God's country. Where it shines and sparkles. And it's crisp and—can't you see it, ma'am?"

"I can," she replied, tartly. "I've seen it for—for a good many years. I don't ever want to see it again. There was a board right by my back steps—I'll warrant I fell down on that old thing forty times—frosty mornings."

"I can smell the fine air of the early day," rhapsodized Mr. Hatch. "Good,

good!"

"So can I. For forty years I got up at daylight—cold, nasty, horrid daylight—and lighted a lamp to see my way around to work. Till my husband died there were fourteen cows to look after. I can't hardly eat butter now, thinking of it."

"I'd had the morning's work done by slightingly, now," sighed Mr. Hatch. bury."

"I wouldn't," she replied, acidly. "I never had it done. I worked day and night. Look at those fingers! And saved and saved, and worked and worked. And they was always more to do. I used to pray God nights to let me get rested—just for one little hour."

"That was living then," he chanted, obliviously. "Work is good for folks. It keeps 'em healthy. You never heard of nervous prostration and—and grippe—and appendixes when I was a boy. But here! Hah! They're having diseases you never knew flesh was heir to. They ought to get out and work. O my Lord, I wish I was back plowing the ten-acre back lot!"

She flashed at him impetuously. "Work! You say you never heard of diseases and grippes and things when we were young? Good reason—they wasn't time to have a disease comfortably and give it a name. Women worked till they dropped in their tracks and went off in corners and died. And the men, too. Work! I never want to see a farm again, or a cow. When I was a girl, I hated it. I said if I ever married, I'd marry a man who'd take me to the city; but I didn't. I married one-of you. He was a good man, too, but I don't know as I wish him back." She sat back breathless in her defiance. "But, thank God, I saved my daughter from it—from the country !"

"Women ain't never satisfied," Mr. Hatch growled, impatiently.

"I don't see that that's any argument. I'm satisfied now."

"Most women are fools," characterized Mr. Hatch, loftily.

"They're men's fools," snapped the little lady. "You leave 'em alone and they are all right."

The attack was growing too hot for Mr. Hatch to combat. He retreated shamelessly. "What part of the country did you come from, ma'am?" he asked, with great consideration.

"Ohio," she responded, briefly.

"Nice country. I've been there," said he.

"Horrid! I wasn't born there, I'm glad to say," his companion remarked,

slightingly. "I was born in Shrewsbury."

"Shrewsbury? New York?" cried Mr. Hatch, excitedly.

"Yes."

"Why, why, I come from there—that's where I live—where I used to live," he finished, gloomily. "And you came from there?"

She leaned toward him, scanning his face earnestly. "What—what is your name?" she demanded, eagerly.

"Hatch, ma'am. Ever heard of it?"
Her cheeks were quite pink and her eyes twinkled with fun. She was a very pretty old lady at that moment.

"Yes, it seems to me I've heard the name—somewhere. Salem?—Don't you know me?—Hattie? Hattie Mills?"

He stared straight into her smiling eyes. "Well, my Lord!" he ejaculated, solemnly. "Why didn't I guess it before? Harriet Mills—Hattie! My Lord!"

"Salem Hatch!"

She took his outstretched hand.

"Well, Hattie?"

"Well, Salem?"

"I kind of thought that conversation of ours sounded familiar," he said, slowly, reminiscently.

She drooped her head. "You mean—"
He laughed gruffly. "Yes, that's
just what I mean. Remember the night
I drove you home from camp-meeting?"
She nodded gravely.

"We talked it all out that night. I was in—love with you then, Hattie. I was going to ask you to marry me right there, but—"

"I always wondered if you were," she laughed softly. "And 'twas so long ago. Think of knowing now that you—"

"'Twas that talk of yours about hating the country that—"

She smiled a little sadly. "I know. I said it because—oh, I meant it, Salem."

"While we're talking, Hattie, did you—ah—sort of—eh? For me?"

She blushed. "I guess I—did, to tell the truth. But my folks moved to Ohio, and—and—oh, I married like the rest—a farmer. And you married, too."

a farmer. And you married, too."
"Sarah Winters—you'll remember
her?—a good girl, God rest her!"

Both sat busy with their own strange,

wandering thoughts. Presently Mr. Hatch straightened up with a laugh.

"And, after all, us two old birds turned up here in New York! Beats all! You, just the same, liking it, and me, kicking, same as ever." He patted her hand affectionately.

"Little Hattie Mills," he mused. "You were the prettiest of 'em all, Hattie."

"You were always fooling, Salem," she bridled.

"Honest, Hattie, you were."

They dropped childishly into the ancient gossip of their bygone day. The eyes of the two shone eagerly, and the years lay lightly on their snowy heads.

At last—"And you wouldn't want to go back again, Hattie?" he asked, wistfully. She smiled tremulously and perhaps a little piteously. "No—no, Salem. Never,

I'm afraid. I—I've got my heart's desire."

He shook his head soberly.

"My, how the time has gone! It's time for my maid to come," she said, consciously.

Mr. Hatch rose painfully. "I get so stiff on these benches," he explained. "There she is, up there, and there's that dam—excuse me, ma'am—that man of mine with her. What do you think of that?" He waved his cane violently.

"There they come," he said, morosely,

"the good-for-nothings. Following us around all the time as if we were babies."

"Maree's real handy," faltered the little lady; "but sometimes, Salem, honestly, I'm kind of 'fraid of her."

"Don't take any slack from her," encouraged the old man, stoutly. "Yes, you can take the rug, Mr. Bartlett. I'm ready," he muttered meekly in the next breath.

"I'll come along with you, Hattie." The two ambled happily together toward the entrance, the servants sedately in the rear.

"It's been a beautiful birthday party, Salem," she smiled.

"I'll be here to-morrow if it don't rain, Hattie," Mr. Hatch said, anxiously. "If you—"

She reddened consciously. "I—I'll come," she murmured.

"I'm real glad—" he essayed, as they emerged into the busy street.

"So am I, Salem. Good-by."

The old man trotted after her eagerly. "I forgot to ask your name now, Hattie. I—I—I s'pose I'd ought to know."

She fluttered to him. "Of course—and where I live, too." They lingered together again gratefully.

"Ain't they the two old jays?" conveyed Bartlett out of the corner of his mouth to Marie.

Comment on Current Books

Among the more notable books New Books of the last week or two may be named the first volume, superbly printed, of "Mediæval London: Historical and Social," in the great "Survey" planned by the late Sir Walter Besant (Macmillan); Professor Friedrich Paulsen's "The German Universities" (Scribners); "Lincoln, Master of Men," by Alonzo Rothschild (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.); "Bird and Bough," by John Burroughs (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.); Thomas F. Millard's "The New Far East" (Scribners); and, in fiction, Agnes and Egerton Castle's charming romance, "If Youth but Knew" (Macmillan), Mr. Rex E. Beach's vigorous tale "The Spoilers," and Mr. Owen Wister's "Lady Baltimore," a book as different as possible from Mr. Wister's earlier stories, but of a singular interest.

Braj: The Vaishnava Certain apostles of Hinduism have at-Holy Land tracted a sympathetic hearing and some disciples in Western countries. The other side of the shield is exposed in this volume by the Rev. Dr. J. E. Scott, a missionary. The chief seat of the cult of Krishna, adored as the incarnation of Vishnu, the second member of the Hindu trinity, is the city of Mathura in northern India, the center of the region here styled the "holy land," the Sebastopol of a gross superstition. Here the Methodist Church in 1888 established a mission led by Dr. Scott, which now reckons a Christian community of ten thousand. As introductory to the story of this enterprise, the "holy land," its towns, its religious sects, their beliefs and practices, are described at length, and particularly the character of the reigning deity,

Krishna. His interest for us comes from the frequent analogies drawn between him and Christ. He is, indeed, the most joyous and human personage in the Hindu pantheon. But, as here described by indubitable testimony, he is the deity of rakes and lust. (Braj: The Vaishnava Holy Land. By Rev. J. E. Scott, Ph.D., S.T.D. Eaton & Mains, New York. \$1, net.)

This is such a delightful The Château of bit of comedy that Miss Montplaisir Seawell should be proud of her ability to bring smiles to the generally downcast countenances of ordinary readers of fiction. Pure merriment, absurd combinations, del cious impertinence, sparkle throughout these pages. The atmosphere is that of French gayety, and the effect is most refreshing. A group of persons including an impecunious youth of good family, his unattainable lady-love, her frisky old aunt, an ambitious and rich soap-boiler, two or three "semi-royal" dukes and generals, and one or two eminently proper individuals, make merry together in the château of Montplaisir. (The Château of Montplaisir. By Molly Elliot Seawell. D. Appleton & Co., New York. \$1.25.)

Congregationalists "Who They Are, and What They Do," their origin, history, institutions, distinguished leaders, and other matters of common interest and frequent inquiry for information, are here stated in the compact and luminous form of question and answer by the Rev. Theodore P. Prudden, of West Newton, Massachusetts. He has made a comprehensive and convenient book of reference and instruction. (Congregationalists: Who They Are and What They Do. By Theodore P. Prudden. The Pilgrim Press, Boston. 40c.)

George Barr McCutcheon has somewhat too heavy a hand for his slight material. Comedy requires a light, graceful touch that is but rarely found among writers of this sort of romance. The drunken men are too drunk, and the vixenish women are too malicious, and the gay girls are too merry for truly artistic effects. (Cowara'ce Court. By George Barr McCutcheon. Dodd, Mead & Co., New York. \$1.25.)

The First
County Park System
County in New Jersey. The work was begun ten years ago, and a considerable part of it is already completed. The credit for the first plan of the system and for much of the energy and initiative which resulted in

the launching of the enterprise is due to Mr. Frederick W. Kelsey, who in this volume has written the history of the movement. The discredit for the marring of the original plan by the seizure for traction purposes of streets necessary to its completeness and homogeneity rests with the Public Service Corporation and its tools in town and county governments. Mr. Kelsey describes with vigor and frankness the progress and the obstruction of the project during his vicepresidency of the Park Commission and afterwards. He makes valuable comments on the subject of park systems in general and wise suggestions to communities interested in securing breathing-spaces for their people. (The First County Park System. By Frederick W. Kelsey. The J. S. Ogilvie Publishing Company, New York. \$1.25.)

The Financier A crude story dealing with the great financial operations and international complications involved in the exploitation of a newly opened up section of Africa. (The Financier. By Harris Burland. G. W. Dillingham & Co., New York. \$1.50.)

Another Life of "Old Hickory"

It is not a difficult matter to write a biography by compiling it from biographies already in existence, and, for good measure, throwing in generous citations from other writings touching on the subject in hand. But it is hardly to be expected that the resultant production will bear the stamp of originality, or otherwise disclose warrant for existence. And for this reason, if for no other, it is impossible to regard favorably "The True Andrew Jackson," written by the Rev. Cyrus Townsend Brady for the series which already includes "True" biographies of Washington, Franklin, Jefferson, Penn, Clay, and Lincoln. Mr. Brady is an indefatigable worker and a facile writer, but in the present instance he has certainly failed to equip himself for what is a most difficult task -the adequate and discriminating presentation of one of the strongest characters this country has ever produced. For both facts and conclusions he seems to rely chiefly on Parton, Buell, Sumner, Brown, and Colyar, excerpts from whose writings make up no small proportion of his book of over five hundred pages. Where he does display originality-as in the closing chapter on "Jackson's Place in Our History"—he is usually happy, which must only increase the regret that he has not shown more independence. His work is further open to objection as ill-proportioned, abounding in extreme statements, and uncritical-defects which quite outweigh the considerations that

it is vivacious, rich in anecdote, and thoroughly readable. (The True Andrew Jackson. By Cyrus Townsend Brady. J. B. Lippincott Company, Philadelphia. \$2, net.)

A great writer has Memories of a drawn a distinction be-Great Schoolmaster tween the literature of knowledge and the literature of power. Of the latter kind is this sketch of the late Dr. Henry A. Coit, rector of St. Paul's School at Concord, New Hampshire, by "an old St. Paul's boy," Mr. James P. Conover. It is an inspiring book for all who, whether teachers or parents, have the perilous charge of either boys or girls in the budding time of adolescence. In teaching and discipline, as in theology, the heart counts for much, and so it counted at St. Paul's. To Dr. Coit must be accorded equal rank with that other prince of his profession, Dr. Arnold, of Rugby, and the task which he achieved, as the creator of a type of school new in New England, was greater than that of Arnold. It is a loving hand which has drawn his noble portrait. Appended to it are a paper by Dr. Coit on "An American Boys' School," a memorial sermon of his on "The Resurrection Life," and a number of tributes to his memory. (Memories of a Great Schoolmaster (Dr. Henry A. Coit). By James P. Conover. Houghton, Mifflin & Co., Boston. \$1.50, net.)

Origin and Development of the Moral Ideas

Although this massive work is elaborately ana-

lytical and critical, it is none the less interesting, not only to those who are fond of philosophical inquiry into the causes of existing conditions, but to those also to whom primitive customs and ideas present an attractive study. Whence, for instance, is derived our repugnance to receiving payment for the hospitality accorded to a guest? From the primitive dread of the stranger's "evil eye" and curse. A multitude of curious facts concerning the crude institutions of early times and savage tribes awaits the general reader of these pages. About onefourth of the volume is concerned with homicide, both in general and in its varying forms down to feticide. The philosophic student finds what he has a right to expect from such an investigator as Edward Westermarck, the author of the "History of Marriage" acute insight and discriminating judgment in tracing the evolution of moral ideas. high rank of charity among the virtues is shown to be due to the early religious connection of almsgiving with sacrifice rather than to the growth of altruistic sentiment. The development of this sentiment has not

been in intensity, but in its extension to classes not originally included in its range. The chapter on "Slavery" has been written, so far as regards slavery in the United States, upon imperfect information as to the attitude and testimony against it in American churches. That they were "the bulwarks of slavery" is true only in part. (The Origin and Development of the Moral Ideas. By Edward Westermarck, Ph.D. In 2 vols. Vol. I. The Macmillan Company, New York. \$3.50.)

Plays, Pleasant and Unpleasant Unpleasant These two very tastefully printed volumes contain the plays of

Mr. George Bernard Shaw which have been most widely talked about, and which bring out the various sides of his work. The pleasant plays are "Arms and the Man," Candida," "The Man of Destiny," and "You Never Can Tell;" the unpleasant plays are "Mrs. Warren's Profession," the production of which was interdicted in New York early last autumn, "Widowers' Houses," and "The Philanderer." Mr. Shaw is not only entertaining in his plays, as are some other men, but he is also immensely entertaining in his prefaces, a kind of writing which rarely reveals either glow or charm. The preface to one of these two volumes, "Mainly About Myself," is an extraordinarily entertaining bit of unblushing egotistical autobiography. (Plays, Pleasant and Unpleasant. By Bernard Shaw. In 2 vols. Brentano's, New York. \$2.50.)

St. Paul,
The Man and
His Work

This volume from the hand of Professor Weinel, of Jena, comes to us under

the auspices of a group of liberal theologians in the Church of England. as edited by one of them, Dr. W. D. Morrison. It is no new distinction which Professor Weinel recognizes between the work of the founder of Christianity, Jesus, and of Paul, the savior of it through his organization of it into a church. But, this distinction being made, two questions of vital importance follow. Can Christianity survive if separated from the peculiarly Pauline theology of the Church creeds? Again: Which is true-the stern morality of Jesus and Paul, with its note of hostility to the world, or the ethics of the Church in its compromise with the world? Professor Weinel lets go the Pauline theology except so far as explicitly authenticated by Jesus; he insists on the Pauline ethics. He finds in Paul's letters no trace of the later Trinitarianism, but sees a great advance in the field of ethics, raising the moral imperative from bounden duty to free desire, from a constraining law to a personal affection drawing to the Master. In this field Professor Weinel finds that the unsolved and formidable problems that have come down to us from the Reformation era have devolved upon present-day Christianity a demand for thorough work. His conception of Paul is that of a saintly hero, endeared by his human greatness and also by the human weaknesses that blended with it, a manysided man, still misunderstood and undeservedly disparaged, "a pattern of the perfect Christian gentleman," whose choicest passages should be read more frequently in the public schools. Innovator as he was, he was a true conservative. Though in him we find the starting-point of ecclesiasticism, of dogma, of liturgy, he unintentionally laid foundations on which they arose. He consciously aimed rather to steer the movement for a universal religion, which he started, away from fanatical excess, uncharitableness, and decay. Professor Weinel is no bloodless exegete or dry historian. He is deeply imbued with human sympathy for the living man he depicts. His translator, the Rev. G. A. Bienemann, has rendered him into lucid and finished English form. While the interpretation he puts on a text here and there can hardly command assent, he has admirably portrayed one of the greatest of mankind. (St. Paul: The Man and His Work. By H. Weinel. Translated by the Rev. G. A. Bienemann, M.A. Edited by the Rev. W. D. Morrison, LL.D. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. \$2.50)

Another volume of the Seven Years of the " American Nation " serial history has appeared. This deals with the important period 1811-1819, is aptly entitled "The Rise of American Nationality," and is written by Kendric Charles Babcock, President of the University of Arizona. The chief topic of the book is, of course, the War of 1812 and its results, and it is pleasing to find that President Babcock has not only mastered his subject but is able to treat it in a way that affords the uninformed student a clear, just, and adequate idea of the course of our second struggle for independence and its bearing on the National development. Like the other writers in this series, he depends mainly on original sources for his material, but he has not hesitated to avail himself of the researches of such authorities as Henry Adams and Captain Mahan, and of the enter-

taining memoirs of the period. Being the possessor of a vigorous and fluent style, he is thus able to impart a fresh interest to a long-explored theme. He cherishes no delusions respecting the unfavorable progress of the war, but he rightly lays stress on the immense gains it ultimately brought the United States. His chapter on the war's results is, indeed, by far the best in a work that is written exceedingly well as a whoie. Accuracy and impartiality are also distinctive characteristics, but from the standpoint of proportion there is no room for improve-President Babcock, for instance, would have acted wisely had he devoted less space to the peace negotiations and more to the brilliant naval engagements that went so far to redeem the failures of the land campaigning. His treatment of the many difficult internal problems of the seven yearsfinancial crises, tariff agitation, etc.—is on a par with his treatment of the war and other matters of foreign policy. At no time does he allow the interest to flag, and he is always explicit and forceful. Altogether his is a most creditable addition to this standard work. (The Rise of American Nationality. Vol. 13 of The American Nation. (Harper & Brothers, New York. \$2, net.)

The Spur A unique story, marked by much strength, but somewhat marred by the unrelieved wickedness of one man. Any one who knows aught of Australian or island life, of sheep farms, or copra gatherers and traders, will respond to this vivid writing, as those who know India used to respond to Kipling. The one improbability in it all, unfortunately, is found in the keynote of the plot. Kin, the hero, is a fine creation. The author, G. B. Lancaster, has written other tales. (The Spur. By G. B. Lancaster. Doubleday, Page & Co., New York. \$1.50.)

A Summer in the Apple-Tree Inn

This pretty play-house sheltered a group of children who were diverted by a Japanese companion. He, an educated youth, was the center of a romantic plot. Incidentally he taught the children courage and good manners, so that his restored fortunes were in reality simple justice to so exalted a character. The author is Ella Partridge Lipsett. (A Summer in the Apple-Tree Inn. By Ella Partridge Lipsett. Henry Holt & Co., New York. \$1.25.)

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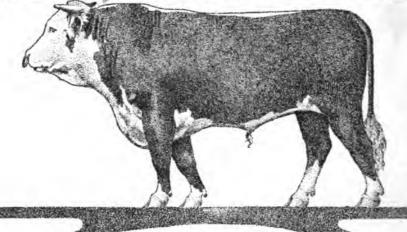
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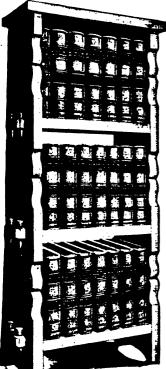
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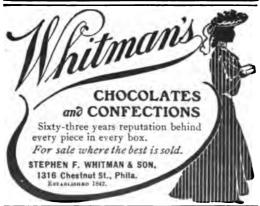
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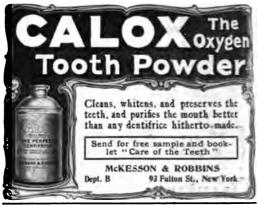
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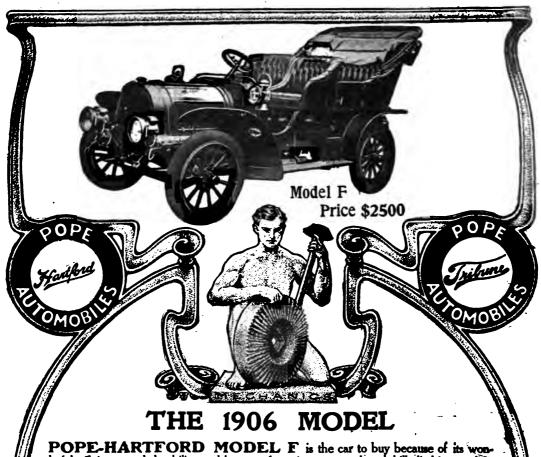




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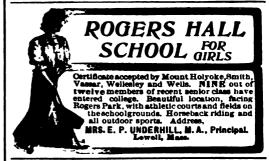
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as secretary-companion. 3,761, Outdook.

WANTED—An experienced housekeeper to take full charge of a small hospital (30 beds) in New York City. Salary \$50 a month. References. 3,782, Outlook.

REFINED New England woman desires position. Experienced housekeeper, exceptional caterer, marketing, management of servants. Unqualified references. Eastern Massachusetts preferred. 3,777, Outlook.

REFINED young lady, good education, wishes position as governess in family going to seashore. Highest references. Box 112, South Easton. Mass.

KINDERGARTNER, well recom-mended, desires position in school or institu-tion. 3,666, Outlook.

tion. 3,666, Outlook.

WANTED—Position as assistant superintendent and military instructor in institution

Destionlars and references on recamp. Particulars and references on re-lest. 3.668. Outlook.

wante D-As mother's helper, a refined, well-educated woman between the ages of 25 and 40 years, kindergartner preferred. No housework. Six months in city and six in the country. Address Cornell, 43 Willow St., Brooklyn, N. Y.

YOUNG man and wife, college graduates and teachers, desire tutoring for summer. References. 3,673, Outlook.

and teachers, desire tutoring for summer. References. 3,673, Outlook.

DIGNIFIED, American woman of excellent birth, past 40 years, capable, cultured, refined, possessing highest possible references, would travel as companion with equally responsible lady. Invaluable, 3,682, Outlook.

FAMILIES, institutions, schools, and hotels in need of housekeepers, matrons, stenographers, mother's helpers, companions, etc., address Miss Richards, 48 Lloyd Ave., Providence, R. I. Tutors for summer work.

I. A DV wishes to secure a position for her

LADY wishes to secure a position for her former governess, a German graduate and experienced French teacher, who returns to America the first of May. Address Oakleigh, Llewellyn Park, Orange, N. J.

TUTOR, college graduate, two years' experience. desires position for summer months. Travel. Best references. 3,582, Outlook. SITUATION wanted, June tenth, as tutor or governess, primary to college, by experienced teacher, college graduate. 3,522, Outlook.

Outlook.

SCHOOL teachers looking for positions or promotion should write to Albany Teachers' Agency, Albany, N. Y.

TEACHERS' positions, immediate and September. Com'l and shorthand specialty. Free registration. Kinsley Bureau, 245 Broadway, New York.

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TUTORING.—Experienced teacher open to summer engagement. Free May lst. 3,556, Outlook.

AMERICAN man and wife wish posi-tion as janitor, steward, gardener, matron, housekeeper, or caretakers. References. H. D. Lamson, Alandar Mass.

H. D. Lamson, Alandar Mass.

WANTED—Teachers for fall vacancies in private and public schools. Write to-day. New Century Bureau (formerly Dixon Educational Bureau). No. 1420 Chestnut St. Phila.

WANTED—Position as housekeeper in institution or widower's family by thoroughly competent, refined, educated, Protestant lady. Must be in or near to New York City. 3,701. Outlook.

TO young ladies desiring college preparation, music, dramatic art, painting, during the summer a delightful home, a mountain climate, the best instruction are offered, Address Miss Prather, 315 Riverside Drive, New York.

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ESTABLISHED fifty years. The best Teachers Agency. Have you consulted? If not, do it now. Schermerhorn, 3 E. 14th St., N. Y. City.

TUTORING—Experienced teacher, grad-uate of Barnard, would fill few hours with English and Latin. 3,586, Outlook.

UNIVERSITY instructor desires tutoring for summer: would accompany party to Europe. Speaks Italian, French, Spanish, Excellent references. Box 383, Evanston, Ill.

I want a young woman not over thirty, accustomed to and fond of children, systematic and of a cheerful disposition, to take care of my two boys and assist me in the cares of the household. One who could become one of the family and can give the best of references is desired. 3,701, Outlook.

HARVARD graduate, experience with boys as tutor and athlete, desires position as tutor, companion, or camp counselor for summer. Kelso, 35 D., Cambridge, Mass.

TUTOR of experience (Harvard gradu-te) desires position beginning July 1st. 3,685,

EXPERIENCED private secretary Barnard College graduate, desires position Would travel as companion or tutor. 3,725. Outlook.

YOUNG woman desires position as governess to young children for summer months. Makes a specialty of nature study, story-telling, drawing, and manual training. 3,724, ing, dr Outlool

WANTED-A graduate nurse, to have full charge of the health of the family in a large boarding school and of the sanitary con-dition of the house. 3.721, Outlook.

YALE Junior desires trayel abroad with boy, tutoring, or business situation during vacation. 3,723. Outlook.

CAPABLE woman desires position as managing lousekeeper in family or school. References. City or country. 3,720, Outlook.

WANTED—By Canadian young woman sition as companion-secretary. 3,712, Outlook

TEACHER (physical work) wishes to make engagement from June to October. Companion or instructor. Good reader, 3,760, Outlook.

Outlook.

COMPANION or atten lant. Gentlewoman of middle age would act as companion
to elderly or infirm lady or gentleman, or
would take charge of small apartment for one
or two persons (no laundry). City or suburbs
preferred. 3,762, Outlook.

wantenered. 3,702, Outlook.

Wantenered of boy of seven and make herself generally useful. Must be strong, willing, and cheerful. Give full information, salary, and age. 3,765, Outlook.

TEACHER would like position as com-panion or mother's helper, country. 3,767. Outlook.

DEAF woman or deaf child can secure

DEAF woman or deaf child can secure services of experienced teacher for summer months, as companion or instructor. Lipreading, articulation. 3,766. Outlook.

ENGLISH lady desires position, house-keeper, companion, any position of trust. Highest English and American testimonials. Miss Welling, 312 W. 58th St., N. Y.

TWO friends desire positions together in sanitarium, school, settlement, as house-keeper housemaid, attendant, or other useful position. Miss A. Edwards, Brentwood, Long Island.

WILLIAMS Junior wants tutoring or utdoor work during summer vacation. 3,734,

YOUNG American lady, speaking French desires position as governess or companion to child in summer home or traveling. High-est references. Miss Serrell, 25 E. 124th St., New York City.

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WANTED—A teacher, a refined Christian woman, lor Tabriz, Persia, for a dozen children in three missionary families. Contact three years, all expenses found, small salary, Address Mrs. Rhea. Englewood, N.J.

WANTED—Refined, experienced young woman wishes care of invalid or child. Best references. Address Box 311, Mystic. Conn

WANTED—As mother's helper in clergyman's famile, refined young woman to assist in care of three children, aged three, five and nine. French or German conversation desired. Country May to October. Salary \$20. 3,751. Outlook.

STUDENT at Bryn Mawr College wants to do tutoring during the summer. 3,7%, Outlook.

YOUNG man, medical student, highest references, wishes position as companion to invalid or nervous gentleman. Travel. 3,752, Outlook

DOMESTIC science graduate desires a position as housekeeper in private institution or family. Three years' experience. New York references. 3,749, Outlook.

PARISIAN gentleman, college graduate, perfect in French, English, and German, desires engagement as tutor, secretary, com-panion, 3.746, Outlook.

GRADUATE American nurse would go with refined family to Europe as companion to child or invalid. Terms moderate. 3,747, Outlook.

EXPERIENCED lady desires position as housekeeping manager hotel or girls' dormitory. 656 Orange St., New Haven, Conn.

WANTED—By a woman of experience, position as upstairs housekeeper, or to have charge of linen room in a summer hotel, school, or private family. Good references. 3,737. Outlook.

TRY Maryland Teachers' Agency, Taney-town, Md., for results.

town, Md., for results.

CHEERFUL young teacher, summer companion for growing girl. European advantages: German, French, music. Finck, 155 Carroll St., Brooklyn.

COLUMBIA man, A.M., experienced in preparing boys for college, will tutor for his maintenance in refined iamily during summer vacation. 3,718, Outlook.

maintenance in renneu iamily during summer vacation. 3,718, Outlook. WANTED—Position as matron or house-keeper in school or institution by experienced graduate of domestic science. 3,716 Outlook.

graduate of comestic science. 3,760 Outlook.

CULTURED, refined young lady wants
position as companion, secretary good housekeeper, traveler, musical. 3,717. Outlook.

WANTED—After June 30, by experienced traveler, position as governess. 3,709,
Outlook.

EXPERIENCED lady desires vacation teaching. City preferred. 3,710. Outlook.

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A refined young woman wanted as mother's helper to take charge of two children one a baby and the other two years old. Must have no objection to the country. In replying state full particulars as to experience, references, and salary expected. A personal interview necessary. 3,729, Outlook.

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GOVERNESS, French and German, wishes position. Best references. Governess, Brookdale, N. J.

HEALTHY woman wanted as useful companion to elderly invalid lady boarding in village 100 miles from New York City. 200. Permanent. 3.726. Outlook.

WANTED—By refined Scotch lady, position as companion or managing housekeeper.
Best of references. 3,732, Outlook.

YOUNG lady, refined, educated, experienced as companion. Terms moderate, 3,731, Outlook.

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CONTRALTO would like a position in choir. Best of references given is desired. 3,750, Outlook.



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SECRETARY, by graduate nurse, expert stenographer, college education. Travel. Disengaged June 1st. 3,598, Outlook.

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Outlook.

PRINCIPAL will lease or establish day or boarding school. Box 204, Taneytown, Md, STAPLE specialty manufacturing business for sale. Eight years old, known everywhere, nets \$7.00 annually. Reason, old age. Owner has made fortune. 3.758, Outlook.

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3.799, Outlook.

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SUMMARY OF ASSETS:
Cash in Banks and Trust Companies
Real Estate
United States Bonds
State and City Bonds
Railroad Bonds
Miscellaneous Bonds
Railroad Stocks
Miscellaneous Stocks
Bank and Trust Co. Stocks
Bonds and Mortgages, being 1st lien on Real Estate 109,500 00
Premiums uncollected and in hands of Agents 993,668 77
\$21,239,052 %
Cash Capital \$3,000,000 to Reserve Premium Fund. 7,598,001 to
Reserve Premium Fund
Reserve for Losses
Reserve for Re-Insurance, and other claims 837,503 4
Reserve for Taxes and other contingencies
Surplus over contingencies and all liabilities including
capital
\$21,239,052 &
Surplus as regards policy-holders \$11,720,501 34
ELBRIDGE G. SNOW, President; EMANUEL H. A. CORREA, Vice-
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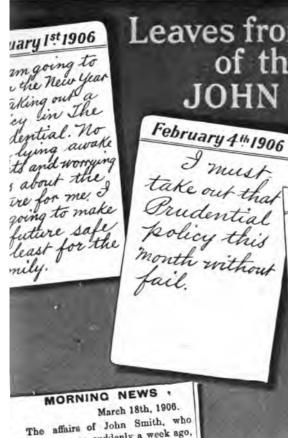
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Leaves from the diary of the <u>late</u>
JOHN SMITH

March Ist 1906

Was reminded by seeing an advertisement of The Prudential Company, that I had not yet taken out that Policy. Must do it at once

The affairs of John Smith, who passed away so suddenly a week ago, are being wound up. The estate is heavily involved. He left his family without life insurance.

Good intentions are worthless unless carried out. There's just one time to insure—that time is today. Make the future sure by taking a Policy in

The Prudential

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name and address on the margin of this leaf and send it in for Information and Rates of Policies, Dept. 19



"Mérode" (Hand Underwear

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Want to feel your time has been well spent?

Want to get best results?

Want to be satisfied beyond a doubt?

Then ask for the

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Recognized as the foremost production of its kind for beauty of fabric, perfection of fit, variety of weights and shapes and exquisite finish.

Write to Department M for our new and beautifully illustrated catalogue and get valuable information in detail.

Putting Your Foot into "Onyx" Hosiery

contradicts the old maxim of "Putting your foot into trouble." When you get into the "ONYX" Brand, you find peace and contentment, the handmaidens of comfort; the pleasurable excitement of money well expended.

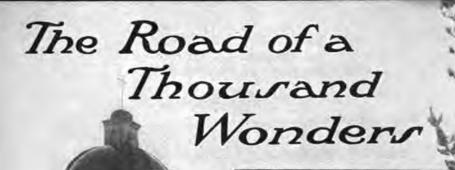
"ONYX" Brand Hosiery are dependable for wear, durability, beauty of fabric and profusion of designs; accurate delineators of Fashion's requirements. All qualities, all colors, always correct, for Women, Misses, and Men. At all shops.

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The glories of this marvel land—which the refreshing breath of the ocean and the majesty of the mountains have made the grandest of all summer resorts—can only be depicted by the pen of a poet, the brush of a master. And so a book of many pages has been prepared by those who, knowing and loving this land of health, desire that others may share with them its riches.

Between the golden covers of this guide book are reproduced the

(Continued on next page)

wen Linden, 71



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Prof Theodor Kerchetylly Mien 8 Februar 1906.

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You wouldn't take chances with sewer gaswhy risk disease from the offensive odors of decaying garbage?

The only way to make garbage odorless and harmless is to keep it in Witt's Corrugated Can.

Then, no matter which way the wind blows, nobody gets a whiff.

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If not on sale in your town order direct from us. Use it and if you don't like it, we'll pay for its return and promptly refund your money.

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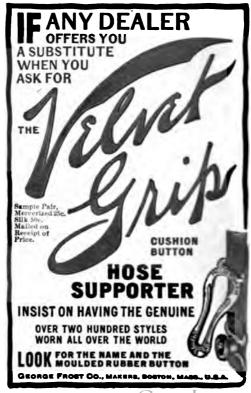
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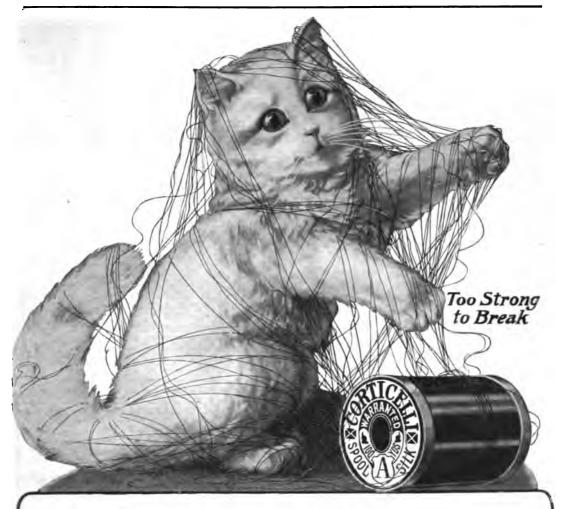
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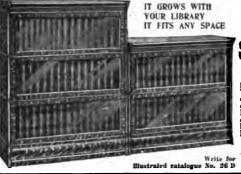
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For want of zinc the paint was lost,—for want of paint the house was lost.—It is far more economical to paint a house too soon or too often than not to paint soon enough or often enough. Paint is cheap, but the beauty it produces and the protection it affords are not cheap. Paints based on OXIDE OF ZINC are more beautiful, more durable, and more economical than other paints; there is a choice here as in other things. Don't let your building look shabby or fall to pieces for the lack of paint, and, while you are about it, see that you get the best kind of paint.

A Suggestive Pamphlet,
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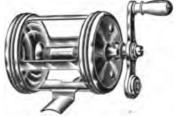
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Its watchlike adjustment and perfect finish in every part make it positively the smoothest and best running for bait-

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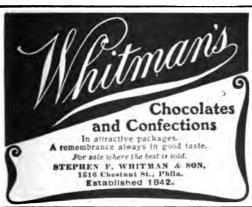
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It is accomplished by the Kewanee System.

With the Kewanee System you get even more than city service, because, in addition to every benefit the latter affords, you may have

-Soft water in your bathroom and laundry.

The old-fashioned gravity system meant pumping water up in order to get it down again.

Now, to give the necessary pressure for fire protection and service, the elevated tank must be located on top of a tall tower. This is expensive, unsightly, and unsafe.

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—Which cannot flood the house because the tank is resting on solid ground, where it can do no damage.

The installation of a Kewanee Pneumatic Tank and Outfit in the cellar (or in the ground) means:

—Plenty of pure, fresh water,

—Cool water in the summer,

No freezing water in winter

Absolute protection from fire,

-Decrease in insurance rates, -A plant that will last a lifetime,

No expensive repairs, -It solves the country water problem completely.

The **Kewanee System** will take care of *all* your needs,—for home, garden, lawn, stables, poultry houses, etc.

Our Kewanee Outfits are complete.

Not an engine only;—which in itself cannot give you a water supply,—nor a tank only, which is useless unless you have some form of pumping power—

But, we furnish the whole thing,—a complete system of

water supply.

Our engineering department is prepared to solve your water problem,—no matter how difficult that problem may

now appear.

Kewanee Outfits are made in sizes, suited to the smallest cottage or largest building,—or group of buildings.

We guarantee every Kewanee Outfit to give perfect

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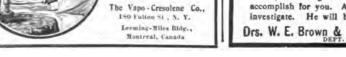


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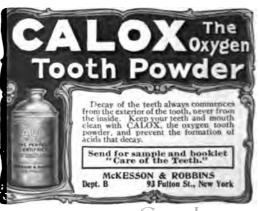
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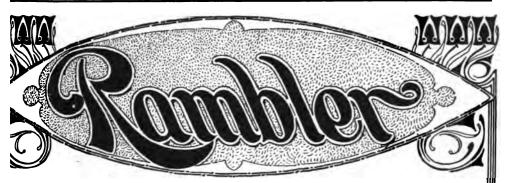
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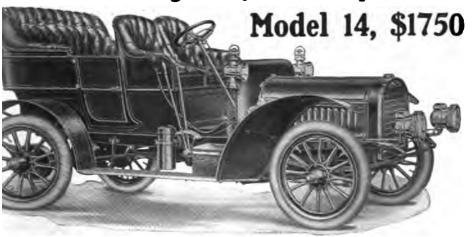
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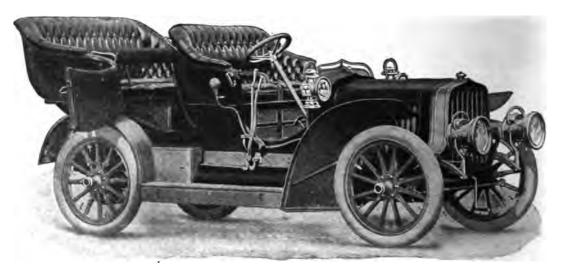
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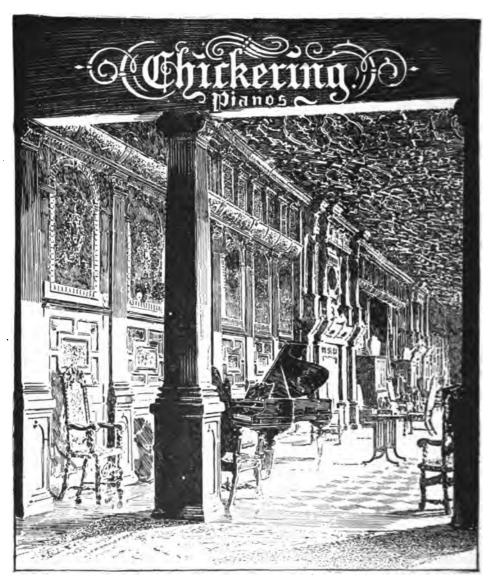
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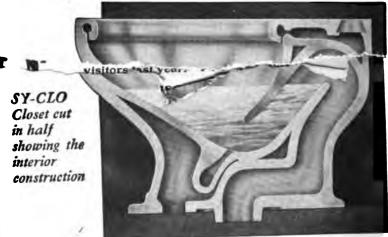
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